

# Second Language Teaching - An Appraisal of European Countries and Regions

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## A Introduction



# 1 Background information on the project

We would first like to introduce the LingualINCLUSION Project and the story of how it came about and resulted in this publication.

LingualINCLUSION is a project of the European Academy of Bolzano (EURAC) and eight other European partners. The aim of the partners was to work together to filter out good practice in the linguistic integration of children with migration backgrounds at primary school in order to develop from this a concept for the continuous professional development of teachers who face the reality of multilingualism in their work in the classroom.

The project is financed by the *European Fund for the Integration of Third Country Nationals* and commenced at the end of December 2009 with the relatively short duration of 18 months. The measures that have been carried out should therefore be regarded as a trial study which can form the basis for further research and initiatives.

## 1.1 Partners and staff involved in the project:



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## 2 Continuous professional development for teachers and supporting tools

At the initial stage of the project, the training systems in the respective countries as well as the models and methods of linguistic support and integration of children with migration backgrounds were analysed and compared. (NB: The results are listed in the regional report published as part of the project.) Based on these analyses, a training programme for the continuous professional development of teachers was developed which was to meet the needs in all the participating countries. The aim of this publication is to share the modules of the teacher training programme with those who were not directly involved in the project and to give them the opportunity to support their own development or to use it for teacher training.

The teacher training course was held in Bolzano, Hamburg, Gothenburg, Vienna, Klagenfurt and Győr with a total of 50 teaching staff who were then supported for seven months in their teaching. It was supported by *Teamsite* (a website provided for sharing experience, tips and materials), an email helpline and a regular newsletter on the subjects covered by the teacher training and any other issues beyond that.

### 3 Language development surveys

The teaching staff who took part in the teacher training course taught a total of 341 pupils whose countries of origin were predominantly non-EU member state third countries.

To ascertain whether there had already been any impact as a result of the teacher training even within the short duration of the project, a language development survey was conducted among the pupils involved at the start and on completion of the period when the teachers were supported by project workers. The language development survey focused on the area of basic morphological and syntactic skills in the area of literacy. The pupils were shown either a cartoon strip or a short cartoon film and composed a text about it which was then assessed in the Swedish-speaking region using Håkansson's profile analysis and in the German-speaking regions using Griebhaber's profile analysis<sup>1</sup>. Profile analysis based on Griebhaber represents - as does profile analysis based on Håkansson - a further refinement of profile analysis based on Pienemann and Clahsen<sup>2</sup>. It is, however, only available for German-speaking areas, which is why the tool based on Håkansson - which closely follows Pienemann and Clahsen - was used for the Swedish language. In the absence of a corresponding instrument for the Hungarian language, it was not possible to conduct any language development surveys in Hungary.

By using language development surveys, the teachers were able to evaluate their pupils' morphological and syntactic skills. This enabled them to assess their pupils better (and more systematically). However, as the profile analyses related solely to the morphological and syntactic area, the University of Hamburg developed a more comprehensive instrument which took account of features that are specific to the narrative (i.e. the introduction of actants, clou, typical genre formulae, (in)direct speech, tenses, embellishment) as well as criteria relating to content (e.g. 'completeness', clarity) and criteria relating to structure (e.g. isolating type, linear type) in order to provide teachers with feedback in greater depth.

Due to the short period of support the teachers received through the project and therefore the brief interval between the first and second language development surveys, the surveys found that the teacher training had had no - or in some cases only minimal - measurable impact. This made it necessary to fall back on the evaluation of the training by teaching staff who regarded the training throughout as very relevant and useful.

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<sup>1</sup> Griebhaber, Wilhelm (2005): Language development diagnosis in second language acquisition: A functional and pragmatic foundation for profile analysis. Series of papers on multilingualism - Research Centre 538, University of Hamburg. Available for downloading as a pdf file at: <http://spzwww.uni-muenster.de/~griesha/pub/tprofilanalyse-azm-05.pdf>. Accessed: 23.8. 2010.

<sup>2</sup> Clahsen, Harald (1985): Profiling second language development: A procedure for assessing L2 proficiency. In: Hyltenstam, Kenneth/Pienemann, Manfred (Editors): *Modelling and Assessing Second Language Acquisition*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, p.283-331.

## 4 Summary

In conclusion, it can be stated that in the countries and regions participating in the project it is absolutely essential to train teachers in second language teaching at universities and teacher training colleges as well as to provide in-service training in their day-to-day work and to support them in their teaching. Structured training is needed in the areas of: second and multi-language acquisition; well-grounded diagnostics aimed at promoting language development; linguistic typology and related error analysis; second language teaching skills in whole class teaching, and the intercultural learning implicit to the subject.

The LingualINCLUSION Project shows that the need for such training exists in all participating countries and that this must be implemented systematically in order to achieve the successful inclusion of children with other first languages in European classrooms. Teaching staff need preparation for multiethnic and multilingual class structures and support in working with these heterogeneous classes.

Therefore it is helpful to know the status of second language teaching in different countries. This offers the possibility to learn from each other and to realize the desiderata in this field.

In this publication, we would like to take you through different European countries and regions to give you an overview over solutions, best practices and drawbacks.

## B Sweden



## **1 Data on the Swedish population and children with migrant backgrounds in Swedish schools**

Sweden has a population of 9.2 million people (2009). Of these some 906 000 are pupils enrolled in compulsory school. Statistics shows that 18,1 % of the total amount of pupils in compulsory school have foreign background, which by the definition of the Swedish National Agency for Education means that the pupils either were born outside of Sweden or have parents who were not born in Sweden. In the bigger cities, like Stockholm, Gothenburg and Malmo, about one third of the pupils in compulsory school have foreign background and in certain schools in these cities it is not unusual that 95 - 100 % of the pupils have foreign backgrounds.

There were 92 578 teachers in Swedish compulsory school in October 2006, which is 1295 less than the year before. On average there were 8.3 teachers per 100 pupils. In municipal schools there were 8.4 teachers per 100 pupils, whereas in grant-aided independent schools there were 7.5 teachers per 100 pupils.

### **1.1 Data on children with migrant background in schools**

The official Swedish statistics from the school year 2008/2009 shows that 18.1 % of all pupils in the compulsory school have foreign background, defined by the Swedish National Agency for Education as pupils who are born in another country or have parents who were both born outside of Sweden.

The same statistics also tells that 7,5 % of all pupils in compulsory school take part of Swedish as a Second Language (as compared to 18.1 % who are entitled to it). 53.4 % of those pupils entitled to mother tongue tuition actually also take part of it.

The 10 biggest mother tongues (apart from Swedish) taught in Swedish compulsory school during 2008/2009 were (in the shown order) Arabic, Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian, Spanish, English, Finnish, Somali, Albanian, Persian, Kurdish and Turkish. Another 136 languages are also taught, so close to 200 different mother tongues now exist within the Swedish compulsory school.

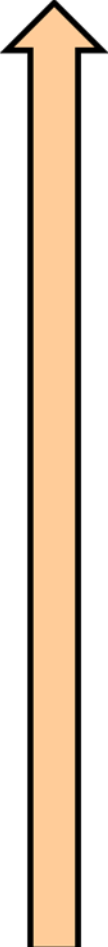
## 2 The Swedish school system

Education in Sweden is mandatory for all children from grade 1 to grade 9, generally starting in the year of the child's seventh birthday up until the end of the spring term of the calendar year of the child's 16th birthday.

From the age of one year children can be admitted to pre-school, which both help provide an environment that stimulates children's development and learning and enable parents to combine parenthood with work or studies. During the year before children start compulsory school, all children are offered a place in a pre-school class, which combines the pedagogical methods of the pre-school with those of compulsory school. Between ages 6/7 and 15/16 children attend compulsory comprehensive school (*grundskola*), divided in three stages.

Secondary school, called *gymnasieskola*, lasts for three years and is formally elective, although most attend it and there are very few prospects for those who do not attend. Secondary school is divided into so called "programs", e.g. different types of choices of educational focus. The two most common "programs" are "social science" and "natural sciences". The programs are divided into two general categories, preparatory and vocational. All programs give basic qualification to attend university, but preparatory programs typically give satisfy more of the various special qualifications that are required to attend some university programs and courses.

After secondary school students can apply to a university in order to receive a tertiary education. General academic degrees are offered by public universities and university colleges that tend to attract students on a regional basis. Besides general academic degrees, the higher education system in Sweden also provides a number of professional and vocational degrees in fields such as engineering, law and medicine.



|  |  |  |
|--|--|--|
|  | <b>University</b><br>(18 years onwards)                            |  |
|  | <b>Adult Education</b><br>"Folk high-school"<br>(18 years onwards) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Adult Education</li> <li>•Swedish for Immigrants (SFI)</li> </ul>  |
|  | <b>Secondary School</b><br>(16-20 years)                           | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Adult Education</li> </ul>   |
| <b>School-age child care</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Leisure-time centre (6-12)</li> <li>•Open leisure-time activities (6-12)</li> </ul> | <b>Compulsory school</b><br>(7-16 years)                           | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Adult Education</li> <li>•Education for pupils with learning disabilities (7-16)</li> <li>•Sami school (7-13)</li> </ul> |
| <b>School-age child care</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Leisure-time centre (6-12)</li> <li>•Open leisure-time activities (6-12)</li> </ul> | <b>Pre-school class</b><br>(6 years)                               |  |
|  | <b>Pre-school</b><br>(1-5 years)                                   | <b>Open pre-school</b><br>(1-6 years)  |

*Fig. B-1: The Swedish Educational System*

### 3 Legislative framework

The Swedish education system is a much decentralized one. The distribution of responsibilities is based on the main principle that Parliament and the Government should control educational activities by defining national goals, while central authorities, municipalities and the organizers of the different institutions are responsible for ensuring that educational activities are implemented in line with the legislative framework and that the national goals for the education are achieved.

The overall national goals of the Swedish education system are set out by Swedish Parliament and Government in

- the Education Act,
- curricula,
- course syllabi for compulsory school.

Education is organized by the State, the county councils, the municipalities and independent education organizers. Most of the public education in Sweden below university level is operated by the municipalities and most higher education institutions are run by the government.

Traditionally education in Sweden has been organized within the public sector. During the 1980s and the beginning of the 1990s, however, the education system has undergone fundamental reforms, which include a far-reaching decentralization process where a goal- and result-oriented steering system has been introduced. The former detailed central regulation of the administration of the education system has gradually been replaced by an approach based on goals/learning outcomes and results. Local authorities have been granted extensive autonomy in administering the schools within the framework set out by the Government.

Legislation in the field of education, like *the Education Act*, is passed by Swedish parliament, which also decides on the general funding of government appropriations to the education system. The Government lays down the *curricula* and *syllabi for the compulsory school system*.

The *Swedish National Agency for Education* is the central administrative authority for the Swedish public school system for children, young people and adults, as well as for the preschool activities and child care for school children. The agency's foremost responsibilities include the nation-wide monitoring and evaluation of all school activities and central development work within the school sector. The *Swedish Schools Inspectorate* is the authority responsible for the supervision and quality evaluation of the school system. Through regular visits and the handling of individual complaints about the shortcomings in a particular school the Inspectorate's task is to make sure that those responsible for schools, i.e. primarily local authorities and those in charge of running independent schools, follow laws and regulations.

For minority pupils in the Swedish school system the Education Act defines and regulates three different sorts of teaching with the special aim to make migrant children more successful in school.

### **3.1 Curricula**

The current curriculum for compulsory schooling in Sweden was adopted in 1998. It sets out the goals and general principles. The goals are of two kinds:

- (a) goals to aim for and
- (b) goals to attain.

The goals to aim for state the direction of the school's work and thus the desired quality development. The goals to be attained are an expression of the minimum pupil attainment required when leaving school. It is the responsibility of the school and the school organizers to ensure that the pupils are given the necessary support to attain these goals.

The syllabi are put together by the Swedish National Agency for Education in close cooperation with teachers' associations and other concerned parties, and decided by the government. The syllabus gives each subject its general orientation and nature, and sets out the goals to aim for in the subject and the goals to be attained by years five and nine.

The time table, which forms part of the Education Act, states the guaranteed total number of hours (6 665 hours) for the nine years of compulsory schooling. This is the minimum hours of tuition that pupils must be given. The school themselves decide how the teaching time is allocated over the nine years of schooling.

There are special syllabi and time tables for both Swedish as a Second Language and Mother Tongue Tuition.

### **3.2 Languages of instruction**

The main language of instruction in Swedish schools is Swedish. There are state schools for the Sami population in the north of Sweden, with teaching in both Swedish and Sami. As mentioned above Swedish schools must also offer mother tongue tuition to those minority pupils who choose it and different subjects can be taught in different languages within the subject matter tutoring in the mother tongue.

In 2003 the Swedish government decided to set up a four-year pilot scheme whereby compulsory schools could offer teaching of subjects in English, also to pupils who do not have English as their mother tongue. This pilot scheme will run until the end of June 2010. It allows municipalities to arrange for some of the teaching in compulsory school to be performed in English, during the trial period limited to half the teaching time. No single subject may be taught exclusively in English.

### 3.3 Assessment and certification

Pupils in the Swedish compulsory school are continuously assessed throughout the education. Grades are awarded from the eighth year. The grades relate the pupils' achievements and the national goals stated in the syllabus for the subject and are given on a three mark scale: *Pass*, *Pass with Distinction* and *Pass with Special Distinction*. The levels are related to national criteria established by the Swedish National Agency for Education.

A pupil who does not achieve the goals set out in the syllabus does not receive a mark in that subject, but instead obtains a written assessment. Pupils and their parents get regular progress reports and meet with the teachers to discuss the pupil's development, usually once every term. Pupils automatically move to a higher class each year. After consulting a pupil's parents, the school head may decide not to move a pupil to the next class, however this is an unusual option.

The Government has proposed a new marking scale for compulsory school, upper secondary school and municipal adult education. The new marking scale will contain six levels and a seventh to indicate that a mark cannot be awarded, which often is the case for migrant children because of insufficient knowledge in the language of instruction, Swedish.

Compulsory national tests in Swedish/Swedish as a Second Language, English and mathematics at the end of year nine ensure that the marking is comparable. There are also optional national tests in these subjects for year five. The Government has now also, since spring term 2009, introduced a national test in Swedish and mathematics for school year three.

Pupils that complete their compulsory schooling obtain a leaving certificate, signed by the school head. Migrant pupils, however, are overrepresented among those who do not complete compulsory school with a pass in the official statistics. For pupils who did not leave compulsory school with a pass it can be completed later through tests or further studies in upper secondary school.

## **4 Language development**

In Swedish schools migrant pupils should be given special education in order to help develop both their first and second languages with active bilingualism as a clearly worded aim. The different types of teaching are defined in the Swedish Education Act.

### **4.1 Swedish as a Second Language**

*Swedish as a Second Language* is a subject on its own rights since 1995 throughout the whole Swedish school system with a syllabus of its own, provided by the National Agency for Education, and which is obligatory and replaces teaching in Swedish as a native language, if the school decides so.

### **4.2 Mother Tongue Tuition**

*Mother tongue tuition* is a subject in Swedish schools since 1976. It is an optional subject which the schools must offer if 5 pupils with a certain mother tongue ask for it and if the school can find a suitable teacher. Pupils speaking one of the official Swedish minority languages, Finnish, Tornedal-Finnish, Sami, Romani and Yiddish, cannot be denied mother tongue tuition.

### **4.3 Subject Matter Tuition in the Mother Tongue**

*Subject matter tutoring in the mother tongue* is also defined and regulated in the Education Act. This extra teaching is offered to pupils with difficulties in school, e.g. insufficient knowledge of Swedish to be able to understand text books and to follow the teaching in a subject. The extra teaching is obligatory if the school decides so.

### **4.4 Organizations for teaching migrant pupils in Sweden**

Class size is not centrally regulated in Sweden. It is determined locally by the municipality and the school. Children are often grouped by age. Age integrated classes, however, are common where there are few children and are sometimes also used as a pedagogical tool. In the first three years the class teacher normally teaches all subjects. In classes 4-5 specialized teachers teach languages, mathematics, craft and art. From 6-7 all teachers are specialized to teach two or three subjects.

Throughout compulsory school there are teachers in Swedish as a Second Language who teach migrant pupils either within the class or in a smaller group outside of the class.

Mother tongue teachers usually teach groups of pupils with the same mother tongue in the afternoons, after ordinary school time. The groups can vary in size and also in combination of pupils of different ages, depending on how many pupils have chosen mother tongue tuition in a certain language.

#### **4.5 Models of multilingualism (teaching methods) in compulsory education**

How teaching of minority pupils is organized and carried out is also determined locally by the municipality and the school in Sweden. Migrant pupils who are relative newcomers to a school and who have recently migrated are often put in a preparatory class with about 10 - 15 pupils in it. The reason for this is to create a secure environment for them and to be able to concentrate on language development in the second language, if possible with help of the pupil's mother tongue. After a year or so the migrant pupil is placed in a regular class to follow the teaching in different subjects, often supported by mother tongue and second language teachers. Not always does the school provide preparatory classes for newcomers, who then are put into ordinary classes, possibly supported by a teacher in Swedish as a Second Language.

According to the Education Act those pupils who need it shall be taught Swedish as a Second Language, which thus shall replace Swedish as a native language. SSL can be taught either integrated within the ordinary class - but with a Swedish as a Second Language teacher - or in a special group outside of the class.

Mother tongue is mostly taught in the afternoon, after regular school time. The group size can vary depending on the number of pupils who have chosen the particular language. The aim of this teaching is for the pupils to continue to develop their first language and also to keep contact with their original culture.

Subject matter tutoring in the mother tongue usually takes place parallel with the teaching of some special subject. E.g. a Somali mother tongue teacher comes into the class-room to help a Somali pupil understand how magnetism works. With help of the Somali language he can explain and also help the pupil to learn the relevant Swedish words and notions.

#### **4.6 Evaluation**

The state has overall responsibility for supervision, follow-up and evaluation of the education system in Sweden. The central authorities carry out the national evaluation of educational institutions in their respective areas of responsibility.

The Swedish Schools Inspectorate is responsible for the evaluation of the school system (pre-schools, schools and adult education) although the major part of the evaluation takes place locally in municipalities and schools. The 290 Swedish municipalities have great autonomy to administer the education system within the legislative framework and the

municipalities themselves are responsible for the organization and implementation of school evaluation.

It quite frequently happens that schools are being reprimanded by the Swedish Schools Inspectorate about shortcomings in the education of migrant pupils in evaluations such as these and then have to show, within a certain time span, that improvements have been made.

## 5 Teacher training

Teacher training is presently provided at 26 universities and university colleges in Sweden. A teaching qualification is obtained after completion of between three and five and a half years of full- time studies - different educational levels requires different amounts of credit points. There is also a short teacher education program of one and a half year for those with a previous bachelor or master degree.

In 2001 an integrated teaching degree was established in which the degree in Education for the compulsory school was replaced by degrees for teaching in the first years of compulsory school or in the higher levels of the compulsory school. With this structure all teachers get a common basic competence, combined with a specialization for particular subject/subjects areas and/or age groups.

Teacher training varies to a degree between Swedish universities and university colleges but it is correct to say that in the general education studies subjects like second language acquisition, multilingualism and multicultural are very rarely being dealt with. Swedish as a Second Language, however, is a subject to specialize in both for teachers in the first years and in the higher levels of compulsory school, comprising 60 ECT credits.

Teacher training for Mother tongue teachers are dealt with in some Swedish universities.

Starting from autumn 2011 a new teacher education program will be introduced in Sweden and it is difficult to foresee at this stage what that will be the outcome of this change.

## C Germany - Hamburg



# **1 On the population of Hamburg, having particular regard to people with a migration background and education**

Hamburg is one of the 16 states of the Federal Republic of Germany and one of its three “city states”. A federal system operates in Germany, one aspect of which is “the cultural sovereignty of the states”. The structure of the education system in Germany is thus the responsibility of the individual federal states.

Hamburg has a population of just under 1.8 million. The proportion of foreign nationals is 14.3% (Fed. Statistical Office, 2009, 10; figures as of end of 2007). In order to improve understanding of the issues, in Germany it has become common in recent years to speak of “people with a migration background”<sup>3</sup>. In 2007, Hamburg had 1,762,000 inhabitants. Of these, 463,000 had a migration background in the broadest sense of the term.<sup>4</sup> 4,300 children with a migration background started their primary education in 2006 (2008 Education Report, p.107).

Useful information on the concept of “migration background” and more statistical information is available on the State Ministry of Schools and Vocational Training website:

“Approx. 451,000 people with a migration background live in Hamburg, which is approx. 26% of the city’s population. The proportion is thus significantly higher in Hamburg than the national average of 18%. The issue of migration and integration is therefore a priority for the state’s administration.

“The Northern Statistical Office has arrived at these figures by including under the term ‘people with a migration background’:

“People who have migrated to the current territory of the Federal Republic since 1949 as well as all those born in Germany with at least one parent who migrated to Germany or were foreign nationals born in Germany (i.e. foreign nationals, naturalised Germans, displaced persons, ethnic German repatriates including more recent arrivals from Eastern Europe, and asylum seekers).

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<sup>3</sup> “In most European languages on the other hand, it is common parlance to describe all people who appear to be foreign as “foreigners”, even those who have been resident in the country for a long time and perhaps have even been born in the country.” (Fürstenau et al, 2003, p.17). However, the 2009 Hamburg Education Report introduces the term “migration indicator” alongside “migration background” and defines this as follows: “A migration indicator for pupils is when at least one of the following three factors applies: the pupil does not have German nationality; is an ethnic German repatriate; or the language they speak predominantly (previously referred to as the ‘language of origin’) is not German. There can be deviations from this definition in individual indicators if required due to the available data.” (loc.cit., p.5).

<sup>4</sup> Breakdown: Germans with experience of migration: 126,000; Germans with no experience of migration: 87,000; foreign nationals with experience of migration: 200,000; foreign nationals with no experience of migration: 50,000.

“70% of people with a migration background who live in Hamburg are migrants who have arrived since 1950, while 30% were born in Germany. The average age of the population with a migration background is 33.6 years and is therefore lower than that of the population without a migration background, which is 45.3. Also, the proportion of men in the population with a migration background (52%) is higher than in the population without a migration background (47%).

“Migration has a history, including and especially in a port such as Hamburg. This city earns its living specifically from overseas trade and therefore through people and goods from other countries. A glance at its history shows that migration has tended to be more the norm than the exception. Members of many nations and peoples have always and continue to come into contact with this city in many different ways and have contributed to its diversity and wealth.”

(Source: [www.hamburg.de/migration](http://www.hamburg.de/migration), accessed: 16.3.2010)

There are, of course, other problems with defining and understanding “Children/adolescents with a migration background”, as described by Fürstenau et al in their study:

“If we consider their place of birth, 11.2% of these adolescents [i.e. the 15-year-olds in the PISA survey - author] are migrants. If we incorporate data relating to where the parents of these adolescents were born and the language spoken in the family, the proportion of migrants increases considerably, making up 26.6% of the random sample (German PISA Consortium 2002, p.190)”

(Fürstenau et al, 2003, p.24)

Also of interest in this context are the remarks by Fürstenau and Gogolin’s team on integration and multilingualism. In today’s society, the commitment to integration lies between assimilation and multiculturalism (Fürstenau et al, 2003, p.17 ff.). In school, the value attached to the language the child arrives with will vary, fluctuating between an assumption that it is harmful or a hindrance and an assumption that multilingualism and cultural pluralism are appropriate and enriching (Fürstenau et al, 2003, p.19 ff.). Children’s educational success depends greatly - as, for example, demonstrated strikingly by the PISA survey - on their proficiency in the majority language (Fürstenau et al, 2003, p.20). It is also the case that proficiency in the child’s own language supports the acquisition of the majority language:

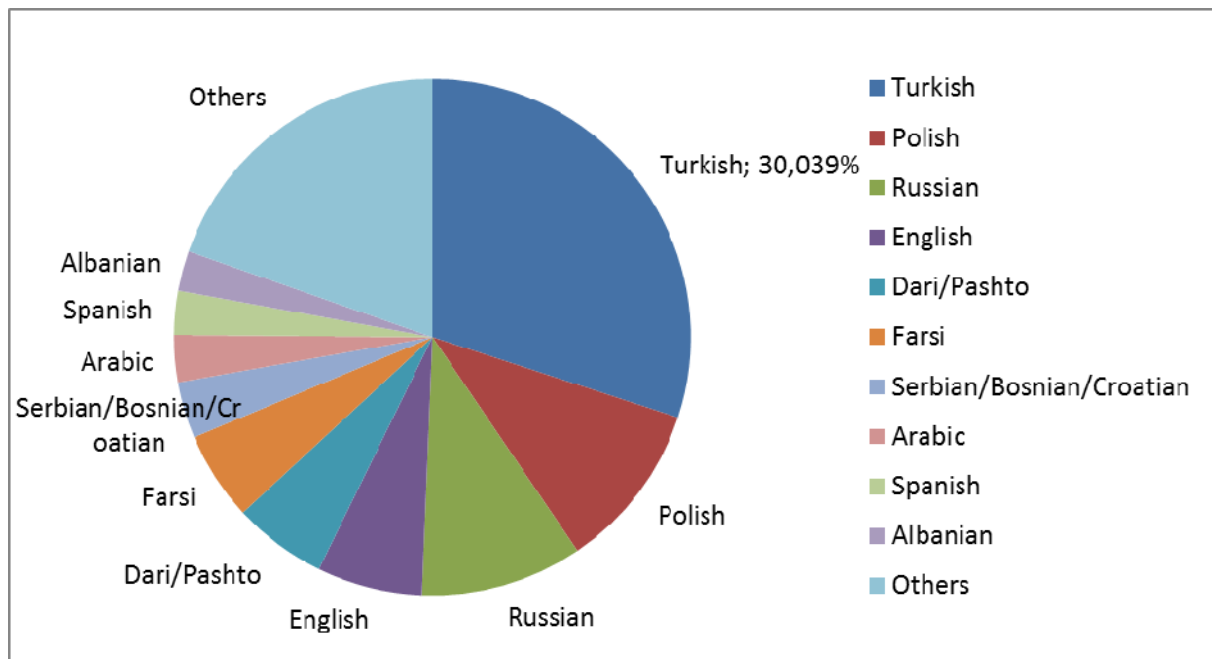
“We can regard it as proven that supporting bilingualism - and coordinating a child’s literacy in both languages in particular - creates the best conditions for success in language development. [...] Supporting both languages clearly also benefits learning in other subjects; it provides for better teaching and learning outcomes.”

(Fürstenau et al, 2003, p.20).

As part of the Babylon Project, which started out in the Netherlands, a large-scale survey was carried out in Hamburg primary schools in 2002 with just 12 of the then 230 state primary schools not taking part. The survey of the children at the 218 primary schools that were involved produced the following picture of Hamburg's primary school children: 86.74% of all children were born in Germany, as were 60.36% of all fathers and 63.13% of all mothers of Hamburg's primary school children (Fürstenau et al, 2003, p.43). "Approximately 35% of schoolchildren indicated that they spoke at least one other language as well as or instead of German at home." (Fürstenau et al, 2003, p.47).

Though Hamburg's primary school children at the time of the survey spoke just under 90 other languages, 93% of the multilingual children spoke one of the 20 most frequently cited languages of origin (Fürstenau et al, 2003, p.51), as shown in the table that is part of *figure C-1* (ibid.; see p.6).

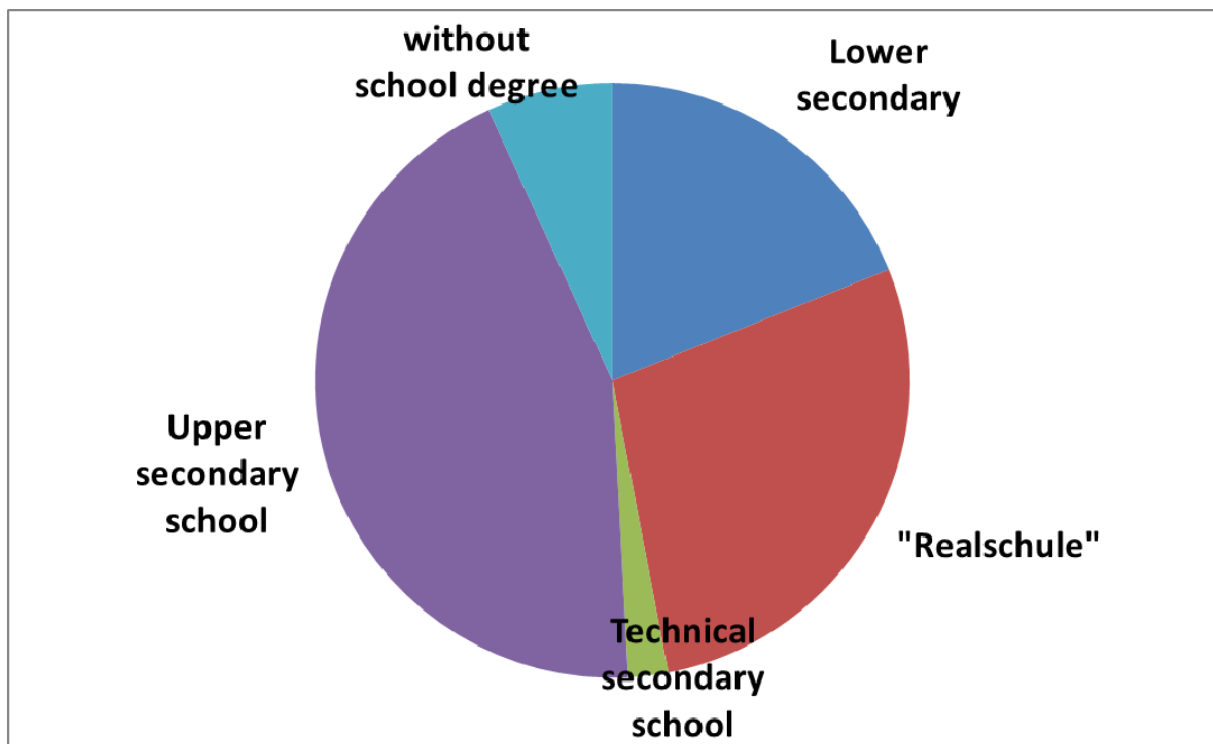
|                          |       |      |
|--------------------------|-------|------|
| Turkish                  | 30,0% | 4997 |
| Polish                   | 10,5% | 1742 |
| Russian                  | 10,1% | 1686 |
| English                  | 6,6%  | 1097 |
| Dari/Pashto              | 5,9%  | 976  |
| Farsi                    | 5,6%  | 925  |
| Serbian/Bosnian/Croatian | 3,5%  | 586  |
| Arabic                   | 2,9%  | 490  |
| Spanish                  | 2,7%  | 457  |
| Albanian                 | 2,5%  | 417  |
| Others                   | 19,6% | 3262 |



*Fig. C-1: Hamburg's primary school children speak just under 90 languages (Fürstenau et al, 2003, p.49 ff.)*

## 1.1 Population of Hamburg: school leaving qualifications/level of education

As shown in *figure C-2* (compiled from the Federal Statistical Office's 2009 figures), citizens who are foreign nationals tend to have a lower standard of qualifications on leaving school than the German population. *figure C-3*, which applies to Hamburg, sheds light on the relationship between school-leaving qualifications, gender and nationality; the figures apply to the population of Hamburg above the age of 15:



*Fig. C-2: School-leaving qualifications of population of Hamburg aged 15+*

The following statistics show absolute figures for school leavers in the 2007/2008 academic year: (Hamburg and Schleswig-Holstein Statistical Office, 2009, p.39):

|  | Population as a whole<br>(male/female) | Population with German<br>background/citizenship?<br>(male/female) | Population with foreign<br>background/citizenship?<br>(male/female) |
|--|--|--|---|
| In school education                                | 3,7%<br>(4,0/3,4)                      | 3,4%<br>(3,8/3,1)  | 5,2%<br>(5,1/5,3)   |
| Primary and lower<br>secondary education<br>degree | 27,4%<br>(27,2/27,6)                   | 28,0%<br>(27,5/28,6)   | 23,6%<br>(25,7/21,2)  |
| PTO  | 0,5%<br>(-/-)                          | 0,6%<br>(-/-)  | -<br>(-/-)  |
| Realschul- oder<br>gleichwertiger Abschluss        | 23,8%<br>(22,5/24,9)                   | 24,7%<br>(22,7/26,5)   | 18,1%<br>(21,1/14,7)  |
| University degree                                  | 36,8%<br>(38,2/35,5)                   | 37,8%<br>(39,8/36,0)   | 30,7%<br>(29,5/32,0)  |
| Not stated   | 2,6%<br>(2,8/2,5)                      | 2,5%<br>(2,6/2,3)  | 3,6%<br>(-/-)   |
| Without school degree                              | 4,6%<br>(4,4/4,9)                      | 2,4%<br>(2,6/2,3)  | 18,2%<br>(14,4/22,3)  |

*Fig. C-3: Hamburg school leavers - 2007/08 academic year*

Finally, *figure C-4* shows the skills deficit of 15-year-old pupils with a migration background for the whole of Germany:

## Competences of children with migration background in PISA 2000, 2003 and 2006 in points missing to the average results of children with German background

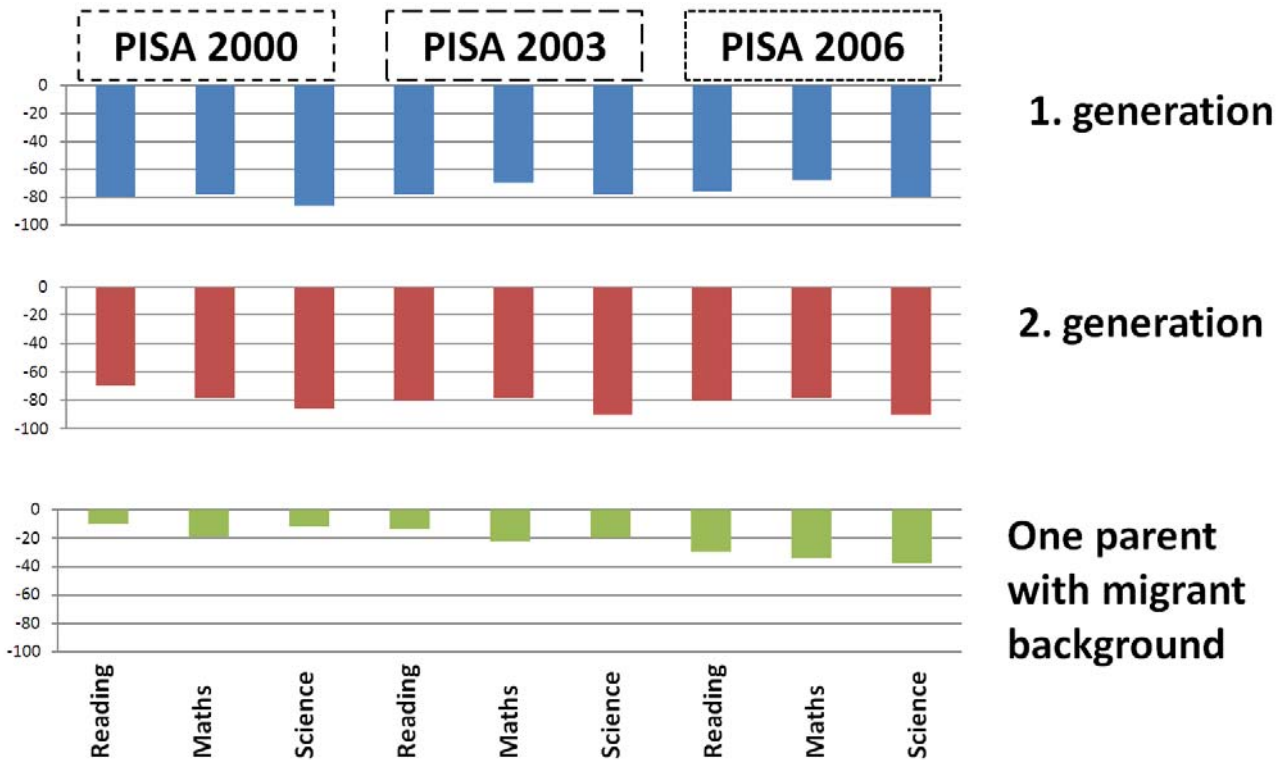


Fig. C-4: Skills deficit of 15-year-old pupils with a migration background (taken from 2008 Education Report, p.85)

## 2 The education system in Hamburg

Education is compulsory in Germany as described in § 38 of the Hamburg Schools Act below:

“Compulsory education starts for children

- (a) who have reached their 6th birthday before 1st July for whom education becomes compulsory on 1st August of the same calendar year.
- (b) who have reached their 6th birthday after 30th June, who may start school at the beginning of the academic year on application by their parents or guardians while taking into account their level of intellectual, emotional, physical and linguistic development. Compulsory education begins on admission.
- (c) while children who reach their 6th birthday between 1st January and 30th June may be held back a year on application by their parents or guardians or the school following a hearing with the parents or guardians while taking into account their level of intellectual, emotional, physical and linguistic development. Held-back children are admitted to an existing pre-school class. In justified exceptional cases, authorisation may be given for held-back children to attend a day care establishment instead; this does not apply in the case of children starting later due to their linguistic development in terms of clause 1.”

### 2.1 Early years education

Before children go to school, they may attend a creche, kindergarten or pre-school. In order to obtain a place at a creche (for under 3s), the need for such must be proven (i.e. parents are in full-time work, training, taking part in an integration course, etc.). Child care in Hamburg is financed by the state; a parental contribution based on income<sup>5</sup> is also levied. At 3-6 years of age, every child is entitled to a 5-hour kindergarten place - this also has to be paid for by the parents based on income. A requirement for more than 5 hours must be substantiated. Since the 2009/10 academic year, the final year of a 5-hour kindergarten place before starting school is free of charge. As well as the kindergarten, there is also pre-school provision which is available in the year prior to starting school and has likewise been free of charge since 2009/10. Before 2009/10, this was only free of charge if it was strongly recommended that the child attended pre-school (at the time of registering for a school at 4½ - see § 4.1.1). The issue of kindergarten/pre-school dualism

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<sup>5</sup> For information on parental contributions, please visit <http://www.hamburg.de/elterninformationen/116832/elternbeitraege.html>. Currently under discussion is a reduction in contributions as well as removing all charges for 5 hours of kindergarten/day for children aged 3-6.

is a constant subject of debate. A further problem for early years education is that a disproportionately high number of migrant children do not attend kindergarten.

## **2.2 Education system**

In Hamburg, as in most other federal states (the exceptions being Berlin and Brandenburg), children's school education begins when they start 4 years of primary education. In the 4th year of school, teachers give a recommendation as to which secondary school a child should attend. However, parents can choose not to follow the recommendation. There are three pillars of secondary education in Hamburg (and Germany in general): secondary school (5 years), secondary school leading to HE/FE (6 years) and grammar school (8 years; this was recently reduced from 9 years and varies from state to state). Grammar school concludes with general university entrance examinations (Abitur). There are also comprehensive schools (where in principle all qualifications are on offer) and a differentiated system of special schools.

In the 2008/09 academic year, there were 220 primary schools and 211 pre-school classes. Of these, 28 primary schools and 15 pre-school classes were private. There were 2,205 primary school classes and 328 pre-school classes (private: 228 and 26). The number of pupils was 52,054 at primary schools and 6,425 at pre-schools (Hamburg and Schleswig-Holstein Statistical Office, 2009/10). The structure of the Hamburg education system is as follows:

|                                      |  |  |   |   |  |
|--------------------------------------|--|--|---|---|--|
| CLASS<br>13                          | Vocational qualification   |  |   | „Abitur“ preperation<br>leading to<br>„Abitur“ (= University<br>qualification exam) |  |
| CLASS<br>12<br>11                    | Training and education<br>at companies and part<br>time vocational<br>schools (Berufsschule) | Full-time<br>vocational<br>school<br>(Berufsfach-<br>oberschule) | Vocational<br>upper<br>secondary<br>school<br>(Fach-<br>oberschule) | Continuation with Gymnasium or<br>„Gesamtschule“                                    |  |
| CLASS<br>10<br>9<br>8<br>7<br>6<br>5 | Secondary<br>general school<br>(Hauptschule)   | Intermediate<br>school<br>(Realschule)                           | Grammar<br>School<br>(Gymna-<br>sium)                               | Compre-<br>hensive<br>school<br>(Gesamt-<br>schule)                                 |  |
| CLASS<br>4<br>3<br>2<br>1            | Primary School (Grundschule)   |  |   |   |  |

Fig. C-5: Structure of Hamburg education system (Hamburg State Ministry of Education and Sports, 2007, p.3)

## 2.3 Educational reforms introduced in 2010/11 academic year

Starting with the 2010/11 academic year, far-reaching changes have taken place in Hamburg's education system - although not quite to the extent that was originally planned, as in the summer a referendum ("We want to learn") successfully defeated one of the changes in the original plan: the introduction of 6 years of primary education (instead of four years). Nor was another change implemented: the replacement of the "right of parental choice" - which permits parents to take the final decision on which school their child will attend after 4 years of primary education - with a decision by the teacher only.

However, numerous other new proposals were implemented, e.g. the replacement of the previous three pillars of secondary education with two. From now on, there are to be "district schools" and "grammar schools". At a district school, all qualifications are available to pupils, including the Abitur, with the difference that the Abitur pathway takes a total of 13 years instead of the 12 years at a grammar school. Other differences to grammar schools are fewer lessons per week and smaller classes.

Other new developments in the education system initiated by the “school offensive” are that the concept of all-age, personalised, concept-led learning (instead of the acquisition of knowledge and concepts) should be implemented in schools as an overall concept. Furthermore, no pupils are to be held back from now on, and special needs children have the right to be educated in mainstream schools. English is taught from the age of 7. In primary schools, the class sizes are set at no more than 23 (19 at schools in the tougher areas) per class.

## **2.4 Half-day schools and all-day schools**

All-day schools are to be increased in Hamburg. However, the most common form is still the reliable half-day school; in other words, teaching at all 210 state primary schools in Hamburg takes place from 08.00 - 13.00 (2009 Hamburg Education Report, p.20). Children whose parents want or need after-school child care are looked after at an after-school club attached to the school or kindergarten (up to the age of 12) which is chargeable (see also <http://www.ganztagschulen.org/1137.php>).

### 3 Supervisory authorities

As described at the start, cultural sovereignty of the states prevails within Germany's federal system and is embedded in the constitution. In this context, the federal government only has framework powers; otherwise, the authority for decision-making lies with the federal states. The states have set up a Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the German Federal States (KMK), which is a voluntary institution.

“The states assume responsibility for the state as a whole by way of self-coordination and ensure the necessary degree of common ground in education, science and cultural matters of supraregional importance. One key task for the Standing Conference is to ensure the highest possible degree of mobility throughout Germany for pupils, students, teaching personnel and those working in the academic sector by means of consensus and cooperation.”

(<http://www.kmk.org/information-in-english/standing-conference-of-the-ministers-of-education-and-cultural-affairs-of-the-laender-in-the-federal-republic-of-germany/organization-and-proceedings.html>)

The authority in Hamburg responsible for the education system is the State Ministry of Schools and Vocational Training (or BSB and known up until June 2008 as the Ministry of Education and Sports of the Free and Hanseatic City of Hamburg). The Hamburg Schools Act, last revised in 2009, sets out in § 85:

#### § 85 Education authority, advisory support and inspection

(1) The entire education system is the responsibility of the state. The duties of the responsible authority are:

1. Compliance with legal and administrative regulations, in particular the aims and principles laid down in §§ 1 to 3 as well as formal curricula
2. Professional supervision of teaching and social education in schools
3. Professional supervision of teaching staff where this has not been delegated to headteachers in accordance with § 89 para. 2 clause 2.

State schools are supervised in particular through agreements on targets and performance which are concluded and monitored with headteachers.

(2) The education authority also advises and supports schools in carrying out their duties as part of schools' extended responsibility for their own affairs.

(3) The school inspection service investigates the quality of academic education and social education as a process at state schools and reports to schools and the education authority. School inspectors are not

- (4) The responsible authority reviews the success of the professional work being carried out throughout the school and benchmarks this against comparator schools in order to ensure parity and quality as well as the permeability and diversity of the academic education and social education provided in schools.
- (5) Self-governance in schools, as set out in § 50 of the Hamburg Schools Act, applies within this framework:
- (6) § 50 Self-governance in schools
- (7) In realising its duty of academic education and social education, the individual school is responsible in the framework of the state's overall responsibility for the scheduled provision of teaching, the pastoral care of its pupils and the administration and organisation of its internal affairs. This is achieved by actively exploiting the opportunities for the independent organisation of teaching and school life provided for in the act.

The State Ministry of Schools and Vocational Training has several establishments and institutions which are under its control or with which it cooperates closely. The main institutions for the primary school sector are as follows:

- Teacher Training and Curriculum Development Authority (LI)
- Institute for Education Monitoring (IfBM)
- Hamburg Academic Support and Research Centre for Development Processes in Schools (ZUSE)

Furthermore, there are various panels (i.e. pupil, parent and teacher panels) in Hamburg which advise the BSB. This is also set out in the Hamburg Schools Act:

#### § 79 Tasks

- (1) The pupil panel, parent panel and teacher panel (i.e. the panels) advise the responsible authority on all decisions of fundamental importance concerning the education system. They cultivate relationships between school, pupils, parents and teachers and with the public.

The chairs of the three panels - together with other members of social institutions - form the State Education Advisory Council:

#### § 83 State Education Advisory Council

- (1) The State Education Advisory Council supports cooperation between the groups directly involved in the education system and the public institutions that are indirectly involved. It takes a view on all issues of

principle concerning the education system and advises the responsible authority on fundamental changes to the education system.

(2) The State Education Advisory Council comprises:

the chairs of the teacher panel, parent panel and pupil panel; one member each appointed by the responsible authority for a four-year term and proposed by the Hamburg Chamber of Commerce, Hamburg Chamber of Crafts, Commissioner for Foreign Nationals of the Senate of the Free and Hanseatic City of Hamburg, the Senate's Responsible Officer for Disabled Affairs, Hamburg Employment Office, Confederation of German Trade Unions, German Salaried Employees' Union, the Hamburg branch of the German Public Sector Workers' Union, University of Hamburg, Hamburg University of Technology, Hamburg University of Applied Sciences, the Protestant church, the Roman Catholic church, the Jewish community and the Federation of Secular Organisations, and two members each from the parent panel, teacher panel and pupil panel who are elected from among their own number.

(<http://www.hamburg.de/navigation-was-ist-lsb-start/70474/start.html>;  
accessed on 22.3.2010)

## 4 Language support

### 4.1 The Hamburg Language Support Concept

In the 2005/06 academic year, the Free and Hanseatic City of Hamburg adopted the Hamburg Language Support Concept, which was passed by the Senate of the Free and Hanseatic City of Hamburg. The following summary of the Hamburg Language Support Concept is taken from the LI's website:

“Based on the findings of school performance analyses carried out at international, national and city level, the concept comprises a range of measures to develop and extend language support in particular for children and adolescents with language development problems and those with a migration background.

“The aim of the language support concept is to improve the reading, writing and speaking skills of all children and adolescents as one of the basic skills for success in education and the transition to training for employment. The Hamburger Language Support Concept is supported by a variety of institutions.”

(<http://www.lihamburg.de/abt.liq/liq.projekte/liq.projekte.14/index.html>)

Specific areas covered by the concept are language support at pre-school, language support at mainstream schools, additional language support and the training of language learning coordinators who lead language support in school.

The 2009 Hamburg Education Report is given over extensively to the Hamburg Language Support Concept. The following overview is taken from page 160 of the Hamburg Education Report:

“The measures carried out in Hamburg's schools as part of the language support concept consist essentially of the following elements:

- Early detection and advice for 4½-year-olds 18 months before they start compulsory education
- Mandatory language support for children with a conspicuous need for language support at pre-school age
- Additional language support for children with a conspicuous need for language support in school
- TheaterSprachCamp [Language Drama Camp], which represents a supplementary measure for pupils with a migration background

“The processes for diagnosing and assessing pupils' level of language are coordinated and the need for language support is determined according to standard criteria.”

The Hamburg Schools Act of 2009 states in § 28 with regard to language support:

§ 28a Language support

- (1) Pupils whose language skills are insufficient to take part effectively in lessons are obliged to attend additional lessons to acquire the German language or improve their language skills.
- (2) Children whose language skills are insufficient to take part effectively in lessons are obliged to attend a pre-school class prior to entering compulsory education and to take part in additional school-based language support measures.
- (3) An application may be made for children not to attend a pre-school class on condition that they attend an appropriate child care establishment. § 38 para. 3 clause 1 applies in the case of mandatory attendance at the pre-school class providing that the pre-school age child is held back for a year from receiving language support before starting compulsory education only where this is due to intellectual, emotional and physical underdevelopment.

The individual components of the Hamburg Language Support Concept are summarised below.

#### **4.1.1 Registration of 4½-year-olds**

In Hamburg, all parents must register their children with a school in their area 18 months before the start of compulsory education. To that end parents receive an invitation to register their child, to which they are obliged to respond.

“Experienced education professionals have a detailed discussion with parents about their child’s level of development and diagnose their level of linguistic development by engaging in play activities with the children themselves. If there are indications of language development problems or serious problems with German, a standardised test is carried out to assess the level of language. This is known as the stimulus picture test for 4-year-olds.

“Based on the outcome of the registration process, parents are advised about any further educational supervision and - if necessary - specific support required for their child. Where there is a conspicuous need for language support, those affected receive mandatory and targeted additional language support one year before starting primary education.”

(2009 Hamburg Education Report, p.161)

A great deal of attention needs to be paid to establishing the level of language of the child, and at the same time the child’s physical, emotional, mathematical and musical development is also taken into consideration; in some cases, this is brought together as per the advice given to form a package of appropriate support measures (<http://www.li-hamburg.de/abt.liq/liq.projekte/liq.projekte.14/index.html>).

#### **4.1.2 Language support in the pre-school sector**

The targeted language support of children is systematically triggered one year before starting school by means of the institutional registration procedure for 4½-year-olds described above. The aim is that the children are sufficiently proficient in the German language on starting school so that they are able to follow the lessons receptively and productively.

“When support commences (i.e. one year before starting school), the child’s level of language is assessed once again using a special observation procedure. HAVAS 5, the Hamburg procedure for analysing the language level of 5-year-olds, allows more accurate statements to be made about a child’s level of language and provides the basis for personalised support. It can also be used for assessing a child’s level of language in other languages. Thus, more relevant statements can be made about the linguistic capability of a bilingual child - at least in the languages that they currently use. HAVAS is available in the following languages: German, Turkish, Russian, Spanish, Italian, Polish and Portuguese.

“The support for the children is provided either at the day care centres or in pre-schools. It has been obligatory since August 2006 for those girls and boys who have been found to have a conspicuous need for support.”

(<http://www.li-hamburg.de/abt.liq/liq.projekte/liq.projekte.14/index.html>)

#### **4.1.3 Language support in the primary school**

In Hamburg, all children who are picked up through the systematic assessment of their level of language by means of the diagnostic tools, the stimulus picture test and HAVAS 5, have the opportunity to receive language support. The quote below explains how this happens in detail and the measures that are available:

“Language learning coordinators (known as SLKs) have been working in schools in Hamburg since the 2005/06 academic year. They ensure that language support is integrated at the school. The SLKs receive training for this role by attending a course at the State Institute (LI).

“The State Institute (in this case, the Capacity Building Department) carries out a monitoring exercise to assess the pupils put forward by the schools (using code numbers to safeguard their anonymity) whose survey results suggest that there are problems. Levels of development in different language areas, for example, were surveyed in the autumn of 2005. The levels of learning were recorded in diagnosis forms according to the following areas of performance:

- General level of language development
- Early skills for writing
- Reading

- Spelling

“On the basis of these results, support plans are drawn up for the individual pupils. Additional support groups are set up for pupils with a conspicuous need for support. Concepts for the inclusive support of pupils should also ensure that teaching practice in its entirety relates to the learning situation of the children who need language support.

“As pupils’ linguistic skills should always be developed in every lesson, it is essential for the school to establish a coordinated procedure in the form of a concept. This educational support concept covers:

- identification of children with support needs
- considerations for additional support
- considerations for inclusive support
- considerations for the evaluation of additional and inclusive support

“It aims to coordinate measures for identifying support needs and for delivering that support within the school.”

(<http://www.li-hamburg.de/abt.liq/liq.projekte/liq.projekte.14/index.html>)

#### **4.1.4 Additional and inclusive language support**

The child receives additional or inclusive language support depending on the support needs identified in each individual case. These are organised in various forms:

“Additional support measures essentially take place in the afternoons in addition to regular lessons in order to increase the time available to the individual pupil for learning. Participation is mandatory. The lesson is taken by teaching staff or educational social workers in language support groups.

“Inclusive language support is provided as part of the regular lessons. The language support can be organised according to different models to be identified by the school. Team-teaching, small groups, one-to-one teaching and personalised forms of learning complement each other.”

(2009 Hamburg Education Report, p.170)

#### **4.1.5 Language learning coordinators**

A special feature of the Hamburg Language Support Concept is the training and deployment of language learning coordinators: in-house trained teachers who lead language support in their own schools and train and stimulate others in language learning. Their precise role is as follows:

“Since the implementation of the language support concept, more than 400 language learning coordinators have been trained to fulfil a number of tasks in

school including: development of a school language support concept for additional and inclusive support, coordination of support in the school, support for teaching staff in diagnosing need and planning support, in-house continuous professional development and advising the school management team.”

(2009 Hamburg Education Report, p.171)

#### **4.1.6 TheaterSprachCamp [Language Drama Camp]**

The TheaterSprachCamp was held for the first time in the 2007 summer holidays. Children with and without a migration background who would be starting their fourth year of primary education after the summer holidays took part in the three-week summer camp outside Hamburg. They were coached in vocabulary and grammar in particular (2009 Hamburg Education Report, p.169 ff.). Details of the TheaterSprachCamp are available at the following link:

[http://life.epb.uni-hamburg.de/files/theatersprachcamp\\_konzept\\_2009.pdf](http://life.epb.uni-hamburg.de/files/theatersprachcamp_konzept_2009.pdf)

#### **4.1.7 Preparation classes**

As well as the additional and inclusive language support initiatives referred to above, which always take place in regular classes or in mainstream schools, there are also a number of preparation classes in Hamburg. These are aimed at pupils who start to learn German only at a slightly older age, i.e. pupils who transfer to the school:

“Essentially, all pupils from abroad whose German language skills are insufficient for attending a mainstream class start their education with a special one-year provision known as VKs or preparation classes.

“A consultation takes place at the education information centre to identify special measures which would be relevant for the needs of the individual pupil.

“Types of special measures:

- Literacy classes (known as ABCs)
- Preparation classes for the third to eighth years of education (VKs)
- Preparation classes for the grammar school pathway (grammar school years 7/8 and post-16 grammar school years 9/10)
- Two-year preparation classes for the secondary school leaving qualification and additional
- one-year preparation classes for the secondary school leaving qualification leading to HE/FE

“The focus of all the measures is to enable the children and adolescents to learn the German language and thus to ensure that their integration within the day-to-day German-speaking environment is as smooth as possible.

“Consultations or seminars are available on request for all the special measures listed.”

(Source: <http://www.li-hamburg.de/fix/files/doc/Text%20VKs.pdf>)

## 4.2 Language(s) of instruction

German is the language of instruction in most schools of the Free and Hanseatic City of Hamburg. There are six state schools in Hamburg that have model bilingual classes; as well as German, they also offer Italian, Turkish, Portuguese and Spanish. The non-German speaking teaching staff are sent out from their countries and are also paid by them. There are bilateral agreements between the respective countries and the Free and Hanseatic City of Hamburg. Some of the subjects are taught in German and some are taught in another language (Gogolin/Neumann/Roth, 2007).

“There have been bilingual schools in Hamburg since the 1999 academic year. These are collaborative projects between the education ministries of Italy, Portugal, Spain and Turkey and the Ministry of Schools and Vocational Training. German teachers and teachers who speak the language of origin work in these schools and provide bilingual teaching of the subject matter at primary schools and social studies lessons at L1 in secondary schools. The classes in the bilingual schools comprise 50% German-speaking and 50% Italian (or Portuguese, Spanish or Turkish) speaking children or children who have grown up bilingual.

“The staff at these schools receive continuous professional development covering the following: structure of the education system in Hamburg; bilingual teaching vs. foreign language teaching; creation of bilingual curricula; bilingual work to extend the four skills of listening comprehension, speaking, reading and writing, and the development of metalinguistic awareness and transfer skills. A further issue is working bilingually in linguistically heterogeneous groups and switching languages in team teaching. As no suitable materials are available for bilingual classes, bilingual scheme of work units are also being developed.”

(<http://www.li-hamburg.de/abt.lif/bf.1100/bf.1120/bf.1120.bil/index.html>)

The *School for the Hearing Impaired* (<http://www.sfh.hamburg.de/index.php/>), known as the *Centre of Education for Hearing and Communication* since January 2010, provides various concepts, depending on the type of hearing impairment; dedicated bilingual teaching is also included and the main focus is on German sign language as well as German in the spoken and written language.

(<http://www.sfh.hamburg.de/index.php/article/detail/2486>).

As well as state schools, there are a range of private schools where German is not used - or not exclusively used - as the language of instruction. This would include the *International School*, where lessons are taught exclusively in English and German is the first foreign language taught (<http://www.international-school-hamburg.de/>).

Private school operator *PHORMS* has schools throughout Germany, including Hamburg, where a special feature is bilingual teaching (German/English) and where English is on an equal footing with German as the language of instruction. *PHORMS* claims that in the first years of school two teaching staff, one German-speaking and one English-speaking, always take the lesson and that the children learn the other language through immersion (<http://www.phorms.de/>).

The *Moderne Schule Hamburg* started in the 2010/11 academic year and its aims include teaching pupils three languages in succession - German, English and Chinese. Subject teaching also takes place at least partially in all three languages (<http://www.moderne-schule-hamburg.de/>).

The *Hamburg Scandinavian School* is an expatriate school which is sponsored by the Hamburg Swedish Club. The main language is Swedish:

“The language of instruction is Swedish. Norwegian and Danish children receive additional teaching in their mother tongue. We attach great value to teaching the German language and culture as well. Our aim is to enable the children to adjust as quickly as possible to their new environment so that they will be able to transfer easily to a German school later on.”

(<http://www.skanskol.de/>)

### 4.3 Teaching the language of origin

The opportunity exists in Hamburg for pupils to be taught their mother tongue or language of origin. In the “Outline Plan for Language of Origin Teaching at Primary School”, the first paragraph of the “Aims” chapter summarising the plan’s objectives opens with:

“Teaching children’s language of origin develops their basic skills in speaking, listening, reading and writing, in reflecting on language and in switching communication between the language of origin and the German language (in mediation). It relates to the children’s different linguistic capabilities, which are defined by their everyday experiences.” (Hamburg State Ministry for Education and Sports, 2003, p.5)

Currently, language of origin teaching at state schools in Hamburg is organised in three different forms, as outlined in the response by the Senate to a written parliamentary question in April 2010:

“A) Teaching of the language of origin in accordance with the outline plans under the supervision of the responsible authorities, which is integrated into regular school hours by teaching staff or is provided outside regular school hours as a main option for the afternoon session.

“This provision, which is based on the outline plans, counts towards pupils’ results and their progression to the next year of education and may replace the second or third foreign language.

B) Teaching the language of origin under the supervision of the responsible authority, which is provided by volunteers as extra-curricular additional teaching. Pupil achievement in these lessons may be added to their results as an additional entry but is not related to the pupil's progression to the next year of education.

C) Supplementary mother tongue teaching which is organised by consulates and constitutes extra-curricular provision. Pupil achievement in these lessons may also be added to their results but is not related to the pupil's progression to the next year of education"

(Citizenship in the Free and Hanseatic City of Hamburg, 2010, p.1).

If there is "suitable demand", teaching organised according to form A can be arranged in primary schools where "trained teaching staff"<sup>6</sup> are available and an average group size of 15 pupils is achieved (ibid.). In addition to this, teaching organised according to form B can be arranged if the need is expressed by parents or guardians (ibid.). The consulates decide on the provision of the C form of teaching (loc.cit., p.2). According to the information enclosed with the Senate's response, teaching the language of origin according to form A is available at just under 70 schools in Hamburg (i.e. out of all the mainstream and special schools); Turkish is the dominant language, as teaching takes place in Turkish at 41 of the 68 schools (where according to the key the records show that not only is the language of origin taught, but supplementary mother tongue lessons are also provided). At each of 8 schools Italian and Polish are offered; at each of 5 schools Farsi and Romani, at 4 schools Russian, at 3 schools Dari and Portuguese, at 2 schools Bosnian and Greek and at 1 school Albanian, Chinese and Kurdish - in total, language of origin teaching is available at schools in Hamburg in 13 languages (loc.cit., Appendix). Form B courses are organised in Albanian, Aramaic, Arabic, Armenian, Dari, Farsi, Kurdish and Pashto (loc.cit., p.4). The number of pupils being taught their language of origin is not recorded (loc.cit., p.3). Language of origin teaching is timetabled either in addition to or instead of a 2nd or 3rd foreign language and may be organised across years or across the whole school (ibid.). The number of hours taught per week using form A is 3-5 hours. Two forms of language of origin teaching are to be provided in the new primary school: language of origin as an additional subject and language of origin instead of the second foreign language (Ministry for Schools and Vocational Training, 2010, p.8). The Ministry for Schools and Vocational Training sets out the following levels of achievement for the language of origin in its new outline plan: as a standard requirement level A1- of the Common European Framework of References for Languages - for the end of the third year of education; as a minimum requirement A1 for the end of the sixth year of education and as a higher requirement (which is necessary for transferring to a grammar school) A2+ at the end of the sixth year of education (loc.cit., p.17).

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<sup>6</sup> Trained teaching staff will have completed a university degree and be appointed to serve as a professional teacher in Hamburg (loc.cit., p.4).

## 4.4 Previous language development surveys

In Hamburg, the 4½-year-olds test (see § 4.1.1) is carried out for all children 18 months before they are due to start school. It takes place at the school and is mandatory. It may result in, for example, additional and/or inclusive language support being provided.

Around the time of the child's 5th birthday, the ninth child development review, the U9, takes place and is carried out by a paediatrician. The paediatrician conducts a comprehensive examination of the child and also takes into account the child's linguistic development. As a result, further measures may be recommended or the child may be referred to a specialist. Child development reviews by the paediatrician are not (yet) mandatory. As the number of children having these examinations decreases as they get older, and with a number of cases of child neglect having shocked the media and society in recent years, there is currently much discussion concerning whether these child development reviews should be mandatory or whether opt-outs should be sanctioned. The SPD submitted a parliamentary question in 2009 and the Senate's response indicated that in 2008 the U9 was taken up by 89.4% of all children (compared to 86% in 2005). (<http://www.buergerschaft-hh.de/Parldok/Cache/0F0288468CB44290EC018A0C.pdf>, 2)

Where children have noticeable problems, a *HAVAS 5* assessment as part of a day care centre and school *collaborative project* may be undertaken in the year prior to starting school (see § 4.1.3.) A detailed description of *HAVAS 5* is available, e.g. in Bosselmann (2005) and of course in Reich/Roth/Neumann's edited volume (2007).

In the academic year before starting school, all children are examined by the school doctor and a pre-school medical is carried out. This is mandatory according to § 34 of the Hamburg Schools Act. One of the factors included in this medical examination is the child's linguistic development, and this may result in appropriate support measures.

The State Institute has collected more than 100 diagnostic tests and procedures in its "test library"; if required, teachers in Hamburg can access these tests as well as the evaluations of these tests and procedures. (<http://www.li-hamburg.de/abt.liq/liq1/abt.liq.Testbibl/index.html>)

[http://www.schulenfoerdern.de/schulportal/test\\_bib/index.php?start=0&zeige=&themen=](http://www.schulenfoerdern.de/schulportal/test_bib/index.php?start=0&zeige=&themen=)

Annual surveys of the level of learning have been carried out in schools since the 2007/08 academic year, and all Hamburg pupils in their third, sixth and eighth year of education take part. Skills in German, maths and English are tested (see 2009 Hamburg Education Report, p.113, and <http://www.lernstand.hamburg.de/>). As well as these surveys on the level of learning, there is another series of school performance surveys that is aimed at curriculum development, i.e. not primarily aimed at support for individual pupils. I should of course mention PISA and PIRLS here and direct you to the summary in the Hamburg Education Report (ibid., p.112 ff.).

The Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF) publication which contains conclusions on language development (Ehlich ed., 2007) has a major review by Schnieders & Komor of current language development processes in Germany (Schnieders & Komor, 2007); another major review which is more up-to-date and provides extensive categorisation is attached to the first ZUSE discussion paper (Redder, 2010). The two

publications can be downloaded from the internet as pdf files and the corresponding links are to be found in the bibliography.

To conclude this chapter, I would like to provide an illustration in which the State Institute (LI) provides an explanation of the components of the Hamburg Language Support Concept that is easy to understand:



*Fig. C-6: The Hamburg Language Support Concept*  
(<http://www.schulenfoerdern.de/schulportal/index.php>)

## 5 Teacher training and CPD in German as a second language

In Hamburg, approx. 15,750 teachers work in mainstream schools, of whom almost 6,000 work in primary schools, secondary schools and secondary schools leading to HE/FE (2009 Hamburg Education Report, p.68 ff.). Four different teacher training courses are available at the University of Hamburg: “Primary and L1 secondary education teacher training”, “Grammar school education teacher training”, “Special education teacher training” and “Vocational education teacher training” (see <http://www.epb.uni-hamburg.de/de/studium/studiengaenge/lehramt/bama>). As well as the subsidiary subject of Educational Science (incl. education and subject teaching), one or two teaching subjects are also studied, depending on the focus. As yet there are (still) no mandatory and interdisciplinary German as a second language/German as a foreign language units. However, the Faculty of Educational Science, Psychology and Human Movement offers students who wish to do so the following options to study German as a second language or bilingualism ab initio:

- Working Group on Bilingual Teaching (with English) in Section 4 of Educational Science (<http://www.epb.uni-hamburg.de/de/studium/bilunt>),
- Employment in Intercultural Education ([http://www.epb.uni-hamburg.de/de/Interkulturelle\\_Bildung](http://www.epb.uni-hamburg.de/de/Interkulturelle_Bildung)),
- The Intercultural Pupil Seminar Project (IKS) of the University of Hamburg: language learning for pupils with a migration background (formerly Mercator-FörMig-Treff) (<http://www.epb.uni-hamburg.de/de/node/1103>).

As part of all teacher training courses with German as the teaching subject (all BA degrees), there is the option - as there is in the BA in German Language and Literature as well - to focus on Intercultural Literature/German as a Foreign Language (IntLit/DaF for short).

“The subsidiary subject of *German as a Foreign Language* covers the following learning objectives:

“Basic knowledge of the theories and methods of linguistics with in-depth consideration of theoretical approaches which focus on the function and structure of the various mother tongues of those learning German

“Knowledge of the structure and use of the German language, and in particular insights into the characteristics of communication that uses institutional and specialist language

“Skills in applying pragmatic language analysis of German for reflective practitioners (from phonetics, phonology and grammar through to dialogue and textual linguistics and incorporating methods of empirical research in the field)

“Skills for comparative communication analysis as well as for reconstructing intercultural communication (taking into account the issues involved in interpreting and translating)

“Insights into issues of language policy and sociology (in particular the conditions and practice of multilingualism at the level of the social group and the individual)

“Insights into issues of monolingual and multilingual language acquisition, language teaching and language learning (including assessing level of language and textbook analysis as well as features of classroom communication).”

(taken from: University of Hamburg, Department of Language, Literature and Media I + II, 2009, p.34)

The University of Hamburg also offers a Masters in German Linguistics without the need to take the teacher training pathway. This is profiled as “German as a foreign language/Intercultural linguistics”.

“The course constitutes part of the Faculty’s main focus of multilingualism and coordinates the Language Diagnostics/Language Support initiative. There are also many collaborations with institutions such as the Centre for Linguistics, schools in Hamburg and the Bremen Institute for Low German. Teaching is integrated with other Masters courses on offer (e.g. *Media Science*).”

(<http://www.verwaltung.uni-hamburg.de/vp-1/3/34/studienfaecher/Konsekutive/studiengang.html?1212160133>, accessed: 23.3.2010)

There are also courses which additionally incorporate an in-depth study of German as a second language, such as the former Masters course in Research in Language Teaching (<http://www.slm.uni-hamburg.de/masterstudium/sprache.html>, accessed: 23.3.10) and the new Linguistics/General Language Studies designed to integrate the earlier course and support interdisciplinary study, profiled as “Multilingualism”.

Currently, a Masters - MOTION for Educational Linguistics - has also been set up at the Faculty of Educational Science and approaches multilingualism less from a linguistics point of view and more from that of education.

Both the University of Hamburg and the State Institute (LI) also offer trained teachers a range of continuous professional development courses in German as a second language:

At the University of Hamburg there is an “Additional teacher training for pupils with different mother tongues”; for information on this training, please visit [http://www.erzwiss.uni-hamburg.de/Studium/ZUM\\_INFO.htm](http://www.erzwiss.uni-hamburg.de/Studium/ZUM_INFO.htm) and the current lecture schedule is available at: [http://www.slm.uni-hamburg.de/ifg1/Lehrplan-2/Zusatzausbildung\\_SS10.pdf](http://www.slm.uni-hamburg.de/ifg1/Lehrplan-2/Zusatzausbildung_SS10.pdf). These events are open not just to trained teachers but also to students who have yet to complete their degree. The additional training is spread over three to four semesters and the entire course amounts to 48 credit hours. To accommodate this, teachers appointed to Hamburg schools who take part in this training course “can be released to teach part-time during the three-semester period. Salaries will continue to be paid in full.” (University of Hamburg, 2000/2010, p.6).

The LI (Hamburg State Institute for Teacher Training and Curriculum Development - [www.li-hamburg.de](http://www.li-hamburg.de)) provides a number of CPD opportunities for teachers under the heading “German as a second language, languages of origin and language support”.

“Here is our range of language teaching options:

- School-based CPD courses, annual seminars and individual events for the development of concepts for incorporating German as a second language into the regular teaching of all subjects
- Support for school development processes in the form of supervision and advice when implementing the outline plan
- Introduction and implementation of language development surveys as the basis for targeted evaluation of bilingual pupils’ language skills
- Demonstration of materials for working with multilingual classes
- Training of key personnel involved in promoting German as a second language
- Advice and support when implementing the “language of origin teaching” outline plan
- Development of internal bilingually coordinated curricula
- Training of language learning coordinators (SLKs)

Services

- Advice for schools on agreeing targets and performance in language support
- Advice for schools on planning CPD for language support
- Advice and supervision for schools in particular situations with regard to developing the linguistic skills of the school population
- Advice on the use of teaching and language support materials
- Advice on German as a second language and on teaching the language of origin
- Information and advice on specialist literature in conjunction with the reference library
- Sale of “Materials for early years language support”
- (<http://li-hamburg.de/abt.lif/bf.1100/bf.1120/index.html>)

Due to the development and implementation of the Hamburg Language Support Concept (see § 4.1), there is now an urgent need for the systematic training of teachers. The language learning coordinators (SLKs) have a special significance here:

“A special feature of this concept is the new role of language learning coordinators at all mainstream schools. The teaching staff who are nominated for this role by their schools take part in a mandatory two-year training course at the State Institute in order to be able to take on language learning and

language support tasks and draw up a concept for the school. The training covers on the one hand professional training in all aspects of language support and on the other hand skills development to implement the official concept in the schools.”

(<http://www.li-hamburg.de/bf.1100.sprfoe/index.html>)

The language support provided in schools is both inclusive and additional; the LI provides SLKs with professional instruction in the area of additional language support

“for the creation of support plans and for organising implementation of language support.”

(<http://www.li-hamburg.de/bf.1100.sprfoe/index.html>)

In the area of inclusive language support - which according to the Hamburg Language Support Concept is the task of each (subject specialist) teacher - the LI provides:

“all teachers, and mainly the SLKs, with CPD courses which focus on ‘subject teaching and linguistic requirements’. Moreover, the SLKs have the job of bringing subject specialist teachers on board for this task. Special seminars for implementation are therefore compulsory for SLKs.”

(<http://www.li-hamburg.de/bf.1100.sprfoe/index.html>)

The LI programme for teachers in the 2008/09 academic year entitled “Language support” has over 50 events on the subject, e.g. “Mathematical terms in language support”, “Family literacy: How can parents support their children’s language support?”, “Improving language and pronunciation using a voice recorder”, “Language development for children with few German skills”, “Picture books as a stimulus for speaking” (<http://www.li-hamburg.de/fix/files/doc/08-08-14-Prog-Sprachfoerd.pdf>).

## **6 Collaborations between schools and other institutions, organisations and projects**

### **6.1 FiSS (BMBF research initiative<sup>7</sup> on language diagnostics and linguistic support)**

“The BMBF research initiative on language diagnostics and linguistic support (FiSS) is part of a framework programme in support of empirical educational research. It serves to develop academic knowledge based on empirical research about the acquisition, diagnosis and support of language skills in children and adolescents with particular reference to specific language requirements in educational institutions.

“As part of the research initiative, empirically based research projects are supported which focus on language acquisition and diagnosis-supported linguistic support for children and adolescents (of 4 to 16 years of age) with a language learning ability that is not significantly impaired. These projects concentrate on the acquisition, identification and support of skills in the German language for children with and without a migration background.

“14 projects (6 joint projects and 8 individual projects) are involved in the research initiative throughout Germany.”

(<http://www.fiss-bmbf.uni-hamburg.de>)

The project coordinators are Prof. Angelika Redder of the German Linguistics Department at the University of Hamburg and Prof. Sabine Weinert, Chair of Psychology I at the University of Bamberg. Four of the research projects involved are also based at the University of Hamburg:

#### **6.1.1 MüWi one-off project (verbal knowledge processing and connectivity):**

Empirically based linguistic baseline survey on verbal skills in the first two years of primary education. Led by Prof. A. Redder, Institute of German Studies I at the University of Hamburg.

(<http://www.fiss-bmbf.uni-hamburg.de/projekt-redder%20muewi.html>)

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<sup>7</sup> BMBF = Federal Ministry of Education and Research; for details, please see § 7.8.1.

### **6.1.2 BiSpra Joint Project - Academic language skills: requirements, language processing and diagnostics:**

The part of the project dealing with linguistics is based at the University of Hamburg (led by Prof. A. Redder), while the other parts of the joint project are based in areas of Educational Science (FU Berlin led by Prof. Stanat) and Psychology (University of Bamberg led by Prof. Weinert).

(<http://www.fiss-bmbf.uni-hamburg.de/projekt-redder%20bispra.html>)

### **6.1.3 Sprablon II one-off project (empirical study of the linguistic development of bilingual children in the form of a longitudinal survey. Transferring from the primary to the secondary sector):**

This project is led by Prof. Ingrid Gogolin, who works in International Comparative and Intercultural Educational Science at the University of Hamburg, and Prof. Knut Schwippert, who works in International Education Monitoring and Reporting at the University of Hamburg.

(<http://www.fiss-bmbf.uni-hamburg.de/projekt-gogolin.html>)

### **6.1.4 One-off project - Empirical testing of level descriptors for German as a second language in L1 secondary education:**

This project was undertaken by Prof. Inci Dirim, initially of the Faculty of Educational Science at the University of Hamburg and now working in German as a second language at the University of Vienna, and completed in 2010.

(<http://www.fiss-bmbf.uni-hamburg.de/projekt-dirim%20niveau%20daz.html>)

The individual projects all commenced between 01.01.09 and 01.10.09 and as a rule run for 3 years; on notification of support, this can be provided for a period of 5-6 years; applications for extending support are pending.

## **6.2 ZUSE Language Diagnostics and Linguistic Support Project Group**

The ZUSE Language Diagnostics and Linguistic Support Project Group was set up in March 2010 and is funded by a number of sources including the BMBF. (For more information on ZUSE please go to § 7.7 and <http://www.zuse.uni-hamburg.de/index.html>.)

“In its final report, the coordinating group will recommend that the BMBF supports an interdisciplinary and coordinated research programme as a wide-reaching and sustainable means of dealing with the social issue of language diagnostics and linguistic support.”

(Redder et al, 2011, p.41)

The work that the group has completed so far is available on the above website, although the final report will only be published this summer.

ZUSE cooperates extensively and on an interdisciplinary basis with other research initiatives - for example, with the recently completed BMBF-funded project, "Language diagnostics and linguistic support: the current state of play and a concept for a national research programme", which is led by Prof. A. Redder (working in German Linguistics at the University of Hamburg and lead coordinator of FiSS); Prof. M. Becker-Mrotzek (University of Cologne), Prof. K. Ehlich (LMU Munich/FU Berlin), Detlef Fickermann (ZUSE), Dr. S. Forschner (FiSS Coordinating Office), Prof. M. Hasselhorn (DIPF, Frankfurt-am-Main), Prof. M. Krüger-Potratz (WWU Münster), Prof. H-G. Rossbach (Chair of Ed. Science, University of Bamberg), Prof. P. Stanat (IQB/FU Berlin), Prof. K. Schwippert (Ed. Science, University of Hamburg/ZUSE) and Prof. S. Weinert (Chair of Psych., University of Bamberg).

ZUSE publications include overviews (currently in the discussion papers and soon to feature in the reports) of the various measures in language diagnostics and linguistic support undertaken by the individual federal states as well as their achievements (Redder et al, 2010; 2011).

### **6.3 FörMig (Support for immigrant minority children and youth)**

(<http://www.blk-foermig.uni-hamburg.de/web/de/all/home/index.html>)

The FÖRMIG Project began on 01.09.04, carrying out a total of 19 sub-projects in the ten federal states involved, and ended on 31.08.09. The project was initiated by the Joint Federal/State Commission for Educational Planning and Research Support or BLK, which ceased to exist at the end of 2007. The Joint Science Conference or GWK then took over the role. Project coordination was lodged with the State Ministry for Education and Sports (as of June 2008 known as the State Ministry for Schools and Vocational Training) in Hamburg, while the University of Hamburg took over the academic support.

"There was no national follow-up project - or transfer programme - sponsored by the Standing Conference of Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the German Federal States. But the material results and structural principles of the model programme continued to be developed in many one-off projects in the participating states and beyond. The programme sponsor of the FÖRMIG (Institute for International and Comparative Intercultural Educational Science at the University of Hamburg) model programme set up an institution aimed at supporting interested partners in the transfer and further development of the project's achievements: the FÖRMIG Skills Centre in Hamburg, which started up on 1st January 2010."

(University of Hamburg, 2010, Final Report, p.4)

Two of the sub-projects were implemented in Hamburg: “Use of HAVAS 5 in a collaborative day care centre and school project” and “Family literacy”:

### **6.3.1 Hamburg procedure for analysing the language level of 5-year-olds (HAVAS 5):**

HAVAS 5, the standardised diagnosis tool which is now systematically applied in Hamburg, came into being as a FÖRMIG sub-project. One of the great strengths of this test is that it is available not only in German but also in Italian, Portuguese, Polish, Russian, Spanish and Turkish. In Förmig Volume 3 (Reich/Roth/Neumann ed., 2007), a detailed description of HAVAS is provided by the developers of the tool.

### **6.3.2 Family literacy (FLY):**

FLY is still an ongoing project in Hamburg which aims to support language and literacy in families. The target group for this project, which has run since 2004, is mainly the parents of pre-school children with a migration background.

“The concept is supported by three pillars in its practical implementation: activities with parents, activities shared by parents and children and greater involvement of the parents in everyday school life. The work with parents and parents’ groups/children’s groups is carried out by pre-school class teachers and written language advisors during the school day. [...]

- Involvement of the parents in everyday school life (i.e. parents are invited to come into the classroom at fixed times and are involved in the teaching, e.g. reading out loud from a picture book or playing letter games)
- Separate meetings with parents (in which parents are shown activities that will support written language skills, e.g. the joint production of a family book or completing a painting or writing project relating to a picture book)
- Joint extra-curricular activities with parents, child and teachers (e.g. a visit to a library).”

(<http://www.foermig-hh.de/web/de/all/fl/fl/index.html>)

### **6.3.3 Intercultural Pupil Seminar at the University of Hamburg: language learning for pupils with a migration background (IKS):**

As well as the two sub-projects, the Mercator FÖRMIG-Treff<sup>8</sup> (<http://www2.erzwiss.uni-hamburg.de/foermig-treff/index.html>) was developed in Hamburg and has now turned into the University of Hamburg Intercultural Pupil Seminar: language learning for pupils with a migration background (IKS). This project is funded by the BSB, the Mercator Foundation and the Jürgen Sengpiel Foundation.

“The Intercultural Pupil Seminar Project (IKS) of the University of Hamburg: language learning for pupils with a migration background [IKS] - the follow-up project to Mercator FörMig Treff for the support of children and adolescents with a migration background - is part of the research activities involved in the Language Learning focus of the Employment in Intercultural Education initiative and has been implemented at the University of Hamburg since the start of the 2005/06 academic year.

“The project is aimed at pupils with a migration background who have the potential to leave school with better educational qualifications with the aid of support in the subjects of German, German as a second language, English and mathematics. The aim of the project is contribute to improving how the individual strengths and potential of children and adolescents are developed and supported and thus to an improvement in educational opportunity.

“The emphasis in the range of learning opportunities is on basic subject-related education and expertise in the use of methods while systematically taking into account language learning as a process which supports children’s education in all taught subjects.

“The teaching is carried out by teacher training students in the form of a training programme which runs alongside their studies, whereby the students are supported in their work through professional development events and

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<sup>8</sup> The Mercator FÖRMIG Treff provides support courses for pupils with a migration background. The aim of this project is to improve the linguistic and subject skills of pupils with a migration background through systematic extra-curricular support teaching. We provide subject courses in German, German as a second language, English and mathematics for the fourth to the thirteenth years of education. Particular value is attached in each subject to supporting German skills in conjunction with the subject-specific features of the language used in school. We also support pupils who have questions about their education and provide assistance for job applications and in the search for work experience placements and apprenticeships. Our target group comprises pupils who have the potential to leave school with better educational qualifications with the aid of additional support.

Support lessons take place twice a week at the University of Hamburg and are taught by Hamburg teacher training students, some of whom have a migration background themselves and are being prepared for work and supported in running the courses by the Employment in Intercultural Education initiative of the University of Hamburg. <http://www2.erzwiss.uni-hamburg.de/foermig-treff/index.html>

trained as key personnel in promoting awareness of how children and adolescents with a migration background can be successfully supported.

“The evaluation of the project focuses on improving the performance and attitudes of the children and adolescents taking part in the project and on the skills acquired by the participating students in dealing with heterogeneous learning groups.”

(<http://www.epb.uni-hamburg.de/de/node/1103>)

## **6.4 LIMA (Linguistic Diversity Management in Urban Areas)**

“With its State Excellence Initiative, the Hanseatic City of Hamburg aims to support high-quality basic research with particular emphasis either on research projects (in Excellence Clusters) or training the next generation of academics (at graduate schools).

“The cluster builds on the University of Hamburg’s research expertise in multilingualism, which is unparalleled in Germany.

“It seeks answers to the question of whether and how migration-induced multilingualism in Germany’s metropolitan regions can be transformed to benefit individuals and society and have a positive impact on cultural, social and economic development.

“The issue is investigated in interdisciplinary research teams from the point of view of international comparison. Hamburg serves as the starting point for this work and as the reference model for global comparison of these developments. The aims of the cluster include international networking and interdisciplinary training of the next generation of academics at an International Graduate School in conjunction with the University of Calgary.”

(<http://www.lima.uni-hamburg.de/>)

## **6.5 Other projects and school trials in Hamburg**

The Hamburg Education Report contains a compilation of some of the projects and school trials carried out in Hamburg, e.g. the move to six years of primary education, bilingual primary schools, academic support for education policy initiatives (such as the evaluation of the Hamburg Language Support Concept) and various school performance surveys which aim to improve teaching such as KESS<sup>9</sup> (see Hamburg Education Report, 2009, p.110 ff.).

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<sup>9</sup> “The KESS study of pupils’ skills and attitudes is an across-the-board longitudinal investigation covering the main aspects of the levels of learning and skills in German, mathematics, science and English as well as pupils’ attitudes to academic learning at Hamburg’s schools.

There are, of course, a great many initiatives outside the university and academic framework that are concerned with language support. An example here would be the Mentor - Reading Support in Hamburg initiative, which brings together volunteers and pupils in order to support pupils' reading ability and comprehension skills (<http://www.mentor-hamburg.de/>).

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“An initial survey (KESS 4) carried out in June 2003 recorded the skills, capabilities and knowledge of pupils at all Hamburg primary schools at the end of their primary education. The KESS 4 survey was tied in with the Hamburg investigation into learning outcomes (or LAU). Thus it was possible to establish whether the measures introduced since the first Hamburg school performance investigation had been effective.”

(<http://li-hamburg.de/liq.projekte.4/index.html>).

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## D Austria



# 1 Population with particular respect to people with a migration background and education

Austria has a population of some 8,355.260 million (2009).

By way of introduction, Simone Breit writes as follows on the wide-ranging website of the BIFIE Institute (Federal Institute for Educational Research, Innovation and the Development of the Austrian education system):

“The importance of supporting migrants continues to increase: in 2007, the proportion of the entire population of people with a migration background stood at 16.3% (Statistics Austria, 2007). “In order to ensure that migrants in Austria are able to take advantage of social mobility opportunities that result from an increased demand for better qualifications, particular attention is to be paid to supporting the education of people with a migration background.” This call, which is aimed at both schools and other institutions such as adult education, is expressed by Simonitsch and Biffl (undated, p.25) in the 2008 Integration Report.”

She continues with the following factual information:

“The Austrian school statistics do not identify children and adolescents with a migration background by their country of birth, but by their nationality and the language they use. All children and adolescents who do not use the German language in their everyday lives are shown as non-German mother tongue pupils (Statistics Austria, 2008b, p.13). The latest school statistics (Statistics Austria, 2008b, p.140) show that nationwide 15.6% of pupils speak a different language to German in their everyday lives. Their proportion at primary schools and polytechnic schools (20% in each case) is particularly high, while the proportion of children in special schools with a different everyday language to German (27%) is significantly greater - as documented many times elsewhere. However, pupils with another first language are clearly underrepresented in vocational training schools and “higher schools” (where pupils leave with university entrance qualifications). The high percentage at special schools means that the chance of these adolescents with a migration background obtaining a secondary school leaving qualification is minimal. The small proportion in vocational training schools suggests that many adolescents enter the job market after compulsory education as unskilled workers. Overall, the sharp regional differences should also be noted and the situation in Vienna is of particular note (where 38% of pupils do not speak German in their everyday lives).”

(<http://www.bifie.at/buch/322/5/1>)

The influx of immigrants (“guest workers”) has taken place since the early 1970s. The preferred destinations were (as in other western and northern European countries) the major cities, especially Vienna, and, untypically, the federal state of Vorarlberg, where workers were brought into the textile mills.

The former immigration situation is still reflected in the different percentages of foreigners or people with non-German languages: In 2009 20.1% foreigners lived in Vienna, 12.8% in Vorarlberg, while, in comparison, in other federal states, e. g. Carinthia<sup>10</sup>, the rate of foreigners was very low (6.7%; Statistics Austria 2009). These immigrant groups were composed differently: In Vienna, there were far more, namely 13.5%, third nationally citizens and 76.6% persons who came from the EU, the EEA and Switzerland, while the percentage was almost balanced in Carinthia: 3.0% persons from the EU, the EEA and Switzerland, and 3.7% from third countries.

The different data in Vienna and Carinthia shown in the population statistics are also represented in the school - on average, 17.3% of all students in Vienna are foreign students, in Carinthia this number is much lower, i.e. only 6.9%.

While in Vienna the percentage of foreign students and students with another L1 than German differs considerably - an indication of the naturalization of migrants - the difference between these two groups in Carinthia is not so conspicuous (s. fig. 1). In Vienna, the foreign students and students with other mother tongues are over-represented in the lower secondary schools, but we also find them far more frequently than expected in special-needs schools. In contrast, the differences between the school types are not so big in Carinthia. In both federal states members of the two minorities (foreigners and people with other L1) are more (Vienna) or less (Carinthia) under-represented in the lower level of academic secondary school.

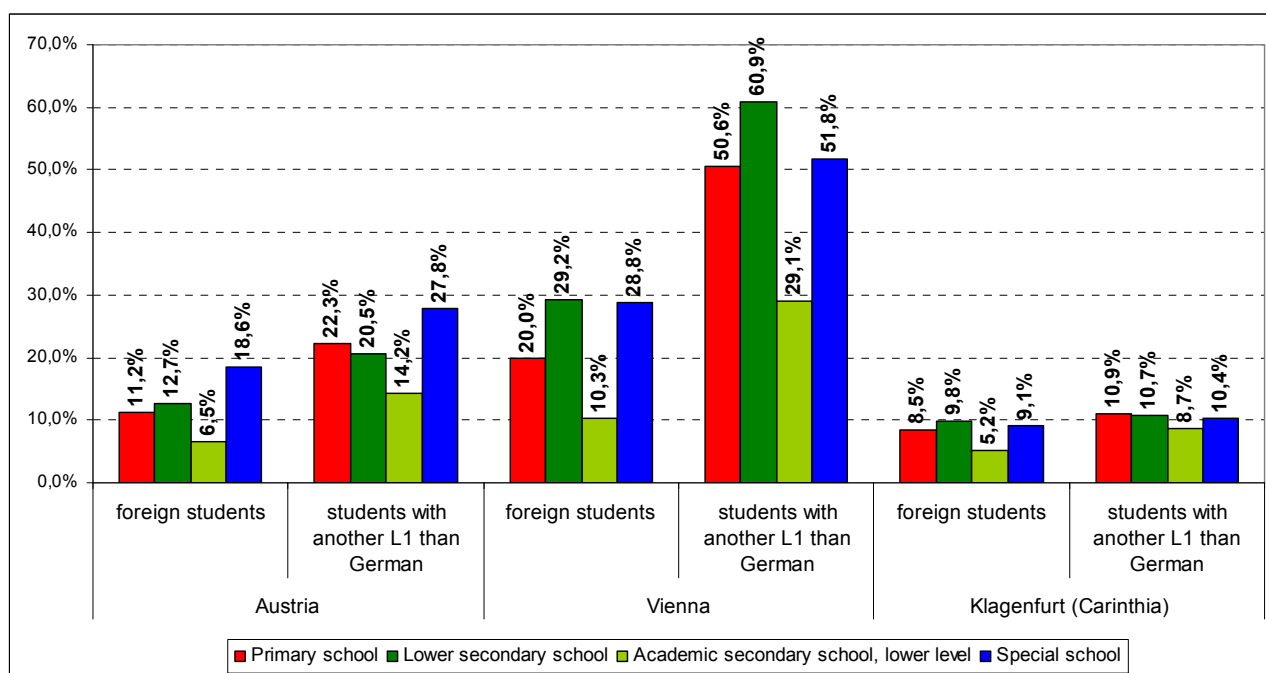


Fig. 1: Foreign students and students with another L1 than German in compulsory schools (age 6 - 14), Vienna - Carinthia (School year 2008/09; cf. Statistics Austria 2009)

Looking at the proportion of different immigrant populations at primary level, it turns out that the ratio in Carinthia is about 1 in 3 (citizenship EU, EEA, Switzerland 2.2%, third-

<sup>10</sup> There were two reasons, to use the situation in these federal states for a comparison: Firstly, the two Austrian project teams involved came from Vienna and Carinthia, secondly, these two regions are typical representatives of the history of migration into urban versus rural areas.

country nationals: 6.3%). In Vienna, however, there is a higher difference: 4.4% come from the EU, from EEA countries and from Switzerland, and 15.6% from third countries (the ratio is nearly 1 in 4; data of school year 2008/09; cf. Statistics Austria 2009).

## 2 Education system

School education in Austria is mandatory for all children from grade 1 to grade 9, generally starting in the year of the child's sixth birthday (s. fig. 2).

From the age of one children can be admitted to kindergarten, which helps to provide an environment that stimulates the children's development and learning and, in addition, enables parents to combine parenthood with work or studies. The last year of kindergarten (for the 5- to 6-year-olds) is mandatory.

After leaving primary school the children can attend a lower secondary school or an academic secondary school, depending on their grades. The new secondary school is a model that tries to combine both types of schools.

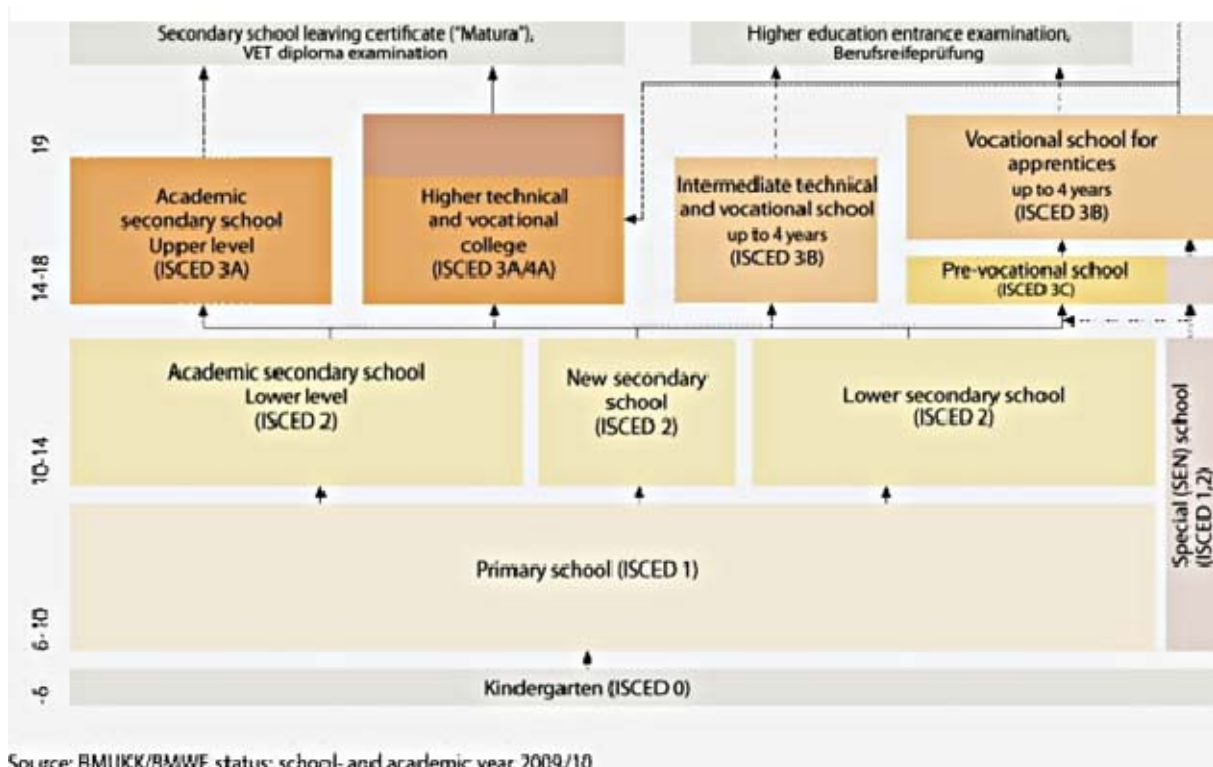


Fig.2: Austrian Educational System

School-age children who struggle to keep up in lessons due to their poor German skills are to be admitted as "exceptional pupils" (see footnote) for a period of up to twelve months (§ 4 para. 2 and 3 Austrian Education Act) and as a rule should be placed in a year group of their own age. Where a pupil is admitted during the summer term, this 12-month period commences on the subsequent 1st September (i.e. the start of next term) (§ 4 para. 3 Austrian Education Act).

A pupil's status as an exceptional student can be extended by the headteacher for a further twelve months if the pupil has not been able to learn the language of instruction in

the first twelve months through no fault of their own (§ 4 para. 3 Austrian Education Act). As soon as a pupil progresses to normal status, they cannot return to exceptional status.

Exceptional status may not be refused on the basis of the child having been born in Austria and/or having Austrian nationality or if the child has attended kindergarten in Austria for a period of time.

Where a pupil still has insufficient skills in the language of instruction, they are not entitled to special educational needs provision (i.e. to transfer to a general special school timetable) or when first starting school to a pre-school place. (N.B. The task of the pre-school year is to support children so they are ready for school).

Pupils who have already attended school in another country and therefore wish to be admitted as a normal pupil to a class further up the school than the reception class must first take an entrance examination (§ 3 para. 6 Austrian Education Act). The purpose of the entrance examination is to establish whether the applicant's previous education is adequate for them to be admitted to the year group requested. However, it is the teacher's decision as to whether the entrance examination can be dispensed with where the pupil demonstrates through their contributions to lessons and through other forms of assessment that for the most part they fulfil the learning objectives in the respective compulsory subject for the previous year groups in the essential areas of learning. In order to be admitted to the intake of a mainstream "higher school" or vocational training middle or "higher school", all pupils must meet the general admissions criteria (i.e. have the required grades in reports from their fourth or eighth year of education or have passed an entrance examination). For pupils who are listed as exceptional in their fourth year at primary school or at middle school, this means that they cannot be admitted as normal pupils to the first year of a mainstream "higher school" or vocational training middle or "higher school" - nor is this possible through an entrance examination. Admission as an exceptional pupil is permitted where other statutory requirements are met.

### 3 Supervisory authorities

The highest supervisory authority is the Federal Ministry.

The FEDERAL MINISTRY for Education, Arts and Culture has existed in its present form since 1st March 2007. Its areas of responsibility include the entire primary and secondary state education system from compulsory education right through to completing secondary L2 education (i.e. school leaving/matriculation examinations) as well as teacher training colleges. Adult education and all matters relating to lifelong learning are also included.

The VIENNA SCHOOL BOARD is responsible for all matters relating to teaching and learning at schools in Vienna. This role is carried out for the federal states by the REGIONAL EDUCATIONAL BOARD.

General compulsory education commences on the 1st September following a child's 6th birthday (§ 2 Compulsory Education Act) and ends in the ninth year of education (§ 3 Compulsory Education Act). It applies to all children who reside for a prolonged period in Austria, irrespective of their nationality and their residential status (§ 1 para. 1 Compulsory Education Act). Children who are only temporarily resident in Austria are entitled to attend school, but this is not compulsory (§ 17 Compulsory Education Act). The respective local authority school has to provide a school place for all school-age children, including the children of asylum seekers or children whose residential status has not been confirmed - in a "long-stay residence" case this is in accordance with § 1 Compulsory Education Act and in a merely "temporary residence" case this is in accordance with § 17 Compulsory Education Act. The admissions process is basically regulated according to § 5 Austrian Education Act. In the event that admission is refused, the applicant is to be advised in writing giving the reasons (§ 5 para. 2 Austrian Education Act). Compulsory education can also be completed by taking external examinations. In a number of federal states, external middle school leaving courses are provided to prepare pupils for these examinations.

## 4 Language support

### 4.1 Curricula/language of instruction/German as a second language

The basis for teaching and learning German as a second language is the additional curriculum subject of “German for non-German mother tongue pupils” in conjunction with the “German, Reading, Writing” or “German, Reading” curriculum.

The curriculum is unable to accommodate specifically the - in some cases - very different existing knowledge pupils have of German as a second language, but can only take this into account at the level of teachers’ annual planning for their individual classes. (N.B. Annual planning includes the teaching and learning objectives, teaching methods and main subject areas while taking into account the respective model for structuring learning which is employed at the school.)

The additional curriculum subject of “German for non-German mother tongue pupils” is not divided up according to year groups. It is seen as a learning concept which spans more than one year through which pupils with no knowledge or very little knowledge of the German language progress from the start (irrespective of the year group in which the pupil is placed), parts of which, however, can be skipped where there is existing knowledge.

The additional curriculum subject of “German for non-German mother tongue pupils” is to be regarded essentially as a teaching aid to differentiation which is also based at all times on the learning objectives and forms of teaching of the general curriculum for German. This is necessary if only for the sole reason that in many cases non-German mother tongue pupils attend or are constantly brought into lessons in “German, Reading, Writing” or “German, Reading” to a greater or lesser extent. The crossover in classroom practice between individual curriculum sub-areas for German with those of the additional curriculum subject will grow with increasing contact time and result in a smooth transition.

Teaching aims:

- To induce pleasure in listening and joining in conversations as well as reading and writing in the second language
- To improve the ability to understand standard German (spoken German only at first and written German later on)
- To be able to make themselves understood in standard German or be able to take part in the lesson: first in the verbal form only and then also in the written form
- To be able to understand, read, write and compose texts as meaningful forms of processing language for learning in school and out of school
- To acquire techniques for working and learning to support the acquisition of German as a second language

- To develop as active members of the new language and culture community while maintaining their own linguistic and cultural identity

This additional curriculum subject is divided into the following sub-areas, which equate to the majority of the General Curriculum:

- Listening comprehension and speaking with “Speaking”, which is basic to all other sub-areas and therefore central to language support
- Learning to read and write with “Reading/Early Reading, Early Reading Instruction” and “Writing”: pupils are taught elementary reading and writing skills in German as a second language
- Advanced reading with “Reading/Advanced Reading”
- Advanced writing with “Composition of Texts” and “Spelling”
- Observation of language with “Language Observation”

Irrespective of the individual sub-areas, language learning situations should relate to areas of life and spheres of action whereby the individual units always cover the cultural and socio-cultural aspects of all the cultures represented in the class (i.e. the culture of origin of the pupils, the migrant culture and the culture of the host country).

In order to be able to teach German as a second language successfully, the teacher must endeavour to observe their own mother tongue from the point of view of something that is new and foreign. By attempting to distance themselves from something that is very close to them, they can at least imagine the difficulties experienced by non-German mother tongue people when learning German and use the appropriate teaching skills with them.

With regard to their role as a key linguistic role model, it is particularly important for teachers to address the individual child as often as possible and to articulate particularly clearly, deliberately slowing their normal speech down a little and supporting the spoken word with mime and gesture while using normal intonation and rhythm.

In the school year 2008/09 there were 220 language support teachers in primary schools and some 200 so-called accompanying teachers in Vienna. In Carinthia there worked 46 language support teachers (Englisch-Stölner & Mayer 2009, p.2). Additionally, mother tongue education is offered: In 2008/09 in 47.7% of all Viennese primary schools there was at least one native teacher (the languages offered were: Albanian, Arabic, Bosnian-Croatian-Serbian, Chinese, Pashto, Persian, Polish, Romany, Romanian, Turkish and Hungarian). In Carinthia there were only lessons in Bosnian-Croatian-Serbian in a total of 9.3% of primary schools (cf. Ministry of Education 2008/09).

## **4.2 The educational principle of intercultural learning**

A special role in social education falls to the primary school in teaching German mother tongue and non-German mother tongue children in being able to facilitate intercultural learning. The aspects of intercultural learning which take into account the cultural heritage of the respective ethnic groups in particular are to be put into practice. This applies especially in those federal states where members of the ethnic group or Austrian

and non-Austrian children are taught together. When dealing with the various other cultural heritages, teachers are able to pick up on factors such as daily routines, language, customs, texts (e.g. stories, fairy tales, sagas), traditions, folk music, etc., in particular.

Intercultural learning is not merely limited to finding out about other cultures; it is much more about shared learning and understanding and experiencing and influencing cultural values. But it is also about awakening interest and curiosity in cultural differences so that not just cultural identity, but cultural diversity as well, are found to be of value.

In this context, intercultural learning aims to contribute to creating better understanding and greater mutual respect, recognising similarities and dismantling prejudice. Cross-connections are to be made with the teaching principle of learning social skills and the educational principle of political education including peace education. The educational principle is particularly well-suited to project-based educational work and carrying out projects.

The trilingual magazine, “TRIO”, provides support for the teaching of reading in multilingual classes in year groups 2 - 6. The booklets encourage teachers to use the multilingual skills of their pupils and provide ideas for injecting variety into the teaching of reading and for using alternative forms of teaching (e.g. free choice, open learning, Freinet education). For more information, visit: <http://www.trio.co.at/>

### **4.3 Forms of assessment**

In accordance with § 18 para. 1 Austrian Education Act, the requirements of the curriculum taking into consideration the respective level of the teaching constitute the benchmark for assessing performance. The performance of school-age children, who in accordance with § 4 para. 2 Austrian Education Act have been admitted as exceptional pupils due to their poor knowledge of the language of instruction, is to be assessed taking into account their linguistic difficulties (§ 18 para. 9 Austrian Education Act). As soon as a pupil progresses from exceptional status to normal status, performance assessment is applied in the same way as for other normal pupils. However, as it is to be assumed that pupils as a rule will still struggle with being taught in German even after two years of attending school in Austria, this fact can also be taken into account when assessing normal pupils with first languages other than German (e.g. curricula). Exceptional school-age pupils receive a school report in the same way as normal pupils at the end of the first term. (§ 19 para. 2 Austrian Education Act in conjunction with § 4 para. 7 Austrian Education Act). At the end of the academic year or on leaving school early, exceptional school-age pupils are to be issued with a confirmation of school attendance which contains an assessment of their achievements in the individual compulsory subjects. Assessment of achievements is not to be undertaken when the pupil is unable to achieve at the required level due to poor knowledge of the language of instruction (§ 22 para. 11 Austrian Education Act).

As well as the conventional assessment by marking, the teacher has the option of choosing alternative forms of assessment with the agreement of the parents. Four forms of alternative assessment are currently being trialled in schools: verbal assessment, direct

commentated assessment of pupil performance, record of achievement and learning progress documentation.

For more details, please visit: [www.schulentwicklung.at/joomla/](http://www.schulentwicklung.at/joomla/)

The Federal Ministry for Education, Arts and Culture is responsible for the recognition of foreign school certificates (cf. [www.bmukk.gv.at](http://www.bmukk.gv.at) → Education - Schools → Service and advice → Recognition of foreign certificates). This is not required if a pupil applies for admission to a school and is permitted to take the entrance examination.

#### **4.4 Courses/teaching methods**

As of the 2006/07 academic year, language support courses are arranged for exceptional pupils in pre-school and in the first four years of education. These comprise German language support courses based on the additional curriculum subject of “German for non-German mother tongue pupils”. According to § 8 (e) para. 2 and 3 School Management Act, language support courses taken place for eleven hours per week and can be arranged for a minimum of eight pupils; in the case of courses which run parallel to the curriculum, these can also be arranged across year groups, the entire school or types of schools. These courses can also be incorporated into the lessons (§ 8 (e) para. 1 School Management Act). The curriculum is based on the additional subject of “German for non-German mother tongue pupils” (at primary schools) and “Special teaching principles for German as a second language” (at middle schools and polytechnic schools).

The special support classes in German may take place parallel to the lesson (when pupils are put together in a group of their own), inclusively (through team teaching by the class or subject teacher and support teacher) or, if not otherwise possible, in addition to the lesson (for example, after the end of school or during the afternoon). If necessary, this type of support may be put in place for the whole year. As a rule, the pupils, as well as those transferring into the school, are integrated into whole class teaching. The special support classes in German are intended for all pupils, irrespective of whether or not they have Austrian nationality.

Exceptional school-age pupils may receive up to twelve hours per week of these support classes, while normal pupils at the primary school and at special schools receive up to five hours and at middle school and polytechnic school up to six hours. Where there are particular learning problems, the support classes for exceptional pupils in middle school and post-16 at the special school may be extended to a maximum of 18 hours per week. When arranging additional support classes for German, attention must be paid to ensure that this does not take up too much of the pupils’ time. This may mean limiting the extent of the support classes or making corresponding reductions in their compulsory subjects.

Moreover, pupils with a first language other than German, like all other pupils, may take part in regular support classes. This may take place in the form of a course, block classes or be integrated into the regular lesson (with the option of team teaching). The support may be provided as a course for one class, several classes or several institutions. A pupil may be supported for a maximum of 48 contact hours per academic year. This applies to all year groups.

## 5 Training and CPD for teachers (German as a second language)

At the University of Education in Vienna as well as at the University College of Teacher Education Carinthia, a popular optional “German as a second language” compulsory subject course is currently available to all primary and secondary teacher training students. As universities are autonomous, they are able to set their own priorities according to the educational environment. In the area of Intercultural Learning, the universities of the individual federal states are able to offer a wide variety of courses ranging from compulsory subjects and optional subjects right through to training and continuous professional development courses.

The Professional Development Institute of the University of Education in Vienna provides many CPD courses and school-based teacher training courses in German as a second language for teachers and school managers:

“At times of increasing globalisation, the clash caused by children’s different requirements at schools in Vienna has long been a reality and demands that an appropriate means is found of dealing with strangeness and diversity.

The diverse cultural origins and different languages and faiths of the children are not only part of the identity of children growing up here, but also constitute an important resource.

In order to support this process, the University of Education offers a wide variety of courses.”

(Website: [www.phwien.ac.at](http://www.phwien.ac.at))

In **2007/08** an in-service training course for German as a Second Language was established at the University College of Teacher Education Carinthia. Since the teachers showed so much interest, sometimes two parallel courses had to be offered.

## **6 Collaborations**

### **6.1 The Vienna School Board's language support centre**

The language support centre provides teaching materials for long-term language support and/or trains teachers to work with these materials.

The language support courses set up in Vienna (in accordance with School Management Act § 8[e]) were documented by teachers and the benchmark data captured on the reporting date of 7th May 2009 was fed back to the language support centre. [www.sfz-wien.at](http://www.sfz-wien.at)

### **6.2 Project database of the Federal Ministry for Education, Arts and Culture**

Stimulus projects on the subject of interculturalism and multilingualism - more than 5,200 pupils took part in this school campaign with their teachers. 67 projects were selected by a panel and published in a brochure:

[www.projekte-interkulturell.at](http://www.projekte-interkulturell.at)

External partners (e.g. artists, trades and craftsmen and women) and parents participated with great enthusiasm.

### **6.3 Other collaborations**

ZARA - Civil Courage and Anti-Racism Work: This organisation provides classes and teachers with CPD courses, training for prevention programmes and diversity management.

[www.zara.or.at](http://www.zara.or.at)

SÜDWIND - the regional office in Vienna is very frequently booked for all types of educational projects. Current topics central to education are discussed in workshops or at interactive exhibitions with pupils and teachers.

[www.suedwind-agentur.at](http://www.suedwind-agentur.at)

BAOBAB - a central educational venue for global learning which is frequently contacted and has many well-selected packs of materials for teaching and working with children and young people.

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

## 6.4 Information on surveys:

### (1) Identifying language levels at kindergarten

Rössl's (2007) linguistic principle was the starting point for drawing up an observation sheet to identify children's language levels at the age of 4½ to 5½ years.

For more details, please visit: [www.bifie.at/sprachstandsfeststellung-im-kindergarten-0](http://www.bifie.at/sprachstandsfeststellung-im-kindergarten-0)

### (2) PIRLS 2006/Primary education/Experience with literacy, Simone Breit

Two significant requirements emerged as the result of this expert report: the need to invest in educating parents and the need for children to attend a high quality kindergarten on a compulsory basis which is free of charge and available to all.

For more information, visit: [www.bifie.at/buch/395/8/3](http://www.bifie.at/buch/395/8/3)

### (3) A kući spremam Deutsch. Language level survey carried out in multicultural primary school classes: Bilingual language acquisition through migration

A four-year prolonged study of the linguistic development of children with different languages of origin.

A summary is available at: [Policy Report\\_Copenhagen Process\\_DGVT\\_20100215 EN.pdf](#) (p.39)

## 7 Educational institutions

Examples of three institutions which are of interest to the education sector are provided below.

The Intercultural Centre is involved in encounter and communication between people from different cultures and trains intercultural professionals in these skills. This work supports cross-border cooperation between schools and international youth work as well as intercultural education and diversity management in Austria.

The Integrationshaus (or Integration House) provides for the admission and integration of asylum seekers, refugees and migrants. This involves projects which support multilingual, psycho-social, psychological and social work geared to counselling and intensive care and offers initiatives for the education sector.

The City of Vienna Department for Integration and Diversity is offering the basic German course, “Mum’s learning German”, once again for the 2011/12 academic year for mothers of pupils in compulsory education and kindergartens in Vienna. This is run by professional development institutes who have had many years’ experience in providing German courses. Trained course directors adapt the course content to participants’ individual needs. The “Mum’s learning German” courses are organised in close collaboration with schools and kindergartens.

All the other institutions are listed under “Themen” (or Topics) on the database: [www.erwachsenenbildung.at](http://www.erwachsenenbildung.at).

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Statistics Austria. Data on population (2009) and students (2008/09).  
<http://www.statistik.at/>

Informations- und Unterrichtsmaterialien des Referates für Migration und Schule:

Heft Nr.1 Gesetzliche Grundlagen schulischer Maßnahmen für SchülerInnen mit einer anderen Erstsprache als Deutsch. Gesetze und Verordnungen.

Heft Nr. 6 Lehrplanbestimmungen für Deutsch als Zweitsprache (DaZ) - Unterrichtsprinzip Interkulturelles Lernen

For more information see:

[http://www.bmukk.gv.at/schulen/unterricht/info\\_ref\\_migration\\_schule.xml](http://www.bmukk.gv.at/schulen/unterricht/info_ref_migration_schule.xml)

# E Italy - South Tyrol



## 1 South Tyrol - population and languages

The Autonomous Province of Bolzano-South Tyrol is the most northeasterly province of Italy. Italy has a population of 60,624,442 (as of: 1 January 2011).

The parliamentary republic is divided into 20 regions, each with its own government. These regions are sub-divided into a total of 109 provinces. Five regions have a special statute which confers their autonomy.

As well as Italian, the official language of the country, there are also official regional languages: German and Ladin in Trentino-South Tyrol, French in the Aosta Valley and Slovenian in Friuli-Venezia Giulia.

Moreover, statutory legislation in 1999 provides for the protection of the following minority languages:

- Albanian (Arbëresh) in southern Italy
- German, outside South Tyrol (Cimbrian<sup>11</sup> in a number of linguistic enclaves in northeastern Italy and Walliser German in northwestern Italy)
- Franco-Provençal in the Aosta Valley, a number of valleys in Piedmont and smaller linguistic enclaves in Apulia
- Friulan in Friuli
- Greek (Griko) in Apulia and Calabria
- Catalan in Alghero, Sardinia
- Molise Croatian in the Molise region
- Occitan in a number of Piedmont alpine valleys
- Sardinian

Many dialects that are not officially recognised are also spoken in Italy.

The Province of Bolzano together with the Province of Trento forms the autonomous region of Trentino-South Tyrol. The region has enjoyed the right to autonomy since 1972, when the “South Tyrol Package” of legislation was passed.

The population of the Trentino-South Tyrol is 1,037,114 while that of the Autonomous Province of Bolzano stands at 507,657 (as of: 31.12.2010). On 31.12.10, 41,699 people from 130 different nations who did not have Italian citizenship were resident in the Province of Bolzano, which equates to 8.2% of the total population.

Every ten years a census is carried out in South Tyrol. It includes a question about membership of a linguistic group and a response is required from all Italian citizens over the age of fourteen who are resident in the Autonomous Province of Bolzano at the time of the census. In this province, we also find that one particular aspect of this area of

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<sup>11</sup> Cimbrian is spoken in Lessinia in the 13 municipalities of the Verona Province and in Lusérn in Trentino. The Cimbrian language equates to a Middle High German of Bavarian character.

settlement is that it is made up of two autochthonous minorities: both the German-speaking minority in Italy and the Ladin minority live here<sup>12</sup>. According to the 2001 census, 69.4% of the population were German speakers, with Italian speakers making up 26.3% and Ladin speakers 4.3%. While the German-speaking population lives both in the towns and in rural areas, the Ladin population is concentrated in the Ladin valleys of Gader Valley/Val Badia and Grödner Valley/Val Gardena/Gherdëina, where they form the majority, and the Italian population is mostly to be found in the towns.

Of the 116 municipalities of South Tyrol, 103 have a majority German-speaking population. Eight municipalities (Wengen, Abtei, Corvara, Enneberg, St. Martin in Thurn, St. Christina in Gröden, Wolkenstein in Gröden and St. Ulrich in Gröden) have a Ladin majority. Bolzano, Leifers, Salurn, Branzoll and Pfatten have Italian-speaking majorities.

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<sup>12</sup> The Dolomites region - one of the three Rhaeto-Romanic areas (Graubünden, Friuli, Dolomites) - includes the five valleys: Gader Valley/Val Badia, Grödner Valley/Val Gardena/Gherdëina, Fassa Valley/Fascia, Buchenstein/Livinallongo/Fodom and Ampezzo (Cortina). However, these valleys are divided politically into the three provinces of Bolzano, Trento and Belluno, of which only Bolzano is part of South Tyrol.

## **2 The education system in South Tyrol**

### **2.1 General data**

Just under one-third of the population of Italy is between 0 and 29 years of age. 975,757 children attended pre-school institutions, while 6,775,599 pupils are in full-time education. Of these, a total of 5,370,455 are in compulsory education: 2,579,938 pupils attend primary school, 1,625,651 attend middle school and 1,164,866 are in post-16 education<sup>13</sup> (as of: 31.12.2010).

#### **2.1.1 Kindergarten/Scuola dell'infanzia**

Entry into the education system starts in Italy with the non-compulsory scuola dell'infanzia, or kindergarten, for the German-speaking population of South Tyrol. All children whose third birthday falls before the 30th April in the following year can attend one of these institutions, and 96-97% of parents of three to five-year-olds take up this option. Pre-school institutions are also free of charge in Italy, except for the cost of transport and meals, although families on low incomes are exempt from paying these costs.

#### **2.1.2 Compulsory education**

In Italy, there is a standard education system covering all 20 regions. The education system provides for compulsory education from the age of 6 to 16 and there is an obligation to take part in training until the age of 19. In compulsory education, attendance at school is free of charge. Compulsory education starts for all children who are six years old by 31st December of the current academic year. Five years at the scuola elementare (primary school) are followed by three years at the scuola media unica (middle school). In addition to this, post-16 schools such as the Istituto Tecnico Industriale (technical college), the Istituto Professionale (vocational college) and the Liceo (grammar school) provide training in a specific profession or preparation for university education. These are also free of fees, but the cost of books and materials has to be covered by the student. Families are free to choose the school they would like their child to attend.

At primary school and middle school all pupils are taught together, as the Italian education system is designed as a comprehensive system, which is why most special schools were abolished at the same time as the abolition of psychiatric institutions in Italy.

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<sup>13</sup> All data refers to state schools.

Since 1999, a directive has also decreed that all migrant pupils must be integrated immediately into a class of their year group. Pupils are entitled to a personalised timetable and special language support.

The education system in South Tyrol is governed by Italy's overall statutory provisions, but has a number of special features which result from the conditions of the new South Tyrol Package autonomy statute of 1972. In principle, the German language has equal status with the Italian language in the Trentino-South Tyrol region. Article 19 of the autonomy statute governs the right to schooling in the mother tongue of the province and for the Ladin population the right to paritetic education. This means that parents and pupils who live in the non-Ladin speaking regions of South Tyrol have to choose either a German-speaking school with Italian as a taught subject or an Italian school with German as a taught subject.

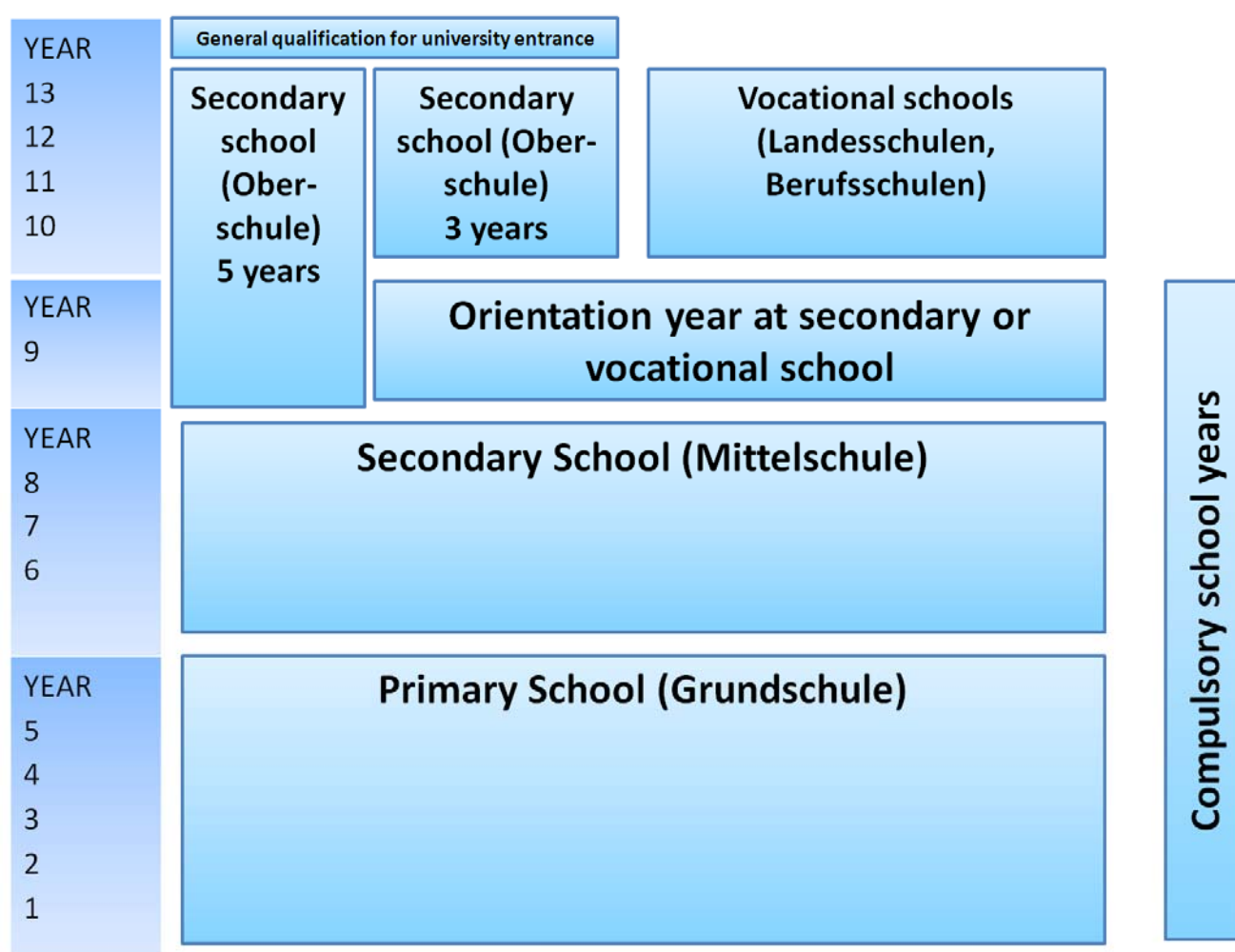


Fig. E-1: The training system in South Tyrol 1

Only from the ninth year of education onwards are pupils separated for training according to different priorities. Pupils can decide to follow one of the following post-16 pathways or attend a vocational training college or full-time vocational training.

## Secondary education in South Tyrol

| Secondary school -<br>Gymnasium     | Pedagogical<br>secondary schools       | Specialized<br>secondary schools       | Polytechnicum                            |
|-------------------------------------|--|--|--|
| Secondary school<br>with humanities | Pedagogical<br>gymnasium               | Secondary school<br>for commerce       | Polytechnicum for<br>industry and crafts |
| Secondary school<br>with science    | School for<br>kindergarten<br>teachers | Secondary school<br>for business       | Polytechnicum for<br>trade and tourism   |
| Secondary school<br>with languages  |  | Secondary school<br>for land surveyors | Polytechnicum for<br>social work         |
| Secondary school<br>with arts       |  | Secondary school<br>for agriculture    |  |
|                                     |  | Secondary school<br>for social work    |  |

*Fig. E-2: The training system in South Tyrol 2*

### 2.1.3 Grammar school

The grammar school pathway is divided into classical, scientific, teacher training, new language and artistic schools.

All provide general training in preparation for university and have other specialisms, depending on the type of school. For example, the classical school puts greater emphasis on Greek, Latin, French and English, while the scientific school concentrates on the science subjects, mathematics and Latin.

### 2.1.4 Full-time vocational training

Full-time vocational training is sub-divided into business colleges, technical colleges, chartered surveying colleges, agricultural colleges, social work colleges and the teacher training school in the grammar school pathway.

All provide training for vocational education. Students who gain a school-leaving qualification in full-time vocational training are entitled to a university place.

Technical colleges prepare students for the technical professions and are divided into several faculties, such as IT, electronic and electrical engineering, plant engineering, chemicals and construction, which concentrate on these professional subjects. The practical training takes place in teaching workshops, and work experience placements are also undertaken with companies. Specialisation is a gradual process: in years 9 and 10, the focus is on general school subjects and in years 11 and 13 students then progress to their specific professional education.

The teacher training grammar school focuses on the areas of music, psychology and teaching.

Business schools aim to prepare students for careers in commerce.

All the post-16 forms of education described are completed by sitting the State School Leaving Examination (formerly known as the Maturità/Matura). The previous designation is no longer officially used but is still referred to colloquially.

### **2.1.5 Full-time vocational training/Istituto Professionale**

As well as the post-16 colleges, students can enter into full-time vocational training/the Istituti Professionali on leaving middle school, where they follow a three-year vocational training course.

Full-time vocational training is divided into three pathways:

- Industry and trades and crafts
- Business and tourism
- Social work

The first two years at these types of colleges serve to familiarise students with the respective profession and provide the basic professional knowledge in the various specialist areas. In their final year, students train for their specific profession. At the end of the course, successful students are awarded the Diploma di Qualifica. Thereafter students are able to study for the “vocational university entrance examination” at the Istituto Professionale for a further two years.

### **2.1.6 Regional vocational training colleges**

As well as the state colleges for full-time vocational training described above, in Italy there is also the option of attending a regional vocational training college. These vocational training centres/centri di formazione professionale are supervised by the regions but are managed by private sponsors and provide two or three-year courses with a major emphasis on practical learning. The centres have their own training workshops, and in addition to this work experience placements with companies are undertaken. It is compulsory for young people who have a training contract with a private or public company to attend courses at the centres. This sector follows the dual training system that is widespread in German-speaking areas.

Young people who achieve a state-approved vocational qualification before their 18th birthday no longer have to attend compulsory education.

## 2.2 Paritetic education system in the Ladin valleys

The situation with regard to education in the Ladin valleys differs in respect of the languages of instruction. According to the autonomy statute, staff in kindergartens are to use the Ladin language exclusively. However, for a number of years the aim in kindergartens has been to respond systematically with a range of spontaneous multilingual activities and to incorporate these into a social education concept. This rarely involves the “one person - one language” model; instead, an attempt is made to switch languages depending on the situation and location, with kindergarten teachers and assistants sometimes alternating their linguistic roles.

After starting school, pupils are also gradually introduced to how to cope with key cultural skills in the German or Italian language. Literacy in either German or Italian is taught using the Ladin language.

It has been shown that the unilateral use of a single language for literacy makes it more difficult for pupils when they start their education at a paritetic school later on, which is why the less well-known language is used in at least one lesson per day<sup>14</sup>.

In the long term, the number of these lessons is increased so that pupils can easily cope with the weekly switch in languages of instruction between German and Italian at the start of their second year. It would also be interesting to undertake literacy which takes account of all languages from the first year of education onwards, but this has yet to be implemented.

The three languages are not considered separately at the Ladin school, but are always placed in relation and in contrast to each other, whereby the first language tends to play an intermediary role - Ladin is a compulsory subject which is taught for two lessons per week but can always be called upon for clarification purposes - and the two target languages have equal status as languages of instruction. Different models exist with regard to the programming of German and Italian lessons. In some schools the language alternates from week to week, at others from half-week to half-week, while at other schools certain subjects are taught for a whole academic year in one language and other subjects in the other language, with the language of instruction alternating the following academic year. Both German and Italian are taught as a subject for five lessons per week over and above their use in subject areas and subject matter. English is also introduced as a subject from the fourth year onwards<sup>15</sup>.

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<sup>14</sup> As a rule, this is German in the Gader Valley and Italian in Gröden.

<sup>15</sup> This is not yet the case at all schools.

At middle school and post-16, the paritetic model changes in that half the subjects are always taught in German and the other half always in Italian<sup>16</sup>, while Ladin as a subject is taught for two lessons in middle school and for one lesson at post-16. As at least one other foreign language also has to be offered, pupils in Ladin middle schools and at post-16 end up having more lessons overall.

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<sup>16</sup> Frequently, science subjects are taught in German and other subjects are taught in Italian, as middle schools and post-16 education in Italy are divided into faculties which in most cases are qualified to teach in German OR Italian. Only in rare cases are these faculties bilingual.

### **3 Supervisory authorities**

The schools in the province are managed by three education boards divided according to language group, which was a specific language policy measure designed to protect linguistic minorities and which was extremely important after German was banned in Fascist Italy.

## 4 Language support

The law in Italy since 1999 has stipulated that migrant children are to be integrated immediately into regular classes according to their age. These children are educated through a personalised curriculum which includes the right to language support. In South Tyrol, it is down to each individual school as to which framework is used to undertake language support.

There is a wide difference in the language support measures employed: some schools appoint support teachers for children with different first languages, others deploy language teachers in class or for extra-curricular teaching who are trained to teach German or Italian as a second language for the other language group, while other schools provide mandatory or optional extra-curricular language activities.

German-speaking South Tyrol schools are allowed to allocate their language support funding as they see fit. For newly arrived children with a different first language, schools receive an allowance to cover 4 lessons which they can use for language support. There is no special contingent at Italian-speaking schools, but instead there is greater overall provision.

### 4.1 Intercultural mediators

The job description of “intercultural mediator” was legally approved in South Tyrol in 2001 through a ruling by the state government. In this ruling, the job description is stipulated as follows:

“The holder will be an official who educates children in cultural differences, will have particularly well-developed intercultural skills and will work systematically on overcoming self-centredness, ethnocentrism and sociocentrism in favour of creating understanding and acceptance of cultural difference and foreignness.”

(Official Journal of the Trentino-South Tyrol Region, No. 51/I-II dated 11.12.01).

The possibility was already raised in Ministerial Circular No. 205 dated 26.07.90 and Act No. 40 dated 06.03.98 of appointing mother tongue language and culture coordinators at schools who would make communication and cooperation between school and home easier.

Intercultural mediators complete 800 hours’ training in legislation relating to foreign nationals, law and social studies, verbal and non-verbal communication, intercultural education and interpreting techniques, etc., as well as in-depth practical work.

Intercultural mediators undertake a range of tasks in schools:

- (a) Organisational/legal problems

- Translating certificates and other paperwork and documents
- Completing registration forms
- Comparing the marks received by pupils in the country of migration with those shown in their school report from the country of origin
- Checking when pupils started school in their country of origin in order to ensure they are placed in the best possible class for them
- Establishing learning pathways for pupils with the teaching staff (starting point, personal learning programme [PLP], textbooks and literature)

(b) Linguistic, cultural and teaching and learning mediation

- Bridging rifts in understanding
- Making contact between home and school
- Assisting pupils work with texts and subject matter according to the linguistic ability of children with a migration background
- Informing teaching staff about education systems, ways of life, customs, etc.

(taken from Rapo/Rapo, 2007).

The four key areas of work according to Rapo/Rapo (2007) comprise:

- Language and cultural mediation in the classroom
- Involvement of parents in the life of the school
- Carrying out intercultural lessons in class and intercultural projects at school

and

- Supporting pupils' retention of their mother tongue

## 4.2 Language(s) of instruction

In principle, the language of instruction in Italy is Italian. Only in minority regions which are governed by special legislation are other languages permitted for teaching.

The language of instruction is German in the German-speaking schools in South Tyrol and Italian in the Italian-speaking schools, although in each case the other language is taught as a subject no later than the second year of primary school.

At Ladin schools, German and Italian have equal status as taught subjects, while Ladin and English constitute additional subjects (see above).

## 4.3 Teaching the language of origin

In Italy and South Tyrol, there is no fundamental entitlement to language of origin teaching in languages other than those listed above.

In South Tyrol, several migration languages are offered as optional subjects at some schools, while several schools provide language of origin teaching on a voluntary basis.

All schools receive €100 per pupil with a different first language to Italian, German or Ladin, and from ten pupils upwards a lump sum of €2,000 of unearmarked funding is provided; no checks are made on how it is used. A number of schools use this funding for teaching the language of origin.

In 2010, the following languages of origin were taught:

|          |  |
|----------|--|
| Bolzano: | Albanian, Urdu, Serbian                    |
| Lana:    | Arabic, Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian, Albanian |
| Ritten:  | Albanian, Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian         |
| Prad:    | Arabic                                     |
| Klausen: | Urdu                                       |
| Brixen:  | Urdu                                       |
| Bruneck: | Serbian, Serbian theatre                   |

## 5 Teacher training and CPD

In Italy, the teacher training system was changed as recently as 01.09.08 with the introduction of Decree No. 137: “Urgent measures with respect to the education system and universities”.

These reforms, named after Minister Mariastella Gelmini, have completely restructured teacher training. The reforms abolished the two-year Scuola Superiore di Insegnamento Secondario or SSIS (University for Secondary Education I and II Teacher Training), which was initially founded in 2000 and was still considered to be a transitional structure. It had originally been introduced to meet the lack of separate teaching training provision in Italy.

With the Gelmini Reforms, there continue to exist two types of teacher training (kindergarten and primary school teacher training and secondary education I and II teacher training) which are not very different from the previous model:

### 5.1 Kindergarten and primary school teacher training

(Qualification: *Maestro/a*)

Since 1996, kindergarten and primary school teachers have been trained at the faculties of Scienze della Formazione Primaria (i.e. primary education faculties). The duration of the course leading to the Laurea Magistrale is 5 years and includes one year’s teaching practice.

With the Gelmini Reforms, the principle of the maestro/-a unico/-a who teaches across the curriculum was re-introduced.

### 5.2 Secondary education I and II teacher training and vocational education

(Qualification: *Professore/ssa*).

Teacher training at secondary and vocational level takes place at different faculties.

However, the faculties must now specify one of their courses as being particularly suitable for teacher training. After completing the five-year course, future teachers undertake one year of teaching practice in school.

### 5.3 Bilingual teaching

As yet there have been no dedicated study modules for bilingual teaching.

In South Tyrol, the education boards provide one-off seminars and series of seminars on German or Italian as a second language or on intercultural education.

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# F Hungary



## 1 Population

Hungary is situated in the Carpathian Basin in central eastern Europe and covers an area of 93,000 sq. km. According to recent data, the total population stands at just under 10 million, or 9,986,000 to be precise (as of 26.10.2010).

The majority of the population (approx. 90%) is Hungarian. The country's official language is Hungarian, and therefore teaching is also in Hungarian. However, according to Act LXXVII/1993, national and ethnic minorities have the right to establish schools where the language of instruction is the minority language but Hungarian is taught as a compulsory subject.

13 recognised national and ethnic minorities live in Hungary, making up approx. 10% of the total population. The largest of them is the Roma/gypsy minority, and according to official estimates there are more than 700,000 members of this autochthonous minority. Their numbers are unevenly distributed and vary from comitatus (or administrative county) to comitatus. For the most part, they are concentrated in small towns in northeastern Hungary and southern Hungary, frequently forming entire "dead-end villages" (i.e. the road goes as far as the village and no further) with an exclusively Roma population. The unemployment rate is particularly high in these areas. The mostly unskilled people cannot find a job - either where they live or further away - and thousands of families have experienced three generations of unemployment. The process of "slumification" is accelerating and the number of actual and potential illiterate people is steadily increasing.

## 2 The education system

After the fall of the Berlin Wall (1989), the Hungarian education system was also freed from the compulsory Soviet model (8+4+4/5). As a result, the system now consists of:

- (a) The Soviet model still with a primary school, middle school (grammar school, secondary school, vocational training college) and university system
- (b) A 4+8+4/5 model; this progression has a primary sector (or “lower level”), 8 years of grammar school and the university system
- (c) A 6+6+4/5 model where you attend primary school for six years (primary education + 2 years of secondary education) and then move on to 6 years of grammar school and then university

Schools are sponsored by the state (through self-governing arrangements), the church and private foundations.

### 2.1 The former Soviet model

| Age              | School type            |
|------------------|------------------------|
| From 19 years on | University             |
| 15-18 years      | Upper secondary school |
| 11-14 years      | Lower secondary school |
| 6-10 years       | Primary school         |
| 3-6 years        | Kindergarten           |

*Fig. F-1: The former Soviet model*

## 2.2 The education system today

| Age  | School type                                     |
|--|---|
| 18/19 years  | University                                      |
| 18-19/20 years (1-2 years)   | Vocational school                               |
| 15/16-18/19 years (1-2+2 years)  | Vocational school                               |
| 14-18 years (2+2 years)  | Vocational school                               |
| 14-18/19/20 years  | Vocational secondary school                     |
| 10/12/14 - 18/19 years   | Secondary school („Gymnasium“)                  |
| 6/7 - 14 years<br>1. cycle 6-10 years = lower primary school („Unterstufe“), 2. cycle 10-14 years = upper primary school („Oberstufe“) | Primary school (lower and upper primary school) |
| 3-6/7 years- compulsory pre-school year  | Kindergarten                                    |
| 0-3 years  | Nursery   |

*Fig. F-2: The education system today*

| Gymnasium 8 years |                    | Gymnasium 6 years |                    |
|-------------------|--------------------|-------------------|--------------------|
| <i>Age</i>        | <i>School Type</i> | <i>Age</i>        | <i>School Type</i> |
| 19- years         | University         | 19- x years       | University         |
| 11-18 years       | Secondary school   | 13-18 years       | Secondary school   |
| 6-10 years        | Primary school     | 6-12 years        | Primary school     |
| 3-6/7 years       | Kindergarten       | 3-6/7 years       | Kindergarten       |

*Fig. F-3: 8-year grammar school education and 6-year grammar school education*

Education is compulsory until the age of 18.

In many smaller towns, primary schools have been and are being closed, despite the increasingly frequent protests by parents who are affected. As a transitional solution, only upper schools (= the secondary sector) are being closed and so at least the younger children can stay at home for the time being. The older pupils then have to commute daily to schools in other towns. In most cases, there is no school bus service or similar provision.

The results of the first PISA survey were “a national tragedy” for the public in Hungary - and therefore also for the executive authorities. Before, Hungary (i.e. the respective bodies) was more than satisfied with the supposedly “very good” results that it had achieved in international league tables. The results always made reference to the truly remarkable success achieved in competitions in science. Of course, what wasn’t mentioned was the fact that the participants always came from the few “top stables” and that the results did not reflect the average achieved overall in the Hungarian education system. After a great deal of handwringing in the wake of this tragedy, a number of centralised programmes (*PHARE* and *SuliNova*) were set up using EU funding, which resulted in many curricula being modernised and new textbooks being developed, while a significant number of schools were able to upgrade their infrastructure with computers and even whiteboards.

Unfortunately, these measures changed very little. In the 2006 PISA survey, Hungary performed as badly as in the first survey (2000). New measures followed, such as developing a chain of reference schools which would be able to disseminate their best practice models, and in order to obtain these models teachers were despatched to western European schools so that they could acquire the valuable experience that was available there. We will only be able to report on the actual results of this initiative after the next PISA survey.

## **3 Supervisory authorities**

### **3.1 The management system**

The education system in Hungary is managed by the comitati, i.e. administrative counties, as it was at the time of the Habsburgs. In recent decades, the country has comprised 19 comitati and the capital, Budapest. Since Hungary's entry into the EU in 2004, the country has also been formed into 7 larger regions. For example, the Győr-Moson-Sopron comitatus belongs to the West Hungary Region, which shares its borders with Slovakia and Austria.

The administrative tasks are distributed horizontally across the Ministry of Education and other ministries (e.g. National Resources, Employment, Finance and Home Affairs) as the highest executive authorities. Administrative control is decentralised vertically and the responsibility for steering policy is shared between the centre (or state), local (regional) authorities and institutional bodies.

Leadership through self-governance extends to pre-school, primary school and middle school. The university system is administered directly by the Ministry of Education. The individual institutions are able to make independent decisions appropriate to their role, not only in respect of the organisational work and their functionality, but also when setting their budgets.

### **3.2 Legislation**

The law governing teaching in schools is determined by the legislature in the Hungarian Parliament. A traditional hierarchy exists for the execution of the legislation: the Ministry of Education specifies the framework guidelines, national curricula and teaching content and methods; the self-governing bodies (at comitatus and local level) endeavour to allocate the scarce financial resources to implement these, and the schools, whose headteachers and staff in some cases are on compulsory contracts due first and foremost to decreasing school rolls and the subsequent huge competition for pupils, are obliged to develop their own educational character and local curriculum.

The competition is tough, and there are redundancies year on year. In the Győr-Moson-Sopron comitatus alone, there are currently approx. 350 unemployed teachers, and it is highly probable that there will be more redundancies next autumn. (<http://www.nefmi.gov.hu/nemzetkozi-kapcsolatok/tudnivalok-magyar/magyar-oktatasi>)

## **4 The position of migrants**

### **4.1 Phases of immigration**

Until the end of the 1980s, Hungary was one of the countries that saw migrants to leave in several waves (i.e. in 1929-33 and 1956). In the course of this migration, hundreds of thousands of people have left the country.

In the early 1990s (after the fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989), Hungary became a host country for migrants.

#### **4.1.1 First immigration phase**

As a consequence of the dictatorship and after the revolution in Romania, several tens of thousands of Hungarian-speaking Romanian nationals sought asylum in Hungary. They were mostly taken in by relatives, friends and acquaintances.

#### **4.1.2 Second immigration phase**

Shortly after, more tens of thousands of people came to Hungary as a consequence of the ethnic conflict in the former Yugoslavia. They settled predominantly in the border areas or in refugee camps. Depending on the migrants' aims, Hungary became either a country of transit or a country of destination.

#### **4.1.3 Third immigration phase**

Since the mid-1990s, increasing numbers of asylum seekers have arrived from other European and non-European countries. They were accommodated in refugee camps in Bicske, Debrecen and Békéscsaba.

#### **4.1.4 Fourth immigration phase**

Labour migration developed parallel to this and accelerated as a result of Hungary's entry into the EU in 2004.

The number of migrants in Hungary is not high by European standards, but is significantly higher than other central eastern European countries. In 2008, the total number of migrants in Hungary stood at 174,697 (total population: 10,045,400). This amounts to 1.74% of the population. More than 50% of immigrants live in the capital and the surrounding area.

According to demographic data from 2008, 15.3% of the population are aged between 0 and 14 years. Among migrants, this age group comprises just 7.9%. Around 1% of migrant children attend primary school and secondary school. It is only possible to track what becomes of migrants according to the statutory regulations up to the point where they obtain Hungarian citizenship, as they then no longer feature in the statistics.

## **4.2 Statutory regulations**

Act 2007/I is concerned with the situation of EU citizens and their relatives. The requirements for entry and residence for third country nationals are stipulated in Act 2007/II. These acts set out the requirements for residence of less than three months and more than three months. This is where the conditions for settlement and measures to counter illegalities are stipulated.

A further Act - /2007/LXXX/ - was passed to deal with the case of refugees. The act is harmonised with both the 1951 Geneva Convention and the legal rulings of the European Union. In the case of refugees, no check is made as to whether they have valid documents and the necessary material requirements. A key factor is a well-founded fear of persecution, and admission does not depend on the refugee's individual social situation.

## **4.3 Teaching migrant children**

The number of migrant children in mainstream education is very small, but there are great differences in how they are distributed among the schools.

According to a survey in 2002, migrant children were taught in a total of 1,209 mainstream schools (primary school and secondary school). On average, this works out at 3.16 children per school. However, there is a significant variation between schools: there are schools with one migrant child, while others teach 238 foreign children.

This variation has a number of specific factors: pupils from neighbouring countries are more likely to be distributed across the entire country than those who have come from further away. There are concentrations in Budapest and in the larger towns and cities and - from a regional point of view - in central Hungary, western Hungary and southwestern Hungary, particularly where there are bilingual schools.

## 5 The situation of the Roma

### 5.1 Historical overview

In a democratic society, aspiring to equality of opportunity is one of the most important objectives in communal life.

But what of the situation in the Republic of Hungary, and in particular with regard to migrants and minorities - and among these the biggest ethnic minority of Roma/Sinti/gypsies? Both names - Roma and gypsies - are recognised in today's expert literature in Hungary based on the professed identities of the individual groups, and here the Sinti group is only sporadically represented.

Almost five decades have gone by since traditional itinerant groups of Vlach gypsies first settled in Hungary, and through to today their kin still follow this ancient peripatetic way of life in Romania (Transylvania) moving on in their caravans from April to November, although most have a comfortable house in a village or town where they can spend the cold winter days nestled in front of the television. But that is only possible if they have had plenty of profitable work during the summer months to maintain their livelihood. What type of work is undertaken? Collecting and selling edible fungi and berries, repairing household appliances, pans and kettles and, less frequently, buying and selling horses and other animals. Women may also work as fortune-tellers - demonstrating quite a considerable understanding of human nature. To undertake this kind of work, they have to make a huge round trip around the country, before returning home at the end.

It was only until recently that the Roma who live in Hungary still lived like this. In the 1950s/60s, it was still common to frighten children by threatening that if they didn't behave the gypsies would catch them and gobble them up!

Otherwise, these years were marked by the dynamic development of large industrial factories, which required a huge number of (in some cases unskilled) workers; as a result, all Hungarian citizens over the age of 18 could - or had to - have a job, because "skiving off work was a danger to public safety" and would be punished. Hence even the mostly illiterate Roma people were able to make the weekly commute on the "black train" from far-flung corners of the country mainly to the capital, Budapest, or to other industrial centres. This commuting did at least have one obvious result: the family members who stayed behind at home did not go hungry. As a result of this long-standing "minimum insurance cover" from the state, they weaned themselves off their traditional strategies for life which had proved their worth over the centuries and departed fairly rapidly from their old way of life. And then came the fall of the Berlin Wall.

The initial measures included the introduction of privatisation of the large factories (which otherwise mostly only "produced" a loss), the first consequence of which was mass redundancies. As they were uneducated, the first and foremost to be affected were the Roma - and there was none of the usual assistance from the state.

According to estimates, today the Roma make up some 7-8% of Hungary's 10 million citizens. Of those who are old enough to work, more than 90% have been unemployed for years. The reasons for this are a lack of education and discrimination.

Typical of families where unemployment has been passed on from generation to generation - and this does not only affect the families of the largest minority - is an ever-increasing hostile attitude towards the majority in society. Ultimately, the biggest interface where there are problems is that of school and education. What types of problems are there? These are listed by Katalin R. Forray in *figure F-4*:

| <i>The schools' goals and expectations</i>  | <i>The Romas' interpretation of schools</i>   |
|---|---|
| <b>1. Teaching and pedagogical goals</b>  |   |
| The functions of schools are based on the goals, values, norms etc. that society has agreed on. | The functions of schools are based on laws and regulations (schools force and punish pupils). |
| Pupils prepare themselves for life in schools.  | The pupils „real“ life is happening outside of the school.                                    |
| Schools offer better life chance because of their teaching and pedagogical efforts.             | Schools teach reading, writing and mathematical knowledge.                                    |
| Schools decide on the knowledge that should be taught.  | The pupils (and the families) decide on what pupils should learn.                             |
| Pupils are assessed by teachers in schools with the help of marks.                              | Pupils are assessed by teachers in schools through praise and insult.                         |

| <b>2. School education</b>                                      |   |
|---|---|
| During school time, school has the highest priority.            | The family and the (Roma) society has always the highest priority.              |
| Families are obliged to send the child to school well prepared. | Schools should educate the pupils as it is expected by the Roma society.        |
| Schools take over pedagogical tasks from the families.          | Only the family and the (Roma) society has the right to educate their children. |

| <b>3. Hungarian majority schools and Roma (Gypsy) families</b>                                 |  |
|--|--|
| Pupils stay children in relation to the teachers.  | Children are only children until prepuberty.   |
| Emotions are not part of the pedagogical work at school.                                       | Schools will only be accepted if teachers have individual and emotional relations to the pupils. |
| In schools, there are only conflicts between teachers and pupils or between pupils themselves. | Conflicts take always place between Roma (Gypsy) and „Gazhen“ (the Hungarians).                  |
| Parents are not welcome in schools during school time.   | Parents take on the role of protecting their children from society even during school time.      |
| Schools lift pupils out of their families.   | The child's only rightful place is in the family and the (gypsy) society.                        |

*Fig. F-4: Key conflicts between school and families*

Some remarks on the statements in the table:

The image a school has of itself corresponds to a centuries-old tradition of being an important organ for exercising power. Consequently, we can better understand why it is that ethnic groups who are suffering hardship become increasingly sensitive, hostile and even aggressive towards the institution.

Of course, what the Roma think about school cannot be justified on all counts, but it can be said that they are forward-looking in several ways and have moved on appropriately in their perceptions. Examples of this:

“The child (the family) has the right to determine the skills to be acquired”

In this statement, “determine” can easily be changed to “co-determine” and so we are already into quite contemporary territory when it comes to considering solutions.

“The school is only acceptable if the teachers cultivate personal and emotional relationships with the children”

This expectation towards the school is not only acceptable coming from Roma families. The perceptions that need to be consigned to oblivion once and for all are that the pupils sit there as indifferent, well-behaved numbskulls who are eagerly cut down to the same level by the teacher.

“The essential thing about the conflicts is that they arise between Roma and gazhen (the majority population)”

It is extremely likely that we can read into this statement that the school would prefer not to acknowledge the existence of the problem of ethnic origin and its many aspects at all; thus a radical “black and white” response results on the part of the minority concerned. In this form it is still quite harmless, but if we consider events in recent years it is immediately obvious that we have arrived at the final turning point. The conflicts between racist groups and the Roma, with several dead on both sides, can no longer be swept under the carpet.

## **6 Language teaching - language support**

### **6.1 Requirements for language teaching**

Reference to educational science and the application of academic input is ambivalent: you often come across a process where the responsible figures refer to antiquated perceptions and dispense these as supposedly progressive and established thinking. The early acquisition of foreign languages is an example of this: well-known experts emphasise the importance of first ensuring the development of mother tongue structures is sound before starting on another language. These lobbyists also make age a condition of this process, as according to them no-one should encounter a foreign language before their tenth birthday!

This view is quite popular among headteachers who have to make savings, whereupon they mostly make cuts in foreign language teaching. Their “professional argument” is that “You only need a few weeks to learn some songs, rhymes and games!” Nevertheless, forced by falling school rolls, they often advertise that the school teaches one or even several foreign languages early as an incentive to parents when choosing their child’s school.

For the above reasons, schools differ on whether foreign language teaching starts in the first year or is postponed for as long as is legally possible to the 5th year of education depending on the view of the headteachers, the ability of the teaching staff to assert itself and/or local financial circumstances.

The publishing houses cooperate in all ways and are very flexible. The traditional and well-known foreign publishers (i.e. Hueber, Klett, Oxford, etc.) own subsidiaries in Hungary. Their textbooks for the foreign languages pupils choose to learn are relevant, authentic, rigorous in their methodology and are very expensive for most Hungarians. In contrast to this, the output of Hungarian state and private publishers is not so expensive, but their textbooks are often lacking when it comes to foreign language teaching.

Schools are also free to choose the various school books they use, depending on the financial circumstances of the parents. At the start of the academic year, many banks provide loans for starting school.

### **6.2 Background information**

The academic year is set at approx. 180 teaching days.

Class sizes are between 20 and 35 pupils.

The expenditure for all education institutions as a percentage of GDP in 2001 was 5.1%. This is a relative proportion, but in terms of specific figures the primary school and middle school sector (i.e. years 1 to 12) spend approx. €1,200 per pupil, which comes out at 19.9% of GDP per person.

The teaching staff are responsible for the quantity and frequency of homework set.

Access to school libraries is assured, while access to computers varies from school to school.

Support is available in all subjects through extra tuition.

Expert groups provide reading support and support in other areas of knowledge and skills.

The PIRLS survey showed that pupils in the primary sector achieved better results than in the PISA surveys mentioned above. We can therefore state that standards in this sector remain good. In international comparisons, pupils' achievements in comprehension are hopeful. They take pleasure in reading, although this is lost at some point at upper school (= secondary school).

In 2008, the *Green Book* for the overhaul of the Hungarian education system was published.

In this book, important issues are addressed by well-known Hungarian authors, including equal opportunities, children with special educational needs, institutional structures, curriculum, appraisal, assessment, continuous professional development and the jobs market.

### 6.3 Legal principles

Act No. LXXVII/1993, which refers to the rights of national and ethnic minorities, recognises that the Roma people have the same status and the same rights as other minorities living in Hungary.

- (1) Act No. LXXIX/1993 on the education system and deals, among other things, with combating the pupils' social and psychological disadvantage and their skills development and support for their talents.
- (2) Act No. LXXXV/1995 forms the basis of the National Core Curriculum. This core curriculum sets out ten subject areas:
  - Hungarian language and literature and minority language and literature
  - Modern foreign language
  - Mathematics
  - People and society
  - People and nature
  - Our earth and environment
  - The arts: music, dance, drama, visual culture, surface culture and media studies
  - Information technology: computer studies and library skills
  - Life skills and practical skills: work, housekeeping and careers
  - Physical education and sport

The National Core Curriculum was supplemented or replaced to some extent by the 2000 FRAMEWORK GUIDELINES. The new National Core Curriculum dates from 2007.

- (3) Based on the statutory regulations or official guidelines listed above and in terms of intercultural education, the following forms/options for minority education currently exist. These forms of teaching are not only used with minority children:

Kindergarten:

- Mother tongue/minority language education
- Bilingual education
- Education in the Roma culture: within this framework, teaching can be undertaken

(a) in the language of the minority/Romani and Boyash = Old Romanian/

(b) in two languages/Hungarian and Romani or Boyash/

(c) within the framework of Romani cultural education in the Hungarian language

Primary school and secondary school:

- Mother tongue teaching: In this form, teaching and educational activities except for Hungarian language and literature are delivered in the minority language/
- Bilingual minority teaching: The aim is to extend pupils' language skills and their use as the language of instruction. The number of subjects taught in the minority language is set out by the respective schools in their prospectus.
- Language teaching for minorities: This form contributes to achieving minority teaching objectives through the acquisition of the language and the subject areas of literature and minority ethnology. It takes the form of:
  - (a) traditional language teaching for minorities. The language of instruction is Hungarian with the language and literature of the minority taught during lessons from the first year onwards.
  - (b) extended language teaching for minorities. The aim is to prepare pupils for bilingual or mother tongue minority teaching.
- Roma minority teaching: This ensures that gypsy children become familiar with the cultural values of the Roma and receive teaching in their history, literature, visual arts, music and dance culture as well as their traditions. Knowledge is taught about the situation of gypsies and about their rights, organisations and institutions. The integration of gypsies is supported through educational means. Where gypsy language/Romani or Boyash/is taught, the relevant regulations for other minority languages in respect of the proportion and length of time taught are to be observed.

## **6.4 Legally recognised minorities**

Thirteen recognised national and ethnic minorities currently live in Hungary:

- German
- Croatian
- Romanian
- Serb
- Slovak
- Slovenian
- Bulgarian
- Roma and Boyash
- Greek
- Polish
- Armenian
- Rusyn
- Ukrainian

## **6.5 Teaching minority children**

Mother tongue teaching:

Teaching is only undertaken in this form at a few schools. In the bilingual form, teaching is carried out in the language of the respective minority for 50% of the timetable per week. In the language teaching form - where the children have little or no knowledge of the language of the minority - there are four lessons of language and literature in the week, and five for the German minority.

## **6.6 Methods used in the language acquisition process**

### **6.6.1 Kindergarten:**

These days teaching is increasingly based on the “one person one language” principle (especially for German and English), and mother tongue speakers are involved if possible. If this is not possible, a mixture of acquisition and teaching is used, depending on the staff’s expertise with teaching methods.

### **6.6.2 Primary school/secondary school:**

Increasingly better and purpose-made textbooks have made it possible to provide language acquisition for practical communication purposes. Colleagues (whose number continues to grow) who constantly develop their expertise in their subject and teaching methods are able to create an age-appropriate and child-centred learning environment where children are able to enjoy holistic learning using all their senses and successfully produce language on their own. At the same time, staff can also count on the support of mother tongue colleagues.

This is the ideal scenario, but if we are talking about (mostly) frustrated teaching staff, we have to be glad that teaching takes place at all and that work is completed somehow or other.

### **6.6.3 University system:**

There are differences in the training of future teachers in terms of the length of study, the number of hours and the proportions of theory and practice. There are more and more opportunities for spending part of a teacher training course abroad, enabling students to gain intercultural experience at the same time as developing their professional expertise in language teaching and teaching methods.

There is clear evidence of the educational reforms being applied in the primary sector and in teaching training for the primary sector. In the other sectors, these are seen sporadically and are not systematically applied.

## 7 Teacher training and CPD

### 7.1 Background

The Republic of Hungary has been a member of the European Union since 1st May 2004. This is a very hopeful development for our citizens. Another important date in the life of our society is 1989 - the year the Berlin Wall came down - which brought an end to 40 years of “real socialism”. This latter date brought with it significant upheaval in politics, business, society and interpersonal relationships. Of course this did not all happen at once. Politically it took some 6 days for the process to happen; in all sectors of economic life throughout the country, 6 years perhaps - and in society? Perhaps it will take 60 years... There is at the least no way of clearly knowing what and how quickly something changes in the human spirit and in interpersonal relationships. The general experience is that the maximum amount of time is needed for changes of this magnitude - and this may take a few generations.

In the Hungarian education system, people adapted fairly quickly to the new challenges. The new National Core Curriculum appeared in 1995 with ten basic subject areas and was immediately obligatory at the three levels of education.

In 2000, this National Core Curriculum was supplemented and some sections were replaced. The framework guidelines also include the subjects contained in the “People and society” subject area, albeit with differentiation for the different year groups.

Still included in the legal provision is Act LXXVII from 1993 on the legal situation of national and ethnic minorities in Hungary. Through this act, the Roma - in numerical terms the largest ethnic minority - were recognised as such for the first time in Hungarian history. Under this act, “nationality lessons” with many specific topics were then introduced into the education system for the largest minority as well; however, the majority language and culture (i.e. Hungarian) has priority here.

The 2006/07 academic year is referred to as the Bologna year. It was in this year that the “Bologna process” (for the greater harmonisation of degree standards) was generally introduced into the Hungarian university system. Many changes were associated with the launch of Bologna, particularly new subjects and specialisations. For example, the subject of “Intercultural Education” was worked out by a team (from the universities of Budapest, Baja, Zsámbék, Debrecen and Győr) with assistance from the Hungarian HEFOP project (Operating Programme for Human Resources Development) and was introduced at teacher training colleges as mandatory. If the basic perception of intercultural education can become embedded within the entire education system, then we will be much closer to the aim of enabling integrated and ethnically mixed groups of pupils to contribute to cooperation between the different social groups. This will then be reflected back - in the broadest sense of the term - in society later on.

The origins of the new subject lie in the fact that according to both domestic and international surveys more than half of the respective students are massively prejudiced and the core (approx. 15%) have racist attitudes. In a society where some 10% of the population belong to one of the 13 officially recognised national and ethnic minorities, it is a situation that needs to be rectified fast in order to ensure that mutual and equal acceptance and tolerance become the fundamental attitude at all levels of the education system. Various non-governmental organisations can play a part in achieving this objective.

For Hungary, the results of the PISA survey have shown that the internal structure and the subject matter and targets for subjects are often antiquated, and as a result problem-solving ability, independent reading comprehension and the usefulness of the knowledge gained are often found wanting. Continuous professional development - and in some cases new textbooks - contribute to improving the process.

## **7.2 Driving CPD and training content**

Primary and middle school teachers are obliged to achieve 120 credits in official continuous professional development courses every seven years. However, they are not released from their duties in order to attend these courses. Colleagues therefore have to take part in such events at the expense of their free time (i.e. at weekends or during the holidays). Headteachers have the greatest influence on what training is done, as they decide - pure and simple - who takes part in which course. Recently, these courses have often taken the form of in-house training (e.g. acquisition of whiteboard skills; training of secondary teachers by primary teachers in order to pass on tips on how to improve working with fifth and sixth-year pupils). The latter is perhaps a stop-gap solution for the lack of expertise at secondary level. However, in that case something still needs to be done in secondary schools and the university system.

A large number of training and CPD courses in foreign languages at home and abroad are provided by foreign cultural relations bodies (i.e. Goethe Institute, Kulturkontakt Österreich, British Council, Alliance Française, and many others). Teacher training faculties at universities provide seminars, courses and series of lectures. English is in greatest demand, followed by German, with other languages some way behind.

The introduction of the Bologna process does not particularly contribute to resolving the above problems. The three-year training deals more with the theory - like the traditional antiquated model - while the professional knowledge content and the practical training come at the MA stage, which is too little and too late.

Teaching training for the primary sector has escaped for the time being.

Here, the training still lasts for four years with a diploma awarded at the end. The training for the primary sector is practical and forward-looking - certainly in the case of foreign languages. The skills thus acquired are then still able to bear fruit in the primary school. A good development would be for this best practice model to be disseminated at least throughout the education system in Hungary.

## 8 Approaches for the future

So which measures are needed to bring us closer to allowing equal opportunity for Roma children and adolescents to take off?

Above all, schools need to implement far-reaching changes in the teaching system. This relates both to structural measures and to personal attitudes among the staff.

Based on different surveys, we can state that most teachers have very little knowledge of the socio-cultural background and about their pupils' backgrounds and that the most obvious consequence of this is they have a great deal of fear, prejudice and preconceptions, if not racist attitudes. One of the results of this is that in Hungary there are still several hundred schools and classes which are segregated. A further significant proportion of Roma children attend special schools because they are sent there by the school entry commission, although all they would have needed is support in the majority language. This is as a result of their semilingualism, which could have been seen as added value that they are fortunate to have.

When we consider the complexity of the various problem areas, we have to conclude that fast and effective decisions are needed.

The following forecasts give us an idea of the size of the most urgent tasks we face:

| Age         | 1997 | 2000 | 2010 | 2020 | 2030 | 2040 | 2050 |
|-------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| 0-4 Years   | 13,6 | 15,2 | 16,4 | 19,2 | 22,4 | 23,6 | 24,8 |
| 5-9 Years   | 11,7 | 12,5 | 15,6 | 17,5 | 20,8 | 23,0 | 24,1 |
| 10-14 Years | 10,0 | 11,1 | 15,1 | 16,2 | 19,2 | 22,2 | 23,4 |
| 15-19 Years | 8,4  | 9,4  | 12,4 | 15,5 | 17,4 | 20,7 | 22,9 |

Fig. F-5

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## G Lithuania



## 1 International migration and Lithuanian educational system - analysis of statistical data

In the course of the history, Lithuania has been always involved in international migration. After the restoration of independence in 1991, Lithuania has been a destination and transit country as well as a country of origin for irregular migration. Even though emigration dominates migration movements in Lithuania, immigration has been gradually increasing as well, especially after Lithuania's accession to the European Union (2004) and the Schengen area (2007). Since Lithuania's eastern border became the external border of the EU, there has been an increase in labour migration particularly from non-EU countries.

According to the Department of Statistics, at the beginning of 2010 there were about 32,000 foreign citizens registered temporary or permanently in Lithuania. Even though the number of foreign population slightly increased since 2004, it still makes up just 1% of the 3.3 million inhabitants (see *figure G-1*).

|  | 2004    | 2005    | 2006    | 2007    | 2008    | 2009    | 2010    |
|--|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Total population                               | 3 445,9 | 3 425,5 | 3 403,3 | 3 384,9 | 3 366,2 | 3 350,1 | 3 329,0 |
| Foreign citizens                               | 30,2    | 32,6    | 35,3    | 33,1    | 33,4    | 32,9    | 32,5    |
| Foreign population as percentage of total ( %) | 0,88    | 0,95    | 1,04    | 0,98    | 0,99    | 0,98    | 0,98    |

*Fig. G-1: Foreign population since 2004 (in thousands)*<sup>17</sup>

As seen in *figure G-2*, the great majority of foreign nationals in Lithuania have moved from European countries, far less immigrants moved from Asian, African and American countries. The most strongly represented countries of origin were the Russian Federation, Belarus and Ukraine, followed by Poland, Germany and Latvia. According to the Migration Department, the patterns of migration from the territories of former Soviet Union have remained consistent: in 2009, immigrants from Russia made up 50%, from Belarus - 30%, and from Ukraine - 12% of the total number of third country nationals. The growing numbers of immigrants are especially noticeable from Belarus, Moldova and Ukraine: in 2004, 203 migrants came from Belarus, 16 from Moldova and 246 from Ukraine, whereas in 2008 these numbers were 987, 123 and 508, respectively. Among Asian countries of origin, the number of migrants from China, for instance, has increased from 253 in 2005 to 436 in

<sup>17</sup> Sources: Official data on the numbers of immigrants and foreign nationals living in Lithuania is taken from the annual reports of the Department of Statistics (Government of Lithuania) and the Department for Citizenship and Identification Documents (Ministry of the Interior) and is publicly available on the following website: [www.stat.gov.lt/en/](http://www.stat.gov.lt/en/).

2009. In general, the number of third country nationals has also increased: 1,360 in 2005 in comparison to 2,568 in 2008.

| Nationality                                 | 2005          | 2010          |
|---|---------------|---------------|
| <b>EU states, of which:</b>                 | <b>1 965</b>  | <b>3 678</b>  |
| — Latvia                                    | 355           | 580           |
| — Poland                                    | 491           | 718           |
| — Germany                                   | 314           | 642           |
| <b>Other European countries, of which:</b>  | <b>20 540</b> | <b>21 388</b> |
| — Armenia                                   | 284           | 327           |
| — Belarus                                   | 3 025         | 5 125         |
| — Georgia                                   | ...           | 205           |
| — Russia                                    | 14 493        | 12 406        |
| — Ukraine                                   | 2 155         | 2631          |
| <b>North American countries, of which:</b>  | <b>420</b>    | <b>499</b>    |
| — USA                                       | 389           | 461           |
| <b>Central and South American countries</b> | <b>52</b>     | <b>82</b>     |
| <b>Australia and Oceania</b>                | <b>20</b>     | <b>28</b>     |
| <b>Asian countries, of which:</b>           | <b>1 555</b>  | <b>1 798</b>  |
| — Israel                                    | 326           | 382           |
| — Kazakhstan                                | 288           | 262           |
| — China                                     | 253           | 312           |
| — Liban                                     | 195           | 142           |
| <b>African countries</b>                    | <b>47</b>     | <b>163</b>    |
| <b>Stateless</b>                            | <b>7 914</b>  | <b>4 593</b>  |
| <b>Total:</b>                               | <b>32 613</b> | <b>32 363</b> |

Fig. G-2: Foreign population by country of origin (beginning of 2010)<sup>18</sup>

<sup>18</sup> Source: The data is provided by the The Residents' Register Service (Ministry of the Interior) and is publicly available in *Migration Yearbook 2009* [2009m. Migracijos metraštis] prepared and published by the Migration Department under the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Lithuania (official website: <http://www.migracija.lt/index.php?-484440258>).

Considering the main reasons of immigration to Lithuania since 2004, the great majority of permanent and temporary residence permits have been granted for the purpose of family reunification, employment, pursue of commercial or other legal activities and education<sup>19</sup>. In the case of third country migrants, these reasons have slightly changed since Lithuania joined the EU in 2004. That is to say, if family reunification was the dominant purpose of immigration before 2004, in recent years the number of third country nationals coming to Lithuania for work has been steadily growing. According to the current studies of the Centre of Ethnic Studies (CES), labour migration from third countries will be prevailing form of international migration in Lithuania<sup>20</sup>.

In terms of demography and ethnic diversity, Lithuania is relatively homogeneous country. According to the latest Population and Housing Census, in the year 2001 Lithuanians accounted for 83.5% of the population, while Poles and Russians made up the largest of the minority groups with 6.7% and 6.3% of the total population, respectively. Other minorities in the country are marginal (Belarussians 1.7, Ukrainians 1.2%, Jews 0.2% , Germans 0.3%, Tatars 0.1%, Roma 0.1%). All native-born people of other nationalities are considered to be representatives of ethnic minorities in Lithuania.

## 1.1 Immigrants in Lithuanian education system

In recent years, the Ministry of Education and Science of Lithuania has begun the systematic collection of comprehensive and analytical data on the education of immigrant children. *Figure G-3* below presents the general numbers of children whose mother tongue is a language other than Lithuanian<sup>21</sup> in educational institutions since 2005. With regards to pre-school institutions<sup>22</sup> and secondary schools, these figures include children of foreigners who came to Lithuania for employment and education reasons, children of diplomats, and children of immigrants with a permanent resident status. The total number of immigrant children attending pre-school institutions has increased since 2005: there were 69 children in pre-schools in 2005-2006 and 96 in 2009-2010. Current number, however, is considerably smaller compared to those in 2006-2007 and 2008-2009, when there were 230 and 113 children in pre-school institutions, respectively. The total number of immigrant children in secondary schools has been steadily increasing from 373 in 2005-2006 to 745 in 2009-2010. The highest number of immigrant children remains in the higher education institutions: there were 1,198 students in 2005-2006 and this number tripled to 3,946 in 2009-2010.

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<sup>19</sup> This information is taken from the annual reports *Migration Yearbook* [Migracijos metraštis] in the period of 2004-2009. Reports are prepared and published by the Migration Department (Ministry of Interior), publicly available on the following website: <http://www.migracija.lt/index.php?-484440258> [accessed 20 August 2010].

<sup>20</sup> More on this topic: Karolis Žibas, "Labour Immigration in Lithuania: Situation Analysis". *OIKOS: Lithuanian Migration and Diaspora Studies*. Vilnius: 2007, 4, 16-30.

<sup>21</sup> In this report, these children are also referred to as 'immigrant children', 'foreign children', 'children with a migration background' or 'bilingual children'.

<sup>22</sup> In Lithuania, pre-school educational institutions are: nurseries, nursery-kindergartens, kindergartens, kindergarten-schools.

|                                 | 2005-2006 | 2006-2007 | 2007-2008 | 2008-2009 | 2009-2010   |
|---------------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-------------|
| <b>Pre-school institutions*</b> | 69        | 230       | 78        | 113       | <b>96</b>   |
| <b>Secondary schools*</b>       | 373       | 522       | 620       | 681       | <b>745</b>  |
| <b>Vocational institutions</b>  | 7         | 41        | 82        | 45        | <b>71</b>   |
| <b>Colleges</b>                 | 28        | 49        | 64        | 97        | <b>124</b>  |
| <b>Universities</b>             | 1198      | 1872      | 2955      | 3844      | <b>3946</b> |

*Fig. G-3: Foreigners in educational institutions (beginning of the academic year)*<sup>23</sup>

Source: Communication of the Centre of Ethnic studies at the Lithuanian Social Research Centre with the Department of Statistics under the Government of Lithuania (12.07.2010).

Considering more detailed information regarding foreign pupils in Lithuanian secondary schools, girls constituted 50.2% of all foreign pupils, 82.68% of all foreign pupils arrived from non-EU countries and 65.90% indicated having a permanent residence in Lithuania. In 2009-2010 the vast majority of immigrant children attended state schools (637 of the total of 745), predominantly in the district of Vilnius city (48.32% of all foreign pupils), in the district of Klaipėda city (10.33%) and in the district of Kaunas city (4.29%). In addition, 34.09% of immigrant children indicated education as the main reason of moving to Lithuania<sup>24</sup>.

Despite gradually increasing numbers of foreign children attending educational institutions in Lithuania, very little official data exist regarding their nationalities. As mentioned above, only 17.31% of all foreign pupils in Lithuanian secondary schools in 2009-2010 indicated to have arrived from EU countries. However, as the majority of immigrants in recent years have come to Lithuania from the former Soviet Union countries, it can be assumed that the majority of foreign children attending Lithuanian schools have also arrived from Russia, Belarus and Ukraine. Since immigrant children are more likely to attend Russian, Lithuanian-Russian or Polish-Russian schools (that is, national (ethnic) minority or bilingual schools)<sup>25</sup> more detailed information regarding the integration of immigrant children in Lithuanian education system is discussed in the following chapters.

<sup>23</sup> \*children of: foreigners with a work or study permit; diplomats; immigrants with a permanent resident status.

<sup>24</sup> The sources for statistical data concerning immigrant children and their participation in Lithuanian education system are: (1) Communication of the Centre of Ethnic Studies at the Lithuanian Social Research Centre with the Ministry of Education and Science of Lithuania (04.08.2010); (2) Annual Reports on Education prepared and published by the Department of Statistics (Government of Lithuania), publicly available on the following website: <http://www.stat.gov.lt/en/pages/view/?id=1594> [accessed 20 August 2010].

<sup>25</sup> The source is: Communication of the Centre of Ethnic Studies at the Lithuanian Social Research Centre with the Ministry of Education and Science of Lithuania (04.08.2010).

## 2 Lithuanian education system

A thorough legal framework regulating education in Lithuania assures that every resident of Lithuania is granted the right to learn and acquire an educational background and qualification. The Constitution of the Republic of Lithuania [*Lietuvos Respublikos Konstitucija*] (ratified in 1992), for instance, stipulates that state schools be accessible to all pupils, regardless of their origin, sex, race, class, language or religious belief. According to the Law on Education [*Švietimo įstatymas*] (1991, amended in 2003 and 2006), primary and secondary school attendance is compulsory for all children under 16 years of age, who have their permanent residence in Lithuania, regardless of their nationality. In addition, studies at state and municipality general education and vocational training institutions are free of charge.

With regards to ethnic minorities and non-native speakers, a number of legal documents (in conjunction with above mentioned ones) provide their right to education in their own language. This right is also protected and further elaborated in the Law on National Minorities [*Tautinių mažumų įstatymas*] (1989, amended in 1991), the Law on the State Language [*Valstybinės kalbos įstatymas*] (1995), the Law on the Legal Status of Foreigners [*Dėl užsieniečių teisinės padėties*] (1991) and in new regulations for education passed by the Government in 2002-2003 (e.g., the Principles of Education for Ethnic Minorities [*Tautinių mažumų švietimo principai*]), in which it is firmly established that the language of a minority may also be the language of the education and that lessons for children of national minorities may take place in their own language providing the Lithuanian language taught parallel. In addition, the state is obliged to provide the financial means for the minority education (i.e., by providing textbooks in minority language). Those ethnic minorities which are smaller in number, such as Armenians, Latvians and Estonians, and which are not locally concentrated, are offered the option of complementary and non-formal education (e.g., private and Sunday schools) so as to consolidate their culture, language and identity<sup>26</sup>.

The status of foreign children in Lithuanian educational system is defined by the specific legislative framework, i.e. Ministerial Orders “Implementing the education of children of foreign nationals (who have arrived to work or get settled in Lithuania) in schools of general education” [*Dėl užsieniečių, atvykusių dirbti arba gyventi į Lietuvos Respubliką, vaikų ugdymo bendrojo lavinimo mokyklose įgyvendinimo*] (2003, amended in 2004) and “Implementing the education of foreign nationals and Lithuanian repatriates (who have arrived or return to work or get settle in Lithuania) and their children in transitory classes and transitory mobile groups” [*Dėl užsieniečių ir LR piliečių, atvykusių ar grįžusių gyventi ir dirbti LR, vaikų ir suaugusiųjų ugdymo išlyginamosiose klasėse ir išlyginamosiose mobiliosiose grupėse tvarkos*] (2005). In accordance with the stipulations of the Law on

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<sup>26</sup> The laws stipulating these principles are: *The Law on Education* [*Švietimo įstatymas*], amended on 17 June 2003 No. IX-1630 and on 13 June 2006 No. X-689. Official Gazette [*Valstybės žinios*] No. 63-2853/2003; and *The Law on National Minorities* [*Tautinių mažumų įstatymas*], No I-1007, 29-01-1991. The Official Gazette [*Valstybės žinios*] No 4-117/, 1991.

Education (2003), these legislative acts provide that foreign nationals<sup>27</sup> fall under the provision of free compulsory education and are entitled to free education and to the same pedagogical and social services as their Lithuanian counterparts. In addition, pupils who are not Lithuanian nationals and who have a mother tongue other than Lithuanian are not taught in separate schools or classes but are educated alongside Lithuanian pupils. Immigrant children can also attend ethnic minority schools (i.e., schools in which the language of instruction is either Russian or Polish) or bilingual schools (i.e., schools in which the languages of instruction are Lithuanian-Russian, Lithuanian-Polish or Russian-Polish).

In general, present Lithuanian education system is to be viewed as a result of the prolonged national education reform that started in 1992 and is planned to be finished in 2010. The basic principles of the reform have been to change educational methods for the autonomy of every individual, promoting equality, tolerance and a respect for neighboring countries and European cultural values. Following these principles substantial changes have been implemented in the educational process: starting with the preparation of new curriculums, textbooks and materials based on the unique national culture; following with the new ten-year compulsory basic education programme introduced during 1998-2000 and one year of optional pre-primary education introduced from the end of 2002; and finally approving the National Education Strategy 2003-2012 [*Valstybinė švietimo strategija*] in the Parliament of the Republic of Lithuania in July 2003.

With regards to the structure of Lithuanian education system itself, **pre-school and pre-primary (preparatory) education** is not compulsory, and thus admission to nurseries, nursery-kindergartens, kindergartens and primary schools is voluntary and based on the request of the child's parents (or foster parents). Under the education laws, enrolment in these institutions of immigrant children is based on the same requirements as for Lithuanian nationals (e.g., admission of children from the age of 1 to 5-6). At the age of 6, children are enrolled in pre-primary (preparatory) education institutions. Pre-primary education is not compulsory<sup>28</sup> 1-year programme intended to help the child to prepare for learning at a primary education institution. This level of education may be provided upon the request of the child's parents (or foster parents) and is organized by kindergartens,

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<sup>27</sup> The term "foreign nationals" refers to refugees, asylum seekers, person temporarily seeking shelter on Lithuanian territory, and all immigrants irrespective of nationality holding a permit or so-called humanitarian residence permit of at least one years' validity or, if the period of residence is less than one year but exceeds 6 months, the entitlement is granted upon parental request. Source: *The Law on the Legal Status of Foreigners* [Istatymas dėl užsieniečių teisinės padėties], No IX-2206, 29-04-2004. The Official Gazette [Valstybės žinios] No. 73-2539, 2004.

<sup>28</sup> In 2002, the Ministry of Education and Science prepared a law project (see: [http://www3.lrs.lt/pls/inter3/dokpaieska.showdoc\\_l?p\\_id=169795&p\\_query=&p\\_tr2=](http://www3.lrs.lt/pls/inter3/dokpaieska.showdoc_l?p_id=169795&p_query=&p_tr2=)) according to which primary (preparatory) education had to become compulsory for children from certain groups (e.g, from social risk families). This initiative, however, was rejected after the expert team evaluated the Draft Law on Education (see more: *Evaluation of the Draft Law on Education of the Republic of Lithuania*. Available online: [http://politika.osf.lt/education/documents/CommentsOnDraftLaw/13DLE\\_expert%20evaluationp1-20ENGL.pdf](http://politika.osf.lt/education/documents/CommentsOnDraftLaw/13DLE_expert%20evaluationp1-20ENGL.pdf)), and thus neither pre-school nor pre-primary (preparatory) education are mandatory and depend entirely on the request of the child's parents (or foster parents).

primary and other schools. Regarding groups in which the majority or all children belong to ethnic minorities, it is required not to exceed the number of 15 (while in general pre-primary (preparatory) groups may consist of up to 20 children). In addition, foreigners granted asylum, who live in the Refugees Reception Center, are responsible for the education of their children. The pre-school children of these foreigners can be educated by the request of the parents in pre-school and pre-primary educational institutions with additional courses and activities in Lithuanian language.

**Primary education** in Lithuania is compulsory and provided by pre-school kindergartens and primary schools, which admit children aged 6-7. Having attained a primary education, schoolchildren continue with **secondary education** which consists of basic (lower-secondary) education and upper-secondary education. *Lower-secondary education* is provided by general basic schools, youth schools, special children's education and care residence, hospital and sanatorium schools. These schools admit pupils aged 10-11 and the duration of education at this level lasts for 6 years (5-10 grades). *Upper-secondary education* lasts for 2 years (11-12 grades, from 16-17 to 18-19 years of age). The curriculums of the upper-secondary education are implemented at secondary schools, gymnasiums, vocational schools and other institutions. At the end of secondary education (grade 12), graduates are awarded the Secondary School-leaving Certificate (Maturity Certificate), which entitles them to enter any higher education institution, colleges or vocational schools.

Immigrant children, similarly to Lithuanian citizens, may choose various educational programmes, their variants, modules and course programmes in different subjects according to their abilities and aptitudes. Pupils are also free to choose between a school implementing the chosen educational programme and another provider of education, and also learn individually in compliance with the procedure defined by the Minister of Education and Science. There is a free choice of non-formal education or self-development programmes.

Even though there are no formal test procedures for assessing the child's competence in Lithuanian, immigrant children whose competence in Lithuanian is not yet sufficient to follow classes held in Lithuanian are admitted to additional or so-called transitory classes for a period of one year. This is the case for six-year-olds as well as for 'late comers' (pupils older than 6) who have not studied Lithuanian as a foreign language in their country of origin. Admission to these classes is open during all academic year, while the total number of pupils in one group cannot exceed 15 children. In general, in transitory classes 20-25 hours per week are dedicated to Lithuanian language lessons, in the later admission case (i.e., in the months of October-November) - up to 28 hours per week. After this year of transitory classes, it is assumed that pupils can generally follow tuition in the classroom, even though their competence in Lithuanian is not yet comparable with that of native speakers<sup>29</sup>.

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<sup>29</sup> Report of Children's Rights Ombudsman Institution of the Republic of Lithuania "Regarding the Integration of Children of Foreigners and Lithuanian Repatriates in Lithuanian Schools" (No. 15-2008/KI-6), 2009.

Recently Children's Rights Ombudsman Institution of the Republic of Lithuania presented an investigation report on the integration of children of foreigners and Lithuanian repatriates in Lithuanian education system. According to this report, Lithuanian legal system guarantees equal opportunities for foreign children to obtain adequate education and ensure successful integration in society. It is claimed in the report, that from the legal point of view, necessary financial and methodological support is provided by gradually increasing so-called "pupil's basket" (i.e., education fund allocation for one pupil) and preparing special learning material for foreign children. With regards to pupil's basket, in 2009 pupil's with foreign background basket was higher by about 35% compared to that of a native student<sup>30</sup>. In addition, legal acts on foreign students' education stipulate that in order to eliminate limited Lithuanian proficiency, foreign pupils are provided with additional lessons and individual assistance in Lithuanian language learning process<sup>31</sup>.

However, according to the Children's Rights Ombudsman, much needs to be done to improve immigrant children integration in Lithuanian education system. Limited Lithuanian language proficiency has been indicated as one of the main problems hindering successful integration. Report concludes that problems arise due to limited funds regarding "pupil's basket" and a lack of special learning materials and adequately trained teachers. Furthermore, both additional Lithuanian language lessons and transitory classes have been named as insufficient preparation for the further education. That is to say, after attending one-year Lithuanian language course foreign pupils are still not adequately prepared to follow other subjects (e.g., Mathematics, Physics, Geography) in Lithuanian language alongside native pupils.

## 2.1 Schools with a minority language of instruction

According to data provided by the Ministry of Education and Science, nearly 70% of immigrant children attend ethnic minority or bilingual schools in which pre-school, primary and secondary education curriculum is being implemented in Russian, Belarussian, Polish language or in schools with several languages of instruction (e.g., Lithuanian-Russian, Lithuanian-Russian-Polish). The percentage of pupils from immigrant families studying in minority-language schools is especially high in south-eastern Lithuania and in the districts of largest cities. In Vilnius city municipality, for instance, 90.3% of all foreign pupils have chosen to study in minority-language schools. In Klaipėda city municipality and Šiauliai city

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<sup>30</sup> In 2008, the size of "pupil's basket" allocated for each foreign pupil was 3624Lt (for Lithuanian pupil - 2684Lt). At the beginning of 2009, these allocations were increased, leading to the size of foreign pupil's basket of 4130Lt and Lithuanian pupil's basket of 3624Lt. Sources: Governmental Resolution No. 24-479 (19-12-2008), publicly available on the following website: [http://www.lrv.lt/Posed\\_medz/2008/081224/28.pdf](http://www.lrv.lt/Posed_medz/2008/081224/28.pdf) [accessed 20 August 2010].

<sup>31</sup> Foreign students attending Lithuanian-language schools are provided with additional 2 hours of Lithuanian language lessons per week. Individual assistance ensured by the subject teacher and by the teacher assistant as well as non-formal education are in particular emphasized in Lithuanian legal acts on education as to eliminate any differences in language proficiency among foreign and Lithuanian pupils.

municipality these percentages are 79.22% and 85.36%, respectively<sup>32</sup>. Considering that, in this section statistical data regarding minority-language and bilingual schools in Lithuania is discussed in more detail.

*Figure G-4* provides an overview of the numbers of pre-school institutions according to the language of instruction in the period of 2005-2009. In 2009 there were 17 Russian, 8 Polish, 19 Lithuanian-Russian, 7 Lithuanian-Polish, 20 Lithuanian-Russian-Polish and 15 Russian-Polish pre-school institutions. The number of minority language pre-school institutions has changed since 2005: the number of Russian-language pre-schools slightly increased from 16 to 17, whereas the number of Polish pre-schools, as in the case with Lithuanian-language pre-schools, decreased from 11 to 8. This was due to the reform of Lithuanian educational system, according to which pre-schools with a single language of instruction were merged into mixed-language pre-schools. Thus, the number of Lithuanian-Russian-Polish and Russian-Polish pre-school institutions increased from 9 to 20 and from 9 to 15, respectively. The number of children in Russian-language pre-schools changed from 4,849 in 2005 to 4,662 in 2009. In Polish-language pre-schools, on the contrary, the number of children increased from 1,954 in 2005 to 2,306 in 2009.

|   | 2005         | 2006         | 2007         | 2008         | 2009         |
|---|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| <b>Total</b>  | <b>656</b>   | <b>652</b>   | <b>649</b>   | <b>654</b>   | <b>642</b>   |
| <i>where one language of instruction is used:</i>           |              |              |              |              |              |
| Lithuanian  | 561          | 570          | 565          | 560          | 555          |
| Russian   | 16           | 13           | 16           | 19           | 17           |
| Polish  | 11           | 9            | 10           | 10           | 8            |
| <i>where more than one language of instruction is used:</i> |              |              |              |              |              |
| Lithuanian-Russian  | 24           | 19           | 14           | 18           | 19           |
| Lithuanian-Polish   | 25           | 24           | 25           | 23           | 7            |
| Lithuanian-Russian-Polish                                   | 9            | 9            | 9            | 15           | 20           |
| Russian-Polish  | 9            | 8            | 9            | 8            | 15           |
| Lithuanian-other language                                   | 1            | 1            | 1            | 1            | 1            |
| <b>Total number of children</b>                             | <b>90021</b> | <b>90552</b> | <b>93044</b> | <b>95136</b> | <b>93660</b> |

<sup>32</sup> Klaipėda is the third largest city in Lithuania and the capital of Klaipėda County; Šiauliai is the fourth largest city in Lithuania and the capital of Šiauliai County. The source for statistical data concerning foreign children minority-language schools attendance in 2009-2010 is: Communication of the Centre of Ethnic Studies at the Lithuanian Social Research Centre with the Ministry of Education and Science of Lithuania (04.08.2010).

*of whom by language of instruction:*

|                      |       |       |       |       |       |
|----------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Lithuanian           | 83192 | 84013 | 86218 | 87931 | 86622 |
| Russian              | 4849  | 4553  | 4696  | 4812  | 4662  |
| Polish               | 1954  | 1981  | 2124  | 2362  | 2306  |
| Other                | 26    | 5     | 6     | 31    | 70    |
| <b>Percentage, %</b> |       |       |       |       |       |
| Lithuanian           | 92,4  | 92,8  | 92,7  | 92,4  | 92,5  |
| Russian              | 5,4   | 5,0   | 5,0   | 5,1   | 5,0   |
| Polish               | 2,2   | 2,2   | 2,3   | 2,5   | 2,5   |
| Other                | 0,0   | 0,0   | 0,0   | 0,0   | 0,0   |

*Fig. G-4: Pre-school institutions by language of instruction*<sup>33</sup>

Secondary schools with a minority language of instruction currently constitute approximately 7.8% of all educational institutions in Lithuania. At the beginning of the academic year 2009 there were 63 Polish, 36 Russian, and 1 Belarussian secondary school in Lithuania. There are also 58 bilingual schools, among which 22 Lithuanian-Russian, 16 Lithuanian-Polish, 11 Russian-Polish, and 7 Lithuanian-Russian-Polish schools (see *figure G-5*). The majority of pre-school institutions and secondary schools with a minority language of instruction are located in south-eastern Lithuania, where the density of these communities is high, and in the biggest cities: the capital Vilnius, the seaport Klaipėda and Visaginas<sup>34</sup>.

One of the main goals of education reform has been the reorganization of the general education school networks in terms of diminishing the number of secondary schools by transforming them into general education schools and gymnasiums. This tendency is reflected in the general decrease in the number of secondary schools in Lithuania since 2005: 1,534 in 2005-2006 in comparison to 1,364 in 2009-2010. Accordingly, the number of Russian-language secondary schools has also decreased from 47 in 2005-2006 to 36 in 2009-2010. The same pattern accounts for Polish-language schools, though the decrease in the number of Polish-language schools is very small: 65 in 2005-2006 in comparison to 63 in 2009-2010<sup>35</sup>.

<sup>33</sup> Source: Annual reports on education prepared and published by the Department of Statistics (Government of Lithuania), publicly available on the following website: [www.stat.gov.lt/en/](http://www.stat.gov.lt/en/).

<sup>34</sup> Visaginas - a city with a municipal rights in eastern Lithuania - was founded in 1975 as a town for workers in the Ignalina Nuclear Power Plant. In 2001, the population was 29, 554, of which 52% were Russians, 15% Lithuanians, 9.68% Belarussians, 8.6% Polish, 5.36% Ukrainians.

<sup>35</sup> In the study of Hogan-Brun and Ramonienė (2003), this difference in numbers of Russian and Polish secondary schools is mainly explained by the image that members of Russian ethnic minority are more likely to have their children educated in Lithuanian language and therefore

|  | 2005-2006   | 2006-2007   | 2007-2008   | 2008-2009   | 2009-2010   |
|--|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| <b>Total:</b>  | <b>1534</b> | <b>1502</b> | <b>1472</b> | <b>1415</b> | <b>1364</b> |
| <b><i>where one language of instruction is used:</i></b>           | <b>1464</b> | <b>1440</b> | <b>1414</b> | <b>1355</b> | <b>1306</b> |
| Lithuanian   | 1348        | 1330        | 1308        | 1250        | 1204        |
| Polish   | 65          | 64          | 62          | 64          | 63          |
| Russian  | 47          | 43          | 41          | 38          | 36          |
| Belarussian  | 1           | 1           | 1           | 1           | 1           |
| English  | 1           | 1           | 1           | 1           | 1           |
| French   | 2           | 1           | 1           | 1           | 1           |
| <b><i>where more than one language of instruction is used:</i></b> | <b>70</b>   | <b>62</b>   | <b>58</b>   | <b>60</b>   | <b>58</b>   |
| Lithuanian-Russian   | 27          | 23          | 21          | 22          | 22          |
| Lithuanian-Polish  | 15          | 17          | 16          | 17          | 16          |
| Russian-Polish   | 15          | 13          | 12          | 11          | 11          |
| Lithuanian-Russian-Polish  | 10          | 6           | 6           | 8           | 7           |
| Lithuanian-English   | 2           | 2           | 2           | 2           | 2           |
| Lithuanian-Russian-Belarussian                                     | 1           | 1           | 1           | -           | -           |

*Fig. G-5: Secondary education schools by language of instruction (beginning of the academic year)*<sup>36</sup>

The similar pattern prevails with regards to bilingual schools: the total number of bilingual schools gradually decreased from 70 in 2005-2006 to 58 in 2009-2010. In general, the

send their children to those schools where Lithuanian is the language of instruction. According to this study, members of Polish community, on the contrary, are more inclined to maintain their schools and Polish as the main language of instruction, and therefore are strongly against the reduction of Polish educational establishments. This position is often represented in the media (see more: [www.DELFI.lt](http://www.delfi.lt): "Survey: Polish children prefer to speak Russian to Lithuanian" [Apklausa: lenkai vaikai dažniau kalba rusiškai, o ne lietuviškai], <http://www.delfi.lt/news/daily/education/apklausa-lenkai-vaikai-dazniau-kalba-rusiskai-o-ne-lietuviskai.d?id=30829397>, accessed in 04 08 2010).

<sup>36</sup> Source: Annual reports on education prepared and published by the Department of Statistics (Government of Lithuania), publicly available on the following website: [www.stat.gov.lt/en/](http://www.stat.gov.lt/en/).

Lithuanian Ministry of Education and Science started to provide bilingual schooling in areas with high concentration of minority populations as a result of increasing numbers of ethnic minority pupils in mainstream schools. The total number of Lithuanian-Russian secondary schools decreased from 27 in 2005-2006 to 22 in 2009-2010; the number of Russian-Polish schools also dropped from 15 in 2005-2006 to 11 in 2009-2010. The number of Lithuanian-Polish secondary schools, on the contrary, slightly increased from 15 in 2005-2006 to 16 in 2009-2010.

Considering the number of pupils in secondary schools, 4% of a total of 440,504 pupils in Lithuania are taught in Russian and 3.2% in Polish. By contrast, 92.7% of pupils are taught in Lithuanian. As seen in *figure G-6*, the number of pupils in Russian and Polish schools has been decreasing gradually since 2005: the number of pupils attending Russian and Polish schools has dropped by 32.69% and 23.29 %, respectively. This may be explained by the general decreasing number of students in secondary education schools, i.e. the total number of students decreased by 18.20% in the period 2005-2010. Another reason of decreasing number of pupils in Russian and Polish schools may be due to educational preferences in bilingual families. That is, children from the families in which one of the parents is non-Lithuanian speaker, can be considered as a member of ethnic minority, but attend the school with Lithuanian language of instruction. An alternative explanation is provided in the study of Hogan-Brun and Ramonienė (2003). According to this study, in Lithuania it is particularly important to have a good command of the state language if children aim to continue the education in institutions of the higher learning where the language of instruction is Lithuanian<sup>37</sup>. Therefore many students from ethnic minority background may choose Lithuanian-language instead of minority-language schools.

Recently, an increasing amount of attention has been paid to minority schools. Lithuanian Parliament is about to enact a new law on education<sup>38</sup>, according to which, in minority schools certain subjects would be taught exclusively in Lithuanian and the number of these subjects would gradually increase. In addition, this draft law foresees that minority languages would be also taught only in primary schools and only for the first four years of schooling. According to this new law, Lithuanian language status in minority schools would be changed from second to the first language. However, according to a draft Law on National Minorities that is to be enforced in 2010<sup>39</sup>, ethnic minorities are granted the right to the education in their own language. In addition, the law will guarantee the provision of pre-schools and general education institutions in minority-language as well as the preparation of language teachers entirely for minority schools.

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<sup>37</sup> According to the Law on Education (2003) and the Law on Higher Education (2000), Lithuanian language is the only official language of instruction in higher education institutions.

<sup>38</sup> Lipinski, D. *et al.* "Access to education for all in minority language schools in Lithuania". *Motion for a resolution.* (7 July 2010). Available online: <http://assembly.coe.int/Documents/WorkingDocs/Doc10/EDOC12330.pdf> [accessed 20 August 2010].

<sup>39</sup> *The Draft Law on the National Minorities* [Tautinių mažumų įstatymo projektas] (2010). Available online: [http://www3.lrs.lt/pls/inter3/dokpaieska.showdoc\\_l?p\\_id=22150&p\\_query=&p\\_tr2](http://www3.lrs.lt/pls/inter3/dokpaieska.showdoc_l?p_id=22150&p_query=&p_tr2) [accessed 20 August 2010].

|  | 2005-2006     | 2006-2007     | 2007-2008     | 2008-2009     | 2009-2010     |
|--|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| <b>Total number of pupils</b>              | <b>538541</b> | <b>514622</b> | <b>489442</b> | <b>464638</b> | <b>440504</b> |
| <i>of whom by language of instruction:</i> |               |               |               |               |               |
| Lithuanian                                 | 493503        | 473752        | 452054        | 429335        | 408134        |
| Russian                                    | 26200         | 23230         | 20914         | 19676         | 17634         |
| Polish                                     | 18473         | 17321         | 16156         | 15064         | 14170         |
| Belarussian                                | 149           | 138           | 140           | 143           | 165           |
| French                                     | 42            | 56            | 75            | 234           | 89            |
| English                                    | 88            | 79            | 68            | 152           | 278           |
| Other                                      | 86            | 46            | 35            | 34            | 34            |
| <b>Percentage, %</b>                       |               |               |               |               |               |
| Lithuanian                                 | 91,6          | 92,1          | 92,4          | 92,4          | 92,7          |
| Russian                                    | 4,9           | 4,5           | 4,3           | 4,2           | 4,0           |
| Polish                                     | 3,4           | 3,4           | 3,3           | 3,2           | 3,2           |
| Belarussian                                | 0,0           | 0,0           | 0,0           | 0,0           | 0,0           |
| French                                     | 0,0           | 0,0           | 0,0           | 0,1           | 0,0           |
| English                                    | 0,0           | 0,0           | 0,0           | 0,0           | 0,1           |
| Other                                      | 0,0           | 0,0           | 0,0           | 0,0           | 0,0           |

*Fig. G-6: Number of pupils in secondary education schools by language of instruction (beginning of the academic year)<sup>40</sup>*

## 2.2 Teaching Lithuanian as a state language

The use of the Lithuanian language at school of general education is legalized by the Law of the State Language (1995), the Law on Education (2003) and the Law of National Minorities (1991) and is taught according to dual syllabus: the native Lithuanian and the official Lithuanian. Accordingly, there are two different Lithuanian language maturity exams in Lithuania: the test of the native language and the test of the official language. The exam of Lithuanian as a native language is taken by native speakers in Lithuanian-

<sup>40</sup> Source: Annual reports on education prepared and published by the Department of Statistics (Government of Lithuania), publicly available on the following website: [www.stat.gov.lt/en/](http://www.stat.gov.lt/en/).

language schools, whereas the exam of Lithuanian as a state language is taken in schools with a minority language of instruction.

In 2006 the Ministry of Education and Science proposed an initiative to introduce uniform content of examination of the Lithuanian language as a mother tongue and of the Lithuanian language as a non-native language. This initiative has caused a number of discussions since the question was whether the same measurements can be applied to both native and non-native users of Lithuanian. Moreover, there were doubts as to whether it is possible to prepare school students following different curricula and aiming for different educational standards for the same *Matura* examination<sup>41</sup>. According to the education experts who evaluated the strategy of teaching Lithuanian language at general education schools, two different Lithuanian maturity exams are organized in such a way that they do not ensure equal possibilities to study at the Lithuanian institutions of higher education<sup>42</sup>.

Despite the fact that the Lithuanian State language is a constituent part of the curriculum in general education schools with a minority language of instruction, a number of differences exist in the current curricula of general education and educational standards regarding the Lithuanian language education as a mother tongue and a state language. First, the purpose of the subject of Lithuanian language as a State language is to acquire a sufficient communicative competence [*išugdyti pakankamą komunikacinę kompetenciją*] without a detailed knowledge of Lithuanian literature. Second, the main accent of the curricula of Lithuanian State language is on acquiring sufficient/competent reading and writing skills, improving vocabulary, while leaving more complex textual analysis aside. Third, as presented in *figure G-7*, the amount of time dedicated for Lithuanian language teaching differs in Lithuanian-language and minority-language schools. That is, in minority-language primary schools the proportion of time intended for Lithuanian State language teaching is three times lower to that in Lithuanian-language primary schools (11% and 34%, respectively). The same pattern remains in secondary education schools, although in general course at upper-secondary education schools the amount of time devoted to Lithuanian language teaching is relatively equal (i.e. 11% in Lithuanian-language schools and 10% in minority-language schools). In addition, the possibilities to learn the official language at schools with a minority language of instruction are also much lower due to the fact that other study objects in most frequent cases are taught in languages other than Lithuanian.

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<sup>41</sup> More on this topic: Vilija Salienė and Loreta Vilkienė, "Lithuanian Language as a Mother Tongue and a State Language in Secondary Schools: Situation Analysis". *Žmogus ir žodis: didaktinė lingvistika* 8(1), Vilnius, 2006, 74-80.

<sup>42</sup> In 2006 the Ministry of Education and Science organized the first unified pilot examination of Lithuanian language for both pupils from Lithuanian and national minority schools. The results confirmed the fact that students from linguistic minority schools are not equally prepared for uniform content examination of Lithuanian language alongside native speakers. More on this topic: "Are we ready to introduce uniform content of examination of the Lithuanian language?" [*Ar same pasirenge vienam lietuvių kalbos brandos egzaminui?*] (2010), <http://www.visaginas.lt/index.php?1455808440> (accessed 20 08 2010).

| Lithuanian-language schools<br>(hours in percentage) |                 | Ethnic minority-language schools<br>(hours in percentage) |                 |
|--|-----------------|---|-----------------|
| <i>The Curriculum of Primary Education</i>           |                 |   |                 |
| 34   |                 | 11  |                 |
| <i>The Curriculum of Lower-Secondary Education</i>   |                 |   |                 |
| 18   |                 | 10  |                 |
| <i>The Curriculum of Upper-Secondary Education</i>   |                 |   |                 |
| General course                                       | Extended course | General course  | Extended course |
| 11   | 16              | 10  | 12              |

Fig. G-7: Teaching Lithuanian language in Lithuanian and ethnic minority schools<sup>43</sup>

The same situation accounts for those immigrant children who study in general education schools with the minority language of instruction. However, different conditions have to be applied for those immigrant children attending Lithuanian schools. From the legal point of view, a detailed analysis of issues related to the state language teaching to immigrant children is presented in “2008-2009 General Education Plans for Schools of General Education” [2008-2009 mokslo metų bendrieji ugdymo planai] and “Implementing the education of foreign nationals’ children in schools of general education” [Dėl užsieniečių, atvykusių dirbti arba gyventi į Lietuvos Respubliką, vaikų ugdymo bendrojo lavinimo mokyklose įgyvendinimo] (2003). These documents specify that separate groups are established for children wishing to attend Lithuanian schools but having either no or very poor command of Lithuanian. Immigrant children can learn some Lithuanian already before they start attending school, in a group which may not comprise more than 15 children<sup>44</sup>. Besides, additional pedagogical support, individual teaching programme and transitory classes are given outside the normal school timetable in order to fill language gap<sup>45</sup>.

<sup>43</sup> Source: *The Strategy of teaching Lithuanian language at general education school (2004-2009)* [Lietuvių kalbos ugdymo bendrojo lavinimo mokyklose strategija], the Ministry of Education and Science of Lithuania. Publicly available on the following website: [www.smm.lt/](http://www.smm.lt/).

<sup>44</sup> Such intensive courses for learning the official Lithuanian language are offered to pupils who are about to start attending Lithuanian primary schools without any command of the language of instruction.

<sup>45</sup> Additional Lithuanian language teaching in transitory classes and transitory (mobile) groups is defined in the Ministerial Order “*Implementing the education of foreign nationals and Lithuanian repatriates (who have arrived or return to work or get settle in Lithuania) and their children in transitory classes and transitory mobile groups*” [Dėl užsieniečių ir LR piliečių, atvykusių ar grįžusių gyventi ir dirbti LR, vaikų ir suaugusiųjų ugdymo išlyginamosiose klasėse ir išlyginamosiose mobiliosiose grupėse tvarkos], Decree-Law No. ISAK-1800, 01-09-2005. The Official Gazette [Valstybės žinios] No. 109-3991, 2005.

Specialists of the Basic and Secondary Education Department of the Ministry of Education and Science and the Education Development Centre, who are engaged in developing the policies for language teaching and preparing the general programme and standards for teaching Lithuanian as the state language, designed recommendations on teaching the state language to immigrant children. In compliance with those recommendations, the teacher of Lithuanian in the receiving school is responsible for preparing an individual programme for teaching the official language to immigrant children. The programme that should comply with the general programme and educational standards for teaching Lithuanian as the state language is worked out after taking into consideration the pupil's age and her command of the language. In addition, this individual programme has to be prepared under the recommendations not to exceed the maximum number of 28 hours per week, while the group should consist of at least 5 pupils.

## 2.3 Lithuanian language teaching materials

Immigrant children study Lithuanian from sets of learning materials developed for teaching Lithuanian to pupils of ethnic schools. After enrolment in Lithuania's schools of general education, immigrant children learn all other subjects from the same textbooks as the other children in the mainstream. The General Curriculum Framework for schools of general education (2003) contains a recommendation that pupils should be simultaneously taught by two teachers if that is necessary for the immigrant children who have no command of the official language of instruction or are intensively learning it. Regarding special Lithuanian learning material for immigrant children, the first set of three books entitled "Lithuania, the Land of Mine and Yours" [*Mano ir tavo šalis Lietuva*] was prepared and published in the course of the project carried out jointly by the Ministry of Education and the Dutch agency SARDES in 2003. The set included the textbook for teaching Lithuanian to immigrant children, another textbook for socio-cultural and civic education and the teachers' book. The textbook may be used both for long-term and short-term courses upon completion of which immigrant children are expected to be able to attend Lithuanian mainstream schools of general education and acquire the "threshold" level of language skills<sup>46</sup>.

Currently, according to the recommendations on teaching official language to immigrant children, there has been more learning materials prepared and (re)published for teaching Lithuanian as an official language. The conception, programme and methods of Lithuanian state language teaching was determined and presented in the book "Education of Migrants' Children" [*Migruojančių darbuotojų vaikų ugdymas*] (2003), few educational dictionaries were published not only for secondary school students, but also for children attending pre-primary schools (e.g., "Dictionary for the Little and the Big" [*Žodynas mažiems ir dideliems*] (2001), "Learning to speak Lithuanian" [*Mokomės kalbėti lietuviškai*] (1997), "Educational Dictionary of the Lithuanian language" [*Mokomasis lietuvių kalbos žodynas*] (2000)).

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<sup>46</sup> Country Profile: Lithuania. *Language Education Policy Profile: 2003/2004*. Source: the Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Lithuania. Vilnius, 2004.

However, according to the Children's Rights Ombudsman Institution, a lack of teaching materials, methodological literature and attractive immigrant-oriented textbooks remains as one of the main problems with regards to teaching official language to immigrant children. This was also confirmed by the majority of Municipal Education Departments, which also indicated that for those pupils with extremely poor knowledge of Lithuanian language, it is in particular difficult to learn Lithuanian from the same textbooks as for the rest pupils<sup>47</sup>. Moreover, limited choice of language teaching materials are also inapplicable to the needs of those foreign children with different levels of language proficiency. Finally, in order to facilitate language teaching process both for teachers and foreign children, sets textbooks should be supplied in sets (i.e., the learner's book, the teacher's book, the book of exercises, etc.).

## 2.4 Education in mother-tongue

The right to have schooling in minority language is firmly established in the Law on Education (2006) and the Law on National Minorities (1991). This legal framework guarantees that general education and non-formal education schools must provide teaching in the language of the ethnic minority and foster the ethnic minority's culture. As specified in the 2008-2009 General Education Plans for Schools of General Education, 'on the request from pupils whose mother tongue is other than the language of instruction, they can be given lessons devoted to the mother tongue provided a teacher of that language is available and a group of at least five pupils is formed'. In Lithuania, that measure can be easily provided in support of children of Russian and Polish origin as there is a wide network of schools with Russian and Polish as the languages of instruction. In addition, Russian and Polish language teachers are trained by universities or teacher training colleges (the principal training institution is Vilnius Pedagogical University).

Schools with linguistic minorities follow the general curricula for general education approved by the Ministry of Education and Science, which includes such subjects as mother tongue (in the same proportion as Lithuanian in main schools) and Lithuanian as a state language. Final exams for students of the minority schools are of the same structure as for the other students but are taken in the minority language to finish secondary education. The exam papers to finish secondary education are in the Lithuanian language but the students are allowed to write their answers in the language of instruction (except for the course for Lithuanian as a subject and foreign languages).

Apart from the schools of national minorities that are financed according to the same principles and criteria as Lithuanian schools, in areas where the number and density of the national minority population are not sufficient to open a school, Sunday schools can be organized by the communities concerned with a small help from the State or local

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<sup>47</sup> Report of Children's Rights Ombudsman Institution of the Republic of Lithuania "Regarding the Integration of Children of Foreigners and Lithuanian Repatriates in Lithuanian Schools" (No. 15-2008/KI-6), 2009.

authorities<sup>48</sup>. Currently there are about 40 Sunday schools attended by Armenian, Belarussian, Ukrainian, Tartar, Romanian, German, Greek, Jewish and other children wishing to study their mother tongue and get to know the culture and traditions of origin.

In addition, minority language can be also taught in the Lithuanian general education schools as a first or a second foreign language. With regards to the Russian language, it has up to now kept a strong position as a foreign language in the schools with Lithuanian language of instruction. In addition, given the fact that a second foreign language is a compulsory element in the programme at the basic school level (i.e., from the 6<sup>th</sup> to the 10<sup>th</sup> grade), the dominant pattern for the schools population is to choose English as a first and Russian as a second foreign language. Polish language, contrary to Russian, is hardly taught to non-native speakers, since pupils in the Lithuanian general education schools rarely choose it as a first or a second foreign language<sup>49</sup>. The same accounts for other minority languages (for instance, Ukrainian, Latvian or Estonian) also taking into account the shortage of textbooks and teachers for the study of these languages.

## 2.5 Teacher training

In Lithuania, the Lithuanian language teachers are supposed to have the university education and get professional training exceptionally at universities of pedagogical or humanitarian profile. In-service training of teachers is to be planned and performed by the Ministry of Education and Science, Education Development Centre, Teacher Professional Development Centre, regional teachers' education centers and pedagogical universities.

Prior to 2003, the teacher training higher education institutions in Lithuania had no special programme for a recognized course of initial or in-service training of teachers working with immigrant children. Students could follow courses on teaching Lithuanian as a foreign language at the Department of Lithuanian Studies of Vilnius University, Vilnius Pedagogical University and the Pedagogical Department of Vilnius Teacher Training College<sup>50</sup>. There was, however, no specialized course on the education of immigrant children. While carrying out the joint project of the Ministry of Education and the Dutch agency SARDES in 2003, the teaching staff from Vilnius Pedagogical University and Vilnius Teacher Training College prepared a special course for initial and in-service training of teachers working with immigrant children. The programme of that course was published in the teachers' book of the teaching set, "Lithuania, the Land of Mine and Yours" [*Mano ir tavo šalis*

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<sup>48</sup> In the case of financing Sunday schools. The pupil's basket can be used for this purpose as well, provided there is a group of at least 5 students to open a class. However, the availability of teachers and textbooks remains as the main problem in Sunday schools attended basically by smallest linguistic minorities. Source: The Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Lithuania. (2004) *Language Education Policy Profile: Country Report 2003/2004*. Vilnius, 30.

<sup>49</sup> Source: The Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Lithuania. (2004) *Language Education Policy Profile: Country Report 2003/2004*. Vilnius, 35-37.

<sup>50</sup> Source: The Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Lithuania. (2004) *Language Education Policy Profile: Country Report 2003/2004*. Vilnius, 32.

*Lietuva*]. The course is being taught at higher institutions for both initial and in-service teacher training.

The implementation of the project triggered off a constructive dialogue between the Ministry of Education and Science and representatives of various institutions working with immigrant children. Since then, a number of seminars on work with foreign children have been held to teachers and representatives of municipal education departments and public organizations. The responsibility for organizing such courses, projects and programmes belongs to the Teacher Professional Development Center (TPDC) which is directly subordinated to the Ministry of Education and Science.

Most courses and seminars organized by TPDC for Lithuanian language teachers devote particular attention to theory, practice and methodology of Lithuanian State language teaching, inter-cultural education, social and cultural integration of non-Lithuanian speaking immigrant children. In addition, since 2005 many seminars and courses have been organized for Lithuanian language teachers from minority-language schools (e.g., “Teaching State Language: Content and Methods, the Spread of Experience” [*Valstybinės kalbos mokymas: turinys ir metodai, patirties sklaida*]<sup>51</sup>). In 2007-2009, TPDC in cooperation with the Department of Lithuanian Studies of Vilnius University, the State Commission on the Lithuanian Language, Public Service Language Centre, and other public institutions organized the following projects: “Teaching the State Language” [*Valstybinės kalbos mokymas*], “Relevant Questions on Teaching and Testing the State Language” [*Valstybinės kalbos mokymo ir testavimo aktualūs klausimai*], “Teaching the State Language, Meeting Socio-cultural and Integration Needs” [*Valstybinės kalbos mokymo, sociokultūrinių ir integracinių poreikių tenkinimas*], “Language in the Multicultural Space” [*Kalba daugiakultūrinėje erdvėje*]. The main focus of these courses and seminars with regards to the education of immigrant children was on the language teaching forms and methods, the assessment and evaluation of pupil’s language skills, language teaching as a form of socio-cultural integration.

However, as it is stated in the Report of Children’s Rights Ombudsman Institution, the usefulness of teacher training for working with immigrant children is severely challenged by extremely poor Lithuanian teachers’ participation in these training courses and seminars (since in-service training is not compulsory). According to information provided by the Municipal Education Departments, in 2008-2009 only about 30% of teachers working with foreign pupils attended teacher training courses and seminars discussed above<sup>52</sup>. In

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<sup>51</sup> Projects of Professional Development 2006-2009, Teacher Professional Development Center, Vilnius. Publicly available on the following website: <http://www.pprc.lt/english.html> [accessed in 04 08 2010].

<sup>52</sup> For more detailed comparison: 25 Educational Departments indicated that Lithuanian teachers did not attend any teacher training for working with immigrant children; 8 indicated that Lithuanian teachers did not attend any teacher training for working with immigrant children and that there is no need for such teacher trainings; 4 indicated that Lithuanian teachers attended training courses or seminars about immigrant children’s education; 23 did not provide any information regarding teachers’ participation in teacher training. Source: Report of Children’s Rights Ombudsman Institution of the Republic of Lithuania “Regarding the Integration of Children of Foreigners and Lithuanian Repatriates in Lithuanian Schools” (No. 15-2008/KI-6), 2009.

addition, every forth Municipal Education Department indicated that there is no need for such teacher trainings (even though there are at least few (from 1 to 14) foreign children attending general education schools in respective municipalities).

#### Monitoring the Quality of Education

Relevant laws and legal acts (e.g., The Constitution (1992), the Law on Education (2006), and Regulations on National Education Monitoring [*Valstybinės švietimo priežiūros nuostatai*] (2004)) stipulate that education and the quality of education is under the responsibility of the Ministry of Education and Science. To a certain extent, responsibility for the provision of education and education quality assurance is shared between the central government, county governors, local governments and governing bodies of educational institutions. As Lithuania is divided into ten administrative areas or counties, a significant part of the competences belonging to the Ministry of Education and Science has been delegated to the Departments of Education which have been established within each county.

With regards to immigrant children education, it is determined by the Ministerial Order *Implementing the education of children of foreign nationals (who have arrived to work or get settled in Lithuania) in schools of general education* (2003) that the Ministry of Education and Science supervises the organization of foreign children education provided by the founders of schools and also collects information regarding foreign children already attending general education schools in Lithuania. The Ministry is also responsible for the provision of arranging and publishing Lithuanian language learning material for foreign students and co-ordinates the qualification improvement and in-service training of teachers working with foreign children. In addition, the Ministry of Education and Science is also charged with the responsibility for integrating the course on foreign children education in study programmes at teacher training universities and colleges.

At local level, the Regional Departments of Education of local governments primarily are in charge of organizing the supervision of schools and appointing an expert to supervise and co-ordinate the organization of foreign students' education in the municipal area. Local institutions are also responsible for collecting and submitting information about the state of foreign children's education in the municipality to the Ministry, organizing inspections, and creating opportunities for the in-service training and the improvement of teachers qualification. The financing of secondary schools is also arranged through the Regional Departments, whereas teachers' salaries are established at the central level.

At school level, the headmaster of the school carries responsibility for informing the founder of school<sup>53</sup> about new-comer foreign children and assigns one of the assistant headmasters to organize the education of foreign children in the school. In addition, the school's headmaster is responsible for establishing a committee to evaluate foreign student's achievements at the time of the admission and, in case it is necessary, for

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<sup>53</sup> According to the Law on Education (2003), the founder of the public educational institution can be: the Ministry of Education and Science, higher level local government and other ministries and departments upon the approval of the Ministry of Education and Science. The founder of the private educational institutions (with permission from the Ministry of Education and Science) can be registered legal persons or individual citizens of the Republic of Lithuania.

providing appropriate conditions required to eliminate the achievement gap. In general education schools extra-curricular programmes and optional/elective subjects for pupils with immigrant background are defined by the teacher and approved by the headmaster. Even though schools operate following official curricula approved by the Ministry of Education and Science, depending on foreign children's achievements and Lithuanian language skills, the school's headmaster provides foreign pupils with an individually adjusted curriculum and schedule. Additionally, the provision of an intensive language courses for foreign pupils with limited Lithuanian language proficiency also falls under the responsibility of the school's headmaster.

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# H Bulgaria



# 1 Population in due consideration about people with migration background and education

## 1.1 Introduction

Immigration to Bulgaria is a new phenomenon, whose roots date back to socialist times. Bilateral agreements signed by socialist Bulgaria opened the doors to international exchange.

Migration flows are neither unidirectional, from poorer to richer countries, nor incidental. Some of the poorest countries have a very small number of emigrants. It would be more adequate to say that migration flows follow relatively predictable models and are limited in time and scope. Many of these models are historically connected to economic, military, post-colonial or cultural specifics that drive, for instance, people from North Africa to France, Albanians to Italy or Georgians to Russia. International mobility is in most cases facilitated by the presence of already established immigrant communities and diasporas.

Moreover, human mobility becomes increasingly complicated. As the number of migrants grows, so does the number of legal and administrative categories that international organizations use to classify them. People who move across international borders, are qualified as permanent settlers or temporary residents, with legal or illegal status, skilled or unskilled workers, foreign students, persons reuniting with their families, transit travelers, asylum seekers or refugees. One immigrant can actually fall into two or more of these categories. The forms of migration, which people in different regions of the world choose, also differ significantly.

The present survey of migration in Bulgaria takes into account the factors that influence the characteristics and specifics of this phenomenon. Three are the main groups of factors, which should be considered in assessing the current migration situation in the country - political, economic and strategic.

From a political point of view, Bulgaria as a EU Member State is increasingly becoming an attractive destinations for migrants from both the EU and third countries. Immigration to the country is still limited but with a clear tendency to grow. The presence of persons from economically and socially less developed countries is growing ever more pronounced. As an external border of the EU for certain groups of migrants, Bulgaria is often a transit station on their road to Central and Eastern Europe.

As far as economic factors are concerned, a key development is the global economic crisis of the last few months, which had at least three effects on migration. First, it slowed down migration processes in the entire EU; second, it triggered a wave of reverse migration, driving many migrants to return to their countries; and third, according to many experts, it had particularly serious impact on immigrants in Europe<sup>54</sup>.

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<sup>54</sup> See EC report for the period 2004-2007.

The demographic development of the country is one of the strategic areas of the national policy. The Demographic Development Strategy of Bulgaria is the national response to the demographic changes, which confront the entire Europe and are expressed in increasingly lower birthrate, ageing population and large migration flows. A proactive migration policy aimed at attracting immigrants could prove decisive for overcoming these demographic problems.

It should be noted that statistics and information on immigrants in Bulgaria are scarce. The assessment of immigrant communities is further complicated by their different legal and social status.

In analyzing immigrants in Bulgaria, the present section also discusses refugee groups, whose residence status is quite different. For the purposes of the present analysis, immigrants are those non-Bulgarian citizens who have lived in the country for at least one year. Quite a few experts on migration make another, even subtler distinction of migration flows, referring to persons coming from Member States as migrants, and to third-country nationals as immigrants.<sup>55</sup> For the purposes of the present analysis, the term “immigrants” shall include both groups of foreign nationals.

## 1.2 Migration situation

Statistical data suggest that in 2008, 23,934 persons have been granted permanent or long-term residence permits in Bulgaria. The largest group among them - 4,853 persons - is made of citizens of Turkey, followed by 4,647 Macedonian, 2,217 Russian, 1,505 British and 974 Ukrainian citizens.

The dynamic of the migration situation in Bulgaria is illustrated by the total number of foreign nationals, who have been granted permanent or long-term residence status in the last eight years (*figure H-1*).

The trend clearly indicates that migration flows to Bulgaria began increasing after 2004 when the country joined NATO and reached its peak in the year of Bulgaria’s accession to the EU, when 26,702 foreign nationals have been granted permanent or long-term residence status.

The analysis of data publicized by government institutions allows capturing yet another specific of the migration situation in the country: there has been a steady interest among citizens of certain West European Member States to migrate to Bulgaria (*figure H-2*).

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<sup>55</sup> The term “third-country national” is commonly used by researchers in migration to describe “a person who is not a citizens of a EU Member State”.



Fig. H-1: Foreign nationals who have been granted permanent or long-term residence status in the period 01.01.2000-31.12.2008<sup>56</sup>

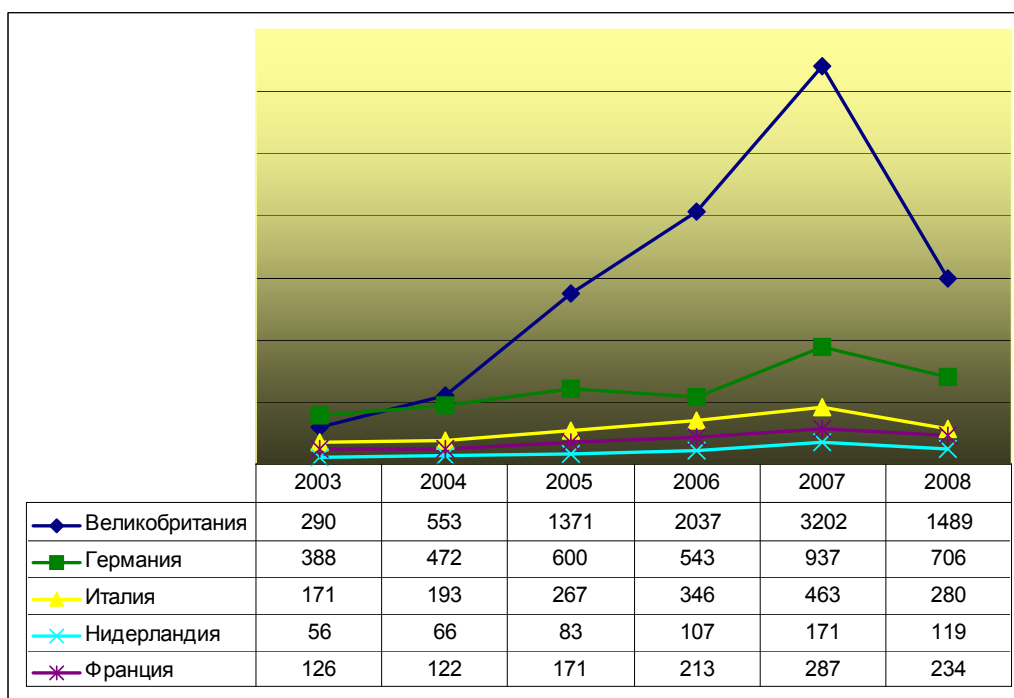


Fig. H-2: Migration flows to Bulgaria from EU Member States in the period 01.01.2003-31.12.2008<sup>57</sup>

<sup>56</sup> Source: Ministry of Interior statistics

<sup>57</sup> Countries in descending order: United Kingdom, Germany, Italy, Netherlands, France; Source: Ministry of Interior statistics

The number of British nationals, who have obtained long-term residence status, has been increasing by more than 100% each year, while the number of German nationals remained high and there has been a clearly expressed interest on behalf of persons from France and Italy to move to Bulgaria.

One of the main reasons for the decline in 2008, both with regard to the general migration flow and to the inflow of migrants from individual countries, is the slowing down of migration processes in the entire Europe as a result of the economic crisis.

Most commonly long-term residence status under the Foreign Nationals in the Republic of Bulgaria Act is granted to:

- regular university students;
- persons who carry out commercial activity in the country;
- persons who have grounds to be granted permanent residence status or have married a foreign national residing permanently in the country;
- family members of foreign nationals who have been granted long-term residence permit;
- foreign specialists residing in the country under international agreements to which the Republic of Bulgaria is a party.

Most commonly permanent residence status under the Foreign Nationals in the Republic of Bulgaria Act is granted to:

- persons who have married a Bulgarian citizen;
- persons of Bulgarian ethnic origin who have been born on the territory of Bulgaria and have lost their Bulgarian citizenship;
- minor children of Bulgarian citizens or of foreign nationals residing permanently in Bulgaria who have lived legally on the territory of the country without interruption for the last five years.

It is clear that immigrants prefer to settle in the big regional centers. The National Migration and Integration Strategy in the Republic of Bulgaria (2008-2015) gives further details on territorial distribution of immigrants: according to data from the beginning of 2007, the number of foreign nationals registered in the country was 55,684; most of them - 35%, lived in the city of Sofia, 9% lived in Plovdiv (city and district), 8% in Varna (city and district), 5% in Burgas (city and district).<sup>58</sup>

Information on the dynamic and development of immigration to Bulgaria is also available in the data collected by NSI, according to which in 2007, a total of 1,560 persons have substituted their permanent address abroad for a new permanent address in Bulgaria. Statistics register these persons as immigrants. It should be noted however that these data provide relatively accurate information only on the number of legal immigrants who have entered the country in 2007.

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<sup>58</sup> National Migration and Integration Strategy in the Republic of Bulgaria (2008-2015).

Illegal or unregulated immigration to the country is captured by other statistics. According to data of the Border Police Department in Svilengrad, the number of illegal immigrants caught in an attempt to cross the border, has increased significantly from 97 in 2006 to 767 as of December 12, 2007.

These data to some extent support the conclusion that Bulgaria is becoming increasingly attractive if not as a destination, certainly as a transit country (Georgiev 2008).

Data on submitted applications for Bulgarian citizenship at the Bulgarian Citizenship Directorate of the Ministry of Justice and the President's Office, weaken the assumption that after its accession to the EU, Bulgaria is gradually becoming a country that attracts immigrants. In 2008 a total of 7.184 applications were filed, which is 5.658 less than the previous year (*figure H-4*).

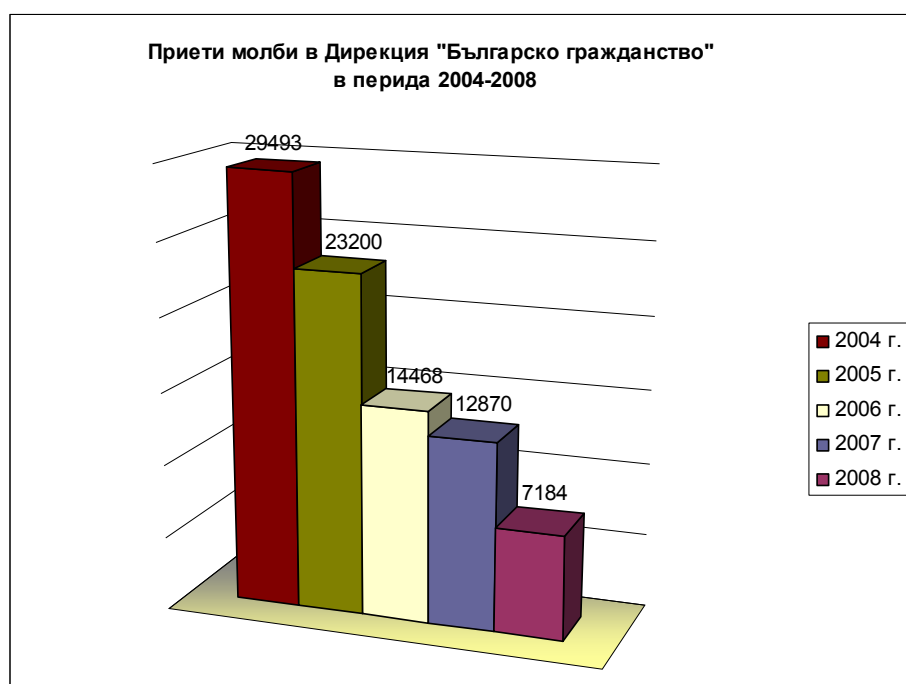


Fig. H-4: Applications submitted in the Bulgarian Citizenship Directorate for the period 2004-2008<sup>59</sup>

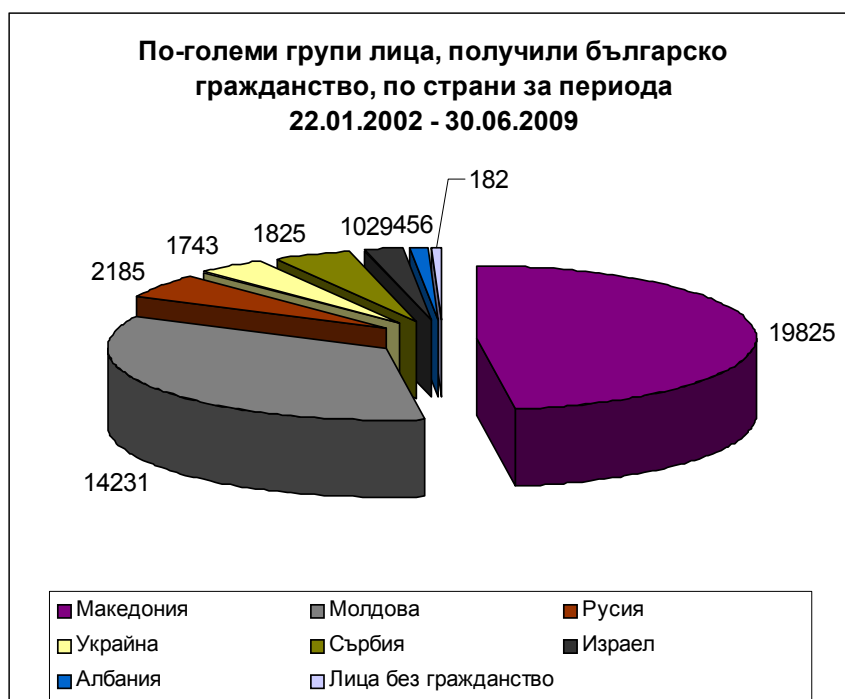
Of course, taking this information into consideration, we should not neglect the fact that quite often foreign nationals, living in Bulgaria, do not apply for citizenship, but only for long-term residence permit<sup>60</sup>. Moreover, the number of foreign nationals from EU Member States who reside on a long-term basis in Bulgaria tends to increase (Pamporov 2008).

Data from the official website of Bulgaria's Vice President on variations in Bulgarian citizenship applications for the period January 22, 2002 - June 30, 2009 suggest that persons willing to settle permanently in the country come mainly from neighboring

<sup>59</sup> Source: Ministry of Interior statistics

<sup>60</sup> Report on the Migration Situation in the Republic of Bulgaria in 2006.

countries or from countries with large groups of foreign nationals with Bulgarian origin



(figure H-5).

*Fig. H-5: Larger groups of persons who have obtained Bulgarian citizenship, by country of origin, for the period 22.01.2002-30.06.2009<sup>61</sup>*

The Council of Ministers' reports on the migration situation in the country provide information both on the number and type of work permits issued to foreign nationals, as well as to the market sectors they are employed in. In 2005, a total of 1.063 work permits were issued, which marks an increase of approximately 34% compared to 2004. The highest number of work permits were issued to citizens of Turkey - 223, followed by Germany - 134, Italy - 80, Greece - 73, and Russia - 54. Migrants are employed mainly in large-scale investment reconstruction and modernization projects or projects in the field of telecommunications and high technologies (examples include Maritsa East 3 Power Plant, Sofia Airport, Trakia Highway and some other plants).

Statistics show that in 2006, 530 citizens of EU Member States have been employed on the Bulgarian market. Out of a total of 1.475 foreign nationals possessing work permits, 770 were employed under labor contracts, while 705 were working on specific assignments. It should be noted that in 2006 no work permit applications were submitted by free-lance or self-employed persons.

Statistics on work permits issued to foreign nationals in 2007 suggest a slight decrease: a total of 1.247 work permits were issued throughout the year, which is 228 less than the previous year. Of course, it should be noted that after the entry into force of the Treaty of

<sup>61</sup> Countries in the order of the graph: Macedonia - Moldova - Russia, Ukraine - Serbia - Israel, Albania - Stateless persons; Source: [www.president.bg](http://www.president.bg)

Accession of the Republic of Bulgaria to the European Union on January 1, 2007, nationals of EU Member States can exercise their right to free movement for the purposes of employment in the Republic of Bulgaria without obtaining a work permit. That same year the highest number of work permits were issued to citizens of Turkey, Macedonia and India. Statistics for 2008 show that the greatest number of foreign nationals working on the Bulgarian market again come from these countries. The extended work permits from the previous year, however, are below 50%. According to the available data, the predominant categories of staff among foreign nationals are consultants, workers and athletes. For the last eight years only two work permits were issued to self-employed persons. Experts explain this with the fact that all foreign nationals register companies under the Act on Commerce and hence, operate as Bulgarian employers<sup>62</sup>.

With regard to refugees in Bulgaria, considered a part of the immigrant community in the present analysis, information is more structured. Since 1993 when Bulgaria signed the Geneva Convention, approximately 17,000 persons have sought asylum in the country. In the beginning the number of applications increases at a relatively quick pace, reaching its peak in 2002 when 2,888 persons sought protection from the Bulgarian state. After 2003 there has been a sharp decline and by the end of July 2009, applications were submitted by 472 persons from 43 countries (*figure H-6*).

Refugees seeking protection in Bulgaria come mainly from the Middle East, predominantly from Afghanistan, followed by Iraq (*figure H-7*).

It should be noted that only a small percentage of the applications for asylum have actually been approved. In 2008 out of 746 asylum seekers, only 27 have been granted a refugee status, while 267 have been provided humanitarian protection.

The total number of refugees or persons under humanitarian protection registered in the Employment Bureaus, is 29, out of which 18 found jobs as early as 2008, while one person is enrolled in an adult training program.

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<sup>62</sup> Statement by Liliana Stankova, State Expert at the Eurointegration-2 Division of MLSP.

| Year         | Number of protection seekers | Status granted | Refusals     | Humanitarian status granted | Humanitarian status extended | Discontinued proceedings | Revoked status <sup>63</sup> | Total number of decisions |
|--------------|------------------------------|----------------|--------------|-----------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------|------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1993         | 276                          | 0              | 0            | 0                           | 0                            | 0                        | 0                            | 0                         |
| 1994         | 561                          | 0              | 0            | 0                           | 0                            | 0                        | 0                            | 0                         |
| 1995         | 451                          | 73             | 6            | 14                          | 0                            | 28                       | 0                            | 121                       |
| 1996         | 283                          | 144            | 28           | 13                          | 0                            | 132                      | 8                            | 325                       |
| 1997         | 429                          | 145            | 28           | 2                           | 0                            | 88                       | 0                            | 263                       |
| 1998         | 834                          | 87             | 104          | 7                           | 0                            | 235                      | 3                            | 436                       |
| 1999         | 1,349                        | 180            | 198          | 380                         | 5                            | 760                      | 250                          | 1,773                     |
| 2000         | 1,755                        | 267            | 509          | 421                         | 65                           | 996                      | 17                           | 2,275                     |
| 2001         | 2,428                        | 385            | 633          | 1,185                       | 164                          | 657                      | 36                           | 3,060                     |
| 2002         | 2,888                        | 75             | 781          | 646                         | 138                          | 1,762                    | 9                            | 3,411                     |
| 2003         | 1,549                        | 19             | 1,036        | 411                         | 7                            | 528                      | 20                           | 2,021                     |
| 2004         | 1,127                        | 17             | 335          | 257                         | 2                            | 366                      | 12                           | 989                       |
| 2005         | 822                          | 8              | 386          | 78                          | 0                            | 478                      | 2                            | 952                       |
| 2006         | 639                          | 12             | 215          | 83                          | 0                            | 284                      | 0                            | 594                       |
| 2007         | 975                          | 13             | 245          | 322                         | 0                            | 191                      | 1                            | 772                       |
| 2008         | 746                          | 27             | 381          | 267                         | 0                            | 70                       | 0                            | 745                       |
| 2009         | 472                          | 24             | 222          | 148                         | 0                            | 47                       | 2                            | 443                       |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>17,584</b>                | <b>1,476</b>   | <b>5,107</b> | <b>4,234</b>                | <b>381</b>                   | <b>6,622</b>             | <b>360</b>                   | <b>18,180</b>             |

Fig. H-6: Information on the number of protection seekers and the outcome of applications for the period 01.01.1993-31.07.2009<sup>64</sup>

<sup>63</sup> under the Geneva Convention and the Hague Convention

<sup>64</sup> Source: State Agency for Refugees

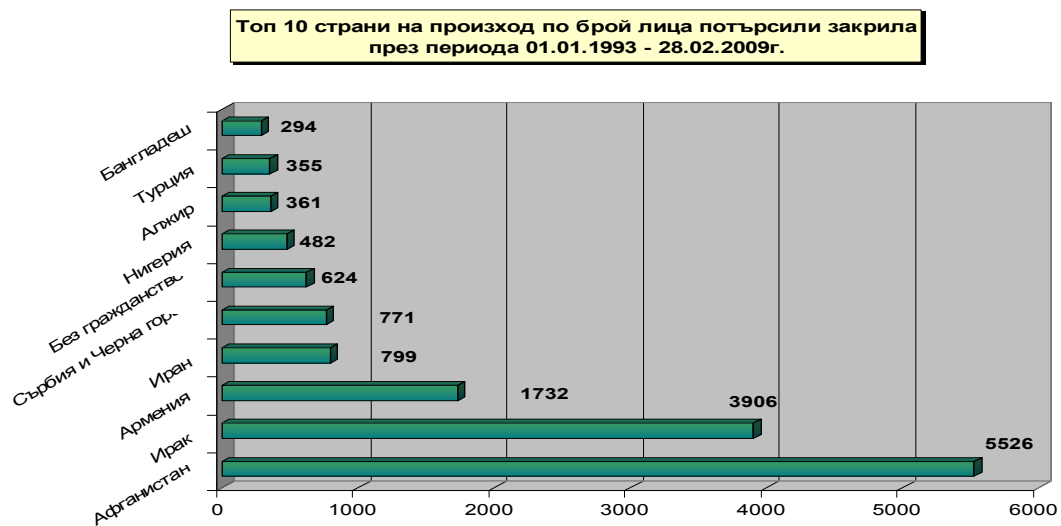


Fig. H-7: Top 10 countries of origin (number of protection seekers for the period 01.01.1993-28.02.2009)<sup>65</sup>

<sup>65</sup> Countries in descending order: Bangladesh, Turkey, Algeria, Nigeria, without citizenship, Serbia and Montenegro, Iran, Armenia, Iraq, Afghanistan; Source: State Agency for Refugees

## **2 School system**

### **2.1 Education population and language of instruction**

In 2009/10 school/academic year, the number of students in general education schools was 627 163, in vocational schools 164 839 and in schools for children with special education needs 5 034. The number of children attending kindergartens was 217 804. The official language of instruction is Bulgarian.

### **2.2 Pre-primary education**

In Bulgaria kindergartens (detska gradina) and schools are public, municipal or private, depending on the type of their funding. The early education and care is delivered at two levels.

Pre-primary care system in Bulgaria includes:

- nursery school for children aged 0-3
- kindergarten for children aged 3-6.

Pre-primary education for six-year-olds is compulsory. However, kindergarten attendance is optional and depends on parental choice. The participation rate for pre-primary education for children aged 3-6, at kindergartens was 73.9. The participation rate for pre-primary education for children aged 3-5 at kindergartens was 69.3. The participation rate for pre-primary education of children aged 6 at kindergartens was 88.0.

There is a fixed fee (reduced for low-income families) to be paid monthly. According to the regulations in place, from school year 2008-2009 onwards all children are subject to one school year compulsory pre-primary education, either at kindergartens or in preparatory groups at primary schools; there is a plan to introduce a two-year pre-primary education, so that it covers all children aged 4-6.

Kindergartens cover children aged between 3 to 6 or even 7, organized in age-based groups. Kindergarten attendance is at the discretion of parents, but the training compliant with state educational requirements for pre-primary education and preparation is funded by the state. Parents pay only a monthly fee for food, whose amount takes into account the family's income.

Pre-primary course attendance the year before the first school year is obligatory for all children. The state provides free-of-charge learning aids for the training of children in the compulsory pre-primary group. The coverage rate, regardless of the age group, is high. The percentage of children aged between 3 to 5 who attend a kindergarten is 69.3 %, and the six-year-olds covered by the compulsory pre-primary education system is 88%.

## 2.3 Compulsory education

Compulsory education refers to all children aged between 7 (or 6 at the discretion of their parents) to 16. Children complete their compulsory education at upper secondary schools.

General Educational institutions' classification:

- kindergartens;
- primary schools (pre-school year; 1st to 4th grade);
- lower secondary schools (5th to 8th grade);
- basic schools (1st to 8th grade);
- general upper secondary schools (9th to 12th grade);
- upper secondary schools of specialized studies profile (including specialized schools - foreign language, art, sport, etc, vocational)(8th or 9th to 12th grade);
- general secondary schools (1st to 12th grade).

11th and 12th grades of secondary education can be defined as post compulsory secondary education. The National Programme of School and the Pre-school Education Development and Preparation (2006-2015) provides for a legal change in the educational structure, following which pupils will complete basic education after VII grade, while the high school stage will consist of two levels: compulsory for all students from VIII to X grade included and XI and XII grade for students willing to complete their secondary education with certificates entitling them to continue their education at higher education institutions.

### 2.3.1 Phases

|  |               |                          |
|--|---------------|--------------------------|
| Начално училище/Natchalno uchilishte (primary school)                                    | 4 years;      | 1st to 4th grade         |
| Основно училище/Osnovno uchilishte (basic school)  | 8 years;      | 1st to 8th grade         |
| Гимназия/Gimnazija (Upper secondary school)  | 4 years;      | 9th to 12th grade        |
| СОУ/Sredno obshtoobrazovatelno uchilishte (General secondary school)                     | 12 years;     | 1st to 12th grade        |
| Профилирани гимназии/Profilirani gimnazii (Upper schools of specialized studies profile) | 4 or 5 years; | 8th or 9th to 12th grade |
| Професионални училища / profesionalni uchilishta (Vocational schools)                    | 4 or 6 years; | 6th to 12th grade        |
| Професионални гимназии/professionalni gimnazii (Vocational secondary schools)            | 4 or 5 years. | 8th or 9th to 12th grade |

### **2.3.2 Admissions criteria**

Students' admission to basic (primary and lower secondary) education schools depends on parental choice. Students complete their primary education with primary education certificates, which are required to move on to upper secondary education. In 7th grade all students pass national external assessment on the basis of standardised tests on all major subjects. The scores in Bulgarian language and Mathematics are considered for the students' enrolment in different schools.

### **2.3.3 Length of school day/week/year**

The school year for the 1st grade students comprises 155 days; 2 to 4 grade: 160 days; 5 to 8 grade: 170; 9 -11 grade: 180 and 12 grade: 155 days. All students have classes 5 days a week as follows:

- Compulsory classes a week: 1 and 2 grades: 22; 3 and 4 grades: 25; 5 to 8 grades: 30; 9 to 12 grades: 32
- Duration of a class: 1 and 2 grades: 35 min; 3 and 4 grades: 40 min; 5 to 12 grades: 40 min.

### **2.3.4 Class size/student grouping**

- For kindergartens 15 to 20 children in a group;
- For pre-school group - 10 to 16 children in a group;
- For schools, 1 to 3 (4) grade: 16 to 22 students in a class;
- 4 (5) to 12 grade: 18 to 26 students in a class;
- For children and students of special educational needs: 6 to 11 students in a class.

Weekly workload of teachers:

- At kindergartens 30 hours (for music/rhythm teachers - 24 hours);
- At primary schools (one teacher for all subjects) 21 hours, in some schools a separate teacher teaches a foreign language;
- At lower and upper secondary schools - subject teachers with a varying year workload between 648 and 720 hours depending on the subject.

### **2.3.5 Curriculum control and content**

Textbooks for all students in the basic stage (1st to 7th grade) are free of charge.

Compulsory subjects for primary school education: I-IV grade: Bulgarian Language and Literature (I-IV grade), Foreign Language (II-IV grade); Mathematics (I-IV grade); Homeland (I grade); Environment (II grade), Man and Society (III-IV grade); Man and Nature (III-IV

grade); Music (I-IV grade); Arts (I-IV grade); Household Skills and Technology (I-IV grade); Physical Education and Sports (I-IV grade).

Compulsory subjects for lower secondary education: V-VIII grade: Bulgarian Language and Literature (V-VIII grade), Foreign Language (V-VIII grade), Mathematics (V-VIII grade), Information Technology (V-VIII grade), History and Civilisation (V-VIII grade), Geography and Economics (V-VIII grade), Man and Nature (V-VI grade), Biology and Health Education (VII-VIII grade), Physics and Astronomy (VII-VIII grade), Chemistry and Environmental Protection (VII-VIII grade), Music (V-VIII grade), Arts (V-VIII grade), Household Work and Economy (V-VI grade), Technology (VII-VIII grade), Physical Education and Sports (V-VIII grade).

Compulsory subjects for upper-secondary education: Bulgarian Language and Literature (IX-XII grade), Foreign Language - first and second (IX-X grade), Computers (IX grade), Information Technology (IX-X grade), Psychology and Logic (IX grade), Ethics and Law (X grade), Philosophy (XI grade), World and Personality (XII grade), Biology and Health Education (IX-X grade), Physics and Astronomy (VII-VIII grade), Chemistry and Environmental Protection (IX-X grade), Music (IX grade), Arts (IX grade), Physical Education and Sports (IX-XII grade).

### **2.3.6 Assessment, progression and qualifications**

The knowledge and skills of pupils are regularly tested through oral, written, practical etc. exams and tests throughout the school year on a 6-grade qualitative and quantitative scale (poor (2), fair (3), good (4), very good (5), excellent (6)). National external assessment is carried out at the end of 4th, 5th, 6th, 7th and 12th grades of the general education cycle by means of tests. All 8th grade students of special intensive foreign language studies course complete 8th grade with a national foreign language external assessment test.

Upon completion of their secondary education students receive diplomas (either school leaving certificates, or, if they intend to continue their education at a higher education institution, diplomas, after passing secondary education matriculation examinations) required for admission to higher education.

Enrolment at vocational secondary schools after 7th grade takes place according to the students' results at external national exams and their preferences for schools. After 8th grade students are not obliged to pass exams; placement is based on performance. Admission requires a primary education certificate or may be granted upon the final results from successfully completed 7th grade.

Vocational education provides terms and conditions for students to acquire qualification degrees in three phases (starting from 6th grade for 1st qualification degree, 7th/8th grade for 3rd qualification degree, and 8th grade for 2nd qualification degree). A qualification degree can be obtained only after having passed successfully national examinations. Vocational secondary education students receive diplomas.

### **2.3.7 Post-compulsory education/upper secondary and post-secondary level**

There are institutions (kolezhi), which provide post-secondary education for secondary school graduates. Post secondary education is not compulsory and is delivered by vocational colleges. The duration is at least one year and the candidates must be 16 years old. The graduates are awarded 4th degree professional qualification and are considered prepared for the labour market.

## **2.4 Higher education**

### **2.4.1 Structure**

Higher schools can be classified according to their type as well as their form of ownership. Those are universities, specialized higher schools and independent colleges, state-owned or private.

Universities offer studies in a wide range of disciplines in at least three of the four major areas of knowledge (humanities, natural sciences, social and technical sciences) at Bachelor, Master and Doctoral degrees.

Specialised higher schools provide education mainly in one of the major areas of knowledge, which is indicated in the institution's name. These institutions may provide Master and Doctoral programmes.

The independent Colleges are vocational training orientated. They offer 3-year programmes that entitle graduates to the qualification of "Professional Bachelor in..." in the particular vocational area /ISCED'97 - 5B level/. College graduates can continue their education in a Master programme within the same area of knowledge.

The Bulgarian Academy of Sciences, the National Centre of Agrarian Sciences, the national public healthcare centres and other scientific organisations can offer studies for the acquisition of a Doctoral degree in research.

### **2.4.2 Access**

Admission criteria vary in accordance with the type of institution and its own special conditions (secondary school diploma with written examination(s), tests or competitive selection based on the school academic record). Higher Schools are autonomous, and can thus choose their preferred kind of examination. During recent years, HEIs tend to simplify their admission requirements in an attempt to attract more students. Participation in preliminary entrance examinations is allowed, double entrance examinations dates are announced, more rankings was introduced, entry tests are applied besides the traditional written examinations. The majority of the Higher Schools which have a college within their structure offer college graduates the opportunity to continue their education at Master degree level.

People of dual citizenship, including Bulgarian nationality, pay half the amount of the set fee when they apply and are admitted under a procedure, approved set by the Council of Ministers. Students and PhD students admitted under intergovernmental agreements on a reciprocal basis do not pay fees. An Academic Council decision can entitle the Higher School to admit students without an entrance competition on the grounds of the matriculation exam results.

Higher Schools provide facilitated admission conditions and procedure for people affected by social exclusion and disadvantaged groups. They include applicants who have passed the admission examinations and are disabled or of lower occupational capacity; war disabled people; orphans; mothers of three and more children.

Orphans, disabled people and persons of lower occupational capacity, war disabled people, children brought up at orphanages until they come of age, students at military schools and PhD students during their last two years of PhD studies are exempt from fees at state-owned higher education institutions. They are entitled to further exemptions regulated by the Rules of Procedure of the higher school.

The students, doctoral students and postgraduates - citizens of the EU Member States and the EEA - are granted admission to Bulgarian Higher Schools and tuition fees under equal conditions and regulations as applied to Bulgarian citizens.

### 2.4.3 Qualifications

According to the Higher Education Act, the Bulgarian higher education system provides education and training after completion of secondary education. It consists of the following degrees:

Bachelor

*'Professional bachelor in...'* degree (ISCED' 97, level 5B) - *3 years minimum* course (180 ECTS credits minimum are required, as 10 out of them are acquired for successfully passed final examination or defended diploma thesis).

Bachelor's degree (ISCED level 5A) - *4 years minimum* course (240 ECTS credits minimum are required, as 10 out of them are acquired for successfully passed state exam or defended diploma thesis).

Master (ISCED' 97, level 5A):

2-year minimum Master courses (120 ECTS credits minimum, as 15 out of them are acquired by successfully passed final examination or defended diploma thesis), after acquisition of "Professional Bachelor in..." degree.

1-year minimum Master courses (60 ECTS credits minimum, as 15 out of them are acquired by successfully passed final examination or defended diploma thesis), after acquisition of a Bachelor degree.

5-year Master courses (300 ECTS credits minimum, as 15 out of them are acquired for successfully passed final examination or defence of diploma thesis) – in some specific areas of knowledge (Medicine, Dental Medicine, Law, Architecture, Maritime, etc.).

Master courses ensure extended fundamental training combined with profiled training; complementary multi-profiled and interdisciplinary training for students - holders of Professional Bachelor in..., Bachelor or Master degree in another subject; extended theoretical training with scientific orientation and specialized training; mastering the fundamentals of scientific research, scientific-applied and/or creative (artistic) activity.

Doctoral studies are the last cycle of the national higher education qualification framework. They comply with the requirements of the framework for qualifications of the European Higher Education Area. The topics of doctoral programmes correspond to the subjects in the Classification of research subjects (State Gazette No 81 of 1995). The autonomous Higher Schools and scientific organisations define the necessary knowledge, skills and competences to be acquired by the PhD student.

Doctor degree (ISCED 97, level 6) - with duration of 3 years minimum in full-time form or 4 years minimum in part-time form, as well as self-dependent training. Both are accessible after acquisition of Master degree.

## **2.5 Special needs**

According to the Public Education act children and pupils with special education needs can be integrated in kindergartens, general and vocational schools or study at special kindergartens and schools.

### **Integrated training of children and students with special educational needs**

#### **2.5.1 Resource assistance**

The resource assistance to children and students with special educational needs is provided by resource teachers and experts - psychologists, speech therapists and hearing rehabilitators appointed at 28 resource centres to assist the integrated training and education of children and students with special educational needs at the Ministry of Education, Youth and Science. The Centers were opened in 2006 in every district centre in the country. The resource centres are state-owned service units - extracurricular pedagogical entities in the public education system, enabling the successful inclusion of children and students with special educational needs in the general education environment. Resource teachers and other resource-centre experts work at the respective kindergartens and schools where children and students with special educational needs receive integrated training. The law guarantees that a resource teacher will assist up to 5 children with special educational needs depending on their individual needs.

#### **2.5.2 Integrated training**

Data provided by resource centres show that there are 8 925 children and students with special educational needs who receive integrated training in Bulgaria. These children and

students are assisted by 1093 resource teachers, psychologists, logopaedists and hearing and speech rehabilitators.

### **2.5.3 Special schools**

The integration process is coupled with the reform in the special schools that have to meet the contemporary challenges of offering better education to children with severe and multiple disabilities, restructure their activity so that they turn into institutions suitable for the successful social inclusion of students and provide resource support for integrated training. Special schools for children with special educational needs are currently 55, educating 3 713 children.

## **2.6 Ongoing reforms and policy initiatives**

### **2.6.1 Ongoing reforms and policy initiatives related to “ET 2020” strategic framework**

Between 2005 and 2007 strategic documents were adopted, targeting major efforts at meeting the requirements of the European educational standards and the demands of modern life. The main aim is to make access to school better and easier for all and raise the quality of education. All planned measures view education as an essential factor of both personal development and of general social prosperity.

### **2.6.2 Lifelong learning strategies**

A National Lifelong Learning Strategy (2008-2013) was developed and adopted by the Council of Ministers in October 2008. It defines the conceptual framework for lifelong learning in the European and national context. The main priorities of LLL in Bulgaria can be defined as:

- access to lifelong learning and expansion of education and training opportunities;
- opportunities for acquiring and improving key competencies;
- activating social partners for inclusion in the process of LLL;
- validation and certification of the results of non-formal and informal learning;
- high quality of education and training, as well as access to information;
- good quality services in terms of information, orientation, guidance and counselling;
- support for social inclusion;
- training of trainers.

The LLL concept in the Strategy is based on two clearly distinguished groups of competencies that interact with each other and can be acquired simultaneously or separately:

- Professional competencies - related to professional knowledge, skills and aptitudes that scholars or people working in a particular professional field should possess.
- Key competencies - includes transferable (basic) skills an employee needs in any situation, such as communicative, skills for working with ICT, team work, self-training, a demand a particular methodology, time and place for training, evaluation schemes, etc.

### **3 Controlling institutions**

#### **3.1 Administrative control and extent of public-sector funded education**

The administration of education is organised at four levels: national, regional, municipal and school. The Ministry of Education, Youth and Science (MEYS) is responsible for the implementation of the national education policy, plans and organises the development of education by putting together long-term programmes and operational projects. The municipal bodies in charge of education form part of the national structure, and are entrusted with the implementation of municipal education policy. They are responsible inter alia for the compulsory education of pupils up to the age of 16, pre-school education and are granted substantial financial autonomy. The autonomy of schools has been considerably expanded in the recent years. The pedagogical council, the management board and the school masters are the administrative bodies, expected to meet the necessary requirements in the areas of teaching, organisation and methodology. The supervision of the educational process, as well as the outcoming result, are handled by the respective educational authorities at central and regional level, namely the MEYS and the regional inspectorates.

Public kindergartens and schools, which are directly supervised and administered by the public authorities, are funded by the state budget. Although private kindergartens and schools are not dependent financially on the state budget, they are subject to the same national regulations as the public ones, i.e. the state education requirements.

Students in the Bulgarian school system study together regardless of ethnic, religious or gender differences. There are State Educational Requirements (Standards) that determine the minimum level of knowledge and skills acquired by students by grade and subject.

Compulsory education is carried out through a fixed minimum number of hours in every grade. More hours may be added for core curriculum optional studies depending on the type of school and students' choices. With every grade the hours for core curriculum optional studies grow in number from 64 to 806 per year. Besides, there are free optional hours in which students may engage either in core curriculum studies or in extra-curriculum activities, if approved by the corresponding financing authority.

Textbooks and supplementary materials are chosen by teachers themselves (basically from a list of course books and supplementary materials approved by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Science).

Higher education is provided by higher education institutions that are granted full academic and substantial financial autonomy. They are independent in terms of governance and management of the allocated public funds and of their additional revenues.

## **3.2 Other important ongoing reforms and policy initiatives at national level**

### **3.2.1 General Education**

#### **3.2.1.1 New structure of the secondary education stage**

According to plans, the new structure of the secondary education stage will consist of two stages: First upper secondary (3 years; 8th to 10th grade) ending with a graduation/certificate for first upper secondary education, after which students may continue their education or leave the education system, and Second upper secondary (2 years; 11th and 12th grades) which ends either with a second upper secondary certificate or, if students decide to sit for school-leaving matriculation exams (2 compulsory, and possibly depending on the student's willingness, from 1 to 8 optional, including 6 in foreign languages), with a diploma and then continue their education at a higher educational institution).

### **3.2.2 Higher Education**

#### **3.2.2.1 Providing beneficial conditions for loan support to students**

A joint team of Ministry of Education, Youth and Science and Ministry of Finance studied the models for loan support to students, including the opportunities to make use of the resources from the European Social Fund. On the basis of the collected information, the work on development of a project for student financial loan support was initiated in early 2008.

#### **3.2.2.2 Incentives for the relationship between the educational institutions and the business companies**

A project for Overcoming Discrepancies between the Education System and the Needs of the Public Sector is underway, launched in 2007. The project is aimed at building up a mechanism for dialogue between the representatives of the academic community and the public administration institutions. Elaboration and implementation of a survey of the results of the academic syllabuses is envisaged. They need to be equipped with specific competences and skills in order to perform successfully and to ensure their career advancement in public administration.

#### **3.2.2.3 Establishment of career centres in Bulgarian universities**

Since 2006, a total 34 career centres have been created. The career centres are designated to play a major role in organising practical training for students and in their professional orientation. Furthermore, career centres aim to assist the higher education institutions in terms of quality assurance and attract the interest of prospective employers.

## **4 Language promotion/Language support**

### **4.1 Improving the quality and efficiency of education and training**

Improving quality of education is the primary strategic goal in the working programme of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Science for the period 2009-2013. The main principle in this direction is ensuring adequate indicators for measuring quality of education services at different levels. The programme envisages achieving European quality of education through various financial mechanisms supporting the improvement of the facilities and the qualification of the teachers.

### **4.2 Language learning**

Quality of language learning is an important component in the Ministry's strategy for preparing the future generation for active citizens in the European knowledge-based economy. The main measure for ensuring the quality of education services provided in this area is allocating funds for the qualification of teachers in foreign languages. The envisaged funding pathways are in two main directions:

- (1) National funding programme "Qualification" 2010 - Module "Qualification of Teachers". This programme offers opportunity for 100 teachers in foreign languages to improve their competences. The programme is administered by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Science;
- (2) COMENIUS: In-Service Training for Teachers and other Educational Staff (IST). This programme offers opportunities for foreign language teachers to participate in qualification courses abroad and improve their pedagogical skills. The programme is administered at the national level by the Human Resource Development Centre, National Agency for LLP.

### **4.3 Bulgarian as a second language for foreign children**

In 2008, when Bulgaria joined the European Union, Bulgarian became one of the official languages in Europe, enriching the EU cultural wealth with the Cyrillic alphabet. Afterwards, the Bulgarian language has undergone certain development and considerable changes, also promoted by the globalization of the world economy, the amplified mobility of the workforce, the increase of foreign investments in Bulgaria and the stable development of the Bulgarian market economy. Another important economic aspect and future trend of the Bulgarian economy and sustainable development that does affect the course of the national language is the increase of its touristic income: its various touristic attractions lure an increasing number of visitors, who nowadays spend their holidays at the

Bulgarian seaside and mountain resorts, traveling to the landmarks of ancient history and natural beauty.

These politic-socio-economic changes lead to a number of European and international citizens to visit Bulgaria, to choose to come live and work in Bulgaria and get involved in business relations with Bulgarian partners and specialists. Thus, the necessity has occurred for resource development both in terms of translation of documents and developing human resources capable of communicating fluently in Bulgarian.

The training of people in learning Bulgarian is equally important for another reason: the language is spoken by a nation comprising less than 8 million people. With the worrying statistics of constantly dropping population, Bulgarian has become one of the European languages threatened by extinction by the end of this century. Especially with the rapid infiltration of newly adopted phrases and language trends borrowed from more popular languages, reinforced by the invasion of English as a foreign language in so many spheres of modern life, the competent native speakers of Bulgarian will be fewer and fewer in the near future. Thus, special efforts will be needed to keep it alive and bespoken.

The target group of Bulgarian language instruction as a second language is the children of foreigners who have come to stay in the country for a longer period of time or settle. In order to communicate at school and integrate in the community, they need to master the language. At the very beginning they acquire basic knowledge of the contemporary Bulgarian grammar and also of the vocabulary, used in the everyday oral and written communication. They deal with short texts, dialogues, vocabulary, grammar drills and exercises for reading, writing, listening and comprehension.

#### **4.3.1 Listening and Speaking:**

Confirming and enriching the spoken Bulgarian language in different situations. Special attention is paid to the stylistic use of the language, in order to achieve better orientation in varied lexical situations and an adequate use of the marked lexis. The focus is placed on the contemporary conversational Bulgarian. This basic section is fulfilled by many dialogues at subjects, proposed by the teachers. In the structure of the lessons we follow the principles of the Communicative Language approach.

#### **4.3.2 Reading:**

Expanding the knowledge of Bulgarian grammar, which provides an opportunity for the students to use freely and effectively the vocabulary mastered. Familiarizing with the specifics of the Bulgarian language grammatical characteristics and paying special attention to the exceptions of the grammatical rules that function in the language.

#### **4.3.3 Writing:**

Introducing various games in order to enable the children to have a friendly encounter with the Cyrillic alphabet.

#### **4.3.4 Culture:**

Introduction to the Bulgarian culture. Special attention is paid to this component because it combines the linguistic use for the students with the ability to experience the spirit of the nation of their peers. Presenting examples of Bulgarian art in all genres is considered enriching for the culture and expanding the horizons of the students. Those cultural examples exemplify various aspect of the Bulgarian society. For that purpose miscellaneous and accessible resources at the Internet are used - virtual libraries, galleries, museums, sites dedicated to the folklore art, modern music, movies etc.

#### **4.4 Teacher training for Bulgarian as a second language for foreign children**

The mission of teachers teaching Bulgarian to foreign children is to introduce them to the basics of the language, to encourage them and help them integrate in the school environment. Every foreign child in the country should learn from teachers who support their students and help them unleash their full potential.

- In order to receive a quality education, children must be taught by the most talented and motivated people who can lead their students to success. So, teachers are trained how to motivate their students to achieve high goals and achieve their full potential.
- The teachers go through intensive training in order to receive teaching qualifications following a special training program.
- They go through a comprehensive professional development program that ensures their success as teachers and leaders in teaching Bulgarian to foreign children.

In order to accomplish the above mentioned goals, some characteristics of teaching Bulgarian language will be explained; the problems of education in Bulgarian language will be outlined, some ideas on how to optimally organize the training of Bulgarian teachers in a modern environment so that foreign children fully utilize the Bulgarian language will be systematized.

Bulgarian school focuses on rational knowledge, without taking into account that the most important emotional aspects of life is equivalent to the cognitive. This intellectualization of Bulgarian education leads to development of abstract logical thinking, but severely limits the formation of the child's individuality. The potential of affective (emotional) area to arouse interest and active participation of foreign students in the learning process is beyond the focus of attention. Emotional intelligence is often not displayed, sometimes not recognized, and not developed, and this leads to problems in adaptation and implementation of foreign youth.

The process of active learning determines the change in the professional role of the teacher. Traditionally, the teacher is an expert in a particular subject and has the skills to present information, making demos and evaluate students' knowledge. In the system of active learning the role of the teacher is the role of the facilitator. The new process

requires the teacher to develop skills and abilities for planning, conceptualizing and managing the learning process of consultation in order to build a comfortable and safe learning environment.

In the context of the linguistic profile it is important to make adjustments to the concepts of native language, mother tongue and foreign languages. Mother tongue is the language of their homeland. Mother tongue for children from mixed marriages is the language of both parents. For children of various minorities their mother tongue is the ethnic language - Turkish, Roma, Jewish, Russian, Armenia, etc. For the children of foreigners residing in Bulgaria the mother tongue is the language their parents speak. Foreign language is compulsory in every school. Methods of teaching native language, mother tongue and foreign language have their specifics that have things in common. Thus, Bulgarian language training for foreign children is and should be thought of as learning a foreign language.

The role of the teacher in Bulgarian language as a facilitator in the process leading to self-organization of students is crucial, because learning is defined as “give meaning” to something and interpreted as a process in which to create a thorough knowledge and understanding. According to the theory of social interaction in social constructivism, learning occurs and is implemented upon the entry of individuals interacting with specific socio-cultural context of the situation. Decisive in this process is the role of others - parents, teachers, peers who support learning. The teacher selects and creates learning situations that help construct knowledge, to enable the student to move to so-called “Zone of proximal” (L. Vygotsky). Thus an empowered personality is formed, creating a learning environment, provides sufficient time and striving for responsibility and self-realization of individuals in the organization.

The new quality of education we are striving requires another organization of the lesson, other interactive techniques, teamwork, group work, pair work, overcoming reproductive education. Through dialogue and partnership with the student the teacher in the Bulgarian language must be able to place students in the center of the educational process. All these problems must be subject of discussion in the teachers’ groups, suggested and deployed by the school management and teachers in Bulgarian language. Discussions can start from the typology of errors in the Bulgarian speech of foreign students in the school.

The teachers are prepared to successfully manage the challenges they will face in the classroom. They learn how to plan lessons, how to motivate students inside and outside the classroom, how to involve parents in supporting their students’ engagement with learning, and how to work with other teachers and school administrators to ensure the success of their students.

The purpose of the training is to develop the knowledge and skills the teachers need to be successful:

- *Analytical thinking* - The teachers will develop their ability to analyze and synthesize information, manage challenging situations, seek solutions, and clearly communicate their decisions;
- *Effective communication* - The teachers will develop strong presentation skills;
- *Management and teamwork* - The teachers will learn how to solve conflicts, how to motivate people, and how to effectively manage time, people, and resources;

- *Teaching skills* - The teachers will learn how to build a vision for success, to plan their work with students throughout the year, and to build a strong classroom culture;
- Problem solving, organization, record keeping, and resolving conflicts.

The training program is based on the following principles:

- *Setting ambitious goals* - Students achieve dramatic progress when the teacher sets clear and ambitious goals from the start.
- *Investing students and their parents* - The most successful teachers invest students and their parents in the goal. The teacher sets high expectations, creates a welcoming environment, and encourages and empowers the students.
- *Plan purposefully* - The teacher has a strong vision for the desired results, knows how to measure success, and plans concrete steps to achieve the goal.
- *Execute effectively* - It is not enough for a teacher to simply follow exactly the plan she has created. Successful teachers seek the best methods and approaches that will lead to their students' success.
- *Continuously increase effectiveness* - The successful teacher seeks to discover the cause of successes and failures and tries to make the appropriate changes to improve her/his approach.
- *Work hard* - The successful teacher sees himself/herself as a leader of change and is fully responsible for the results of his students. The teacher is persistent and uses creative approaches to solve problems. He/she invests the necessary time and resources to succeed.
- *Learn from colleagues* - The teachers will constantly learn from their colleagues. They seek for feedback and adapt so that they can achieve their goals.

The goal is to achieve significant academic results with their students by using interactive teaching methods and differentiating their instruction to meet all students' needs. The teachers leverage their strengths and efforts to close the gaps in students' knowledge and to motivate their students to learn and succeed in a new environment, in a new country.

The teachers lead extracurricular activities and projects, and build relationships with parents. They regularly analyze the results of their work, receive feedback, and improve their knowledge. They need to have access to an online portal with materials that will help them to be more effective inside the classroom.

## **5 Education and further education for teachers**

### **5.1 Professional development of teachers and trainers**

In the field of teachers' qualification, in the period 2005-2007 an analysis of the teachers' working environment was made. 1 000 instructors in basic computer skills were trained. 95 000 teachers acquired basic computer skills out of 108 569 in total, and the training of the rest proceeds. Over 2 000 IT teachers for 5th grade were trained.

In 2009, the National Qualification Programme covered:

- at national level - 7 705 teachers;
- at regional level - 14 950 teachers;
- at municipal level - 7 582 teachers;
- at school level - 31 925 teachers.

A supporting qualification course for licensed foreign language teachers for grades I to XII was organized as follows: German - 83, English - 40, French - 100, Russian - 250 and Spanish - 102. The National Institute for Training of Head Teachers - which recently took over considerable functions in teacher qualification - has been operational for four years now. In its work with head teachers, the institute offers courses and seminars specialized for kindergarten head teachers, newly appointed head teachers, school principals, resource centre directors, head teacher applicants.

## **6 Cooperation between schools and other institutions, organisations and projects**

### **6.1 Governance and funding**

All HEIs have their own internal assessment systems for evaluation of education quality and of the academic team; mechanisms for improvement, periodic review and monitoring of the proposed training syllabi.

The amendments to the Higher Education Act, adopted by the Parliament in 2007, improved the accreditation procedure. The availability of academic premises and academic team was emphasized as the core condition for accreditation.

### **6.2 Basic skills in reading, mathematics and science**

The acquisition of basic skills is a process that should be additionally supported by the government in two directions:

- (1) Support for talented young learners;
- (2) Support for young learners that fall behind the mainstream.

The instrument for achieving this support is the National Programme “With Care for Each Pupil” 2010.

#### **6.2.1 ‘New Skills for New Jobs’**

The ‘New Skills for New Jobs’ topic falls within the priority action of two Ministries - Ministry of Labour and Social Policy and Ministry of Education, Youth and Science. The common understanding is that matching the needs of the labour market with available skills and the dynamic necessity for continuous upgrading of the skills requires concerted efforts stepping on the funding potential of the Structural Funds, namely the Human Resources Development Operative Programme. The founding policy document is the National Lifelong Learning Strategy, adopted in 2008.

## **6.3 Promoting equity, social cohesion and active citizenship**

### **6.3.1 Education system drop-out rate**

The issue of school drop-out is central in the reform agenda of the new government. A legislative reform was undertaken, resulting in update of the Public Education Act. The new provisions envisage that compulsory pre-school preparation should start at the age of 5 as a drop-out prevention measure. This will create conditions for ensuring equal access to education for all children.

### **6.3.2 Migrants**

The Ministry's efforts are focused on ensuring equal access to education services for all persons, regardless of their ethnic, cultural or socio-economic background. The main emphasis is on integrating pupils from the ethnic minorities. The measures envisaged are in the direction of ensuring adequate learning environment which will guarantee the active participation of these pupils in the education process.

### **6.3.3 Learners with special needs**

The Ministry's efforts are focused on the step-by-step introduction of the concept of integrated learning. The equal access to education for all children regardless of their health status is seen as the only possible pathway for developing their potentials and a culture of tolerance in the Bulgarian society.

## **6.4 Enhancing creativity and innovation, including entrepreneurship, at all levels of education and training**

### **6.4.1 Transversal key competences**

The education system is opening to the concept of transversal key competences. The Ministry's efforts are focused on implementing this concept through support for increased qualification of the teachers. The National Programme "Qualification" 2010 provides the opportunity for participation in trainings for improvement of teacher entrepreneurial skills and consequently bringing these skills into the classroom. Moreover, the key competences topic is a guiding principle in the National Lifelong Learning Strategy. It is expected that this concept will be integrated in the future School Education Law.

#### **6.4.2 Innovation-friendly institutions**

The developments in this domain are mainly a result of participation in various national and European projects. Education institutions develop their pedagogical expertise in using ICT.

#### **6.4.3 Partnership**

The developments in this domain are mainly the result of participation in various national projects, which require establishment of public-private partnerships. Other examples are European projects within sectoral programmes such as Leonardo da Vinci, which presuppose partnerships among all stakeholders in vocational education such as business organisations, VET schools and universities.

## **7 Institutions of education**

### **7.1 European Qualifications Framework**

Bulgaria is currently developing a comprehensive, learning outcomes based national qualifications framework (NQF) covering all levels of the education and training system and their corresponding qualifications/degrees. The new Bulgarian government acting since July 2009 sees the NQF as a precondition for implementing the EQF and as such an important national priority.

The development of an NQF is given high priority in the Programme of the MEYS (2009-2013). In April 2008, a task force was set up by an Order of the Minister of Education to develop proposals on how to relate the national qualification degrees to the EQF, to prepare a plan for sectoral qualifications development, and to submit a proposal for changes in the national legislation.

A separate task force prepared a draft qualifications framework for HE, based on the Dublin descriptors. It also aligned the national descriptors of the existing higher education structure (BA, MA and Doctorate) introduced by the Higher Education Act (1995) with the cycles and descriptors introduced in the context of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA). A draft set of national HE-descriptors has been elaborated as well.

A draft set of descriptors for VET levels of the NQF were designed in January 2010. They are based on learning outcomes and are constructed by degrees of vocational qualification. The work on linking the VET levels with the general education stages is ongoing.

### **7.2 Expanding learning mobility**

A Scholarship Fund of the EEA was launched in 2009 under the Financial Mechanism of the EEA. It is targeted at students in higher education, academics, researchers and administrative personnel of higher schools.

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# I Conclusion and Outlook

Human mobility is becoming more and more necessary and important. Not only due to this fact, one of the aims of European language policy is to implement the programme “Mother tongue plus two other languages”.

Though this report shows that the migration situations in the presented countries and regions differ, all of them deal with similar problems and desiderata in the field of second language teaching. Even though the forms and reasons of migration chosen by people who are coming to the European Union or those who are migrating within the European Union, differ significantly, there is one crucial consequence in the schools: they are becoming multilingual and teachers have to deal with this fact.

The action plan on languages of the European Union pursues the following main objectives:

- Europeans must be encouraged to learn at least two languages in addition to their mother tongue.
- Language learning is a lifelong activity. It begins at a very early age, continues in education and training systems and is prolonged through adult education.
- The range of languages taught must include regional and minority languages as a means of promoting diversity.
- Schools must attach more importance to language courses, and the training and recruitment of language teachers must be given particular attention.
- Innovation needs to be encouraged, in terms of both methodology – such as the teaching of other school subjects in a foreign language (CLIL) – and technology, particularly the use of the Internet and multimedia.
- The assessment of language skills must be based on reliable criteria shared by all the European countries.
- There is a need to create an environment conducive to learning, by boosting the number of learning venues, making better use of resources (such as greater use of multilingual persons’ skills), and promoting the wide use of subtitles on television and in the cinema.

(cf. European Commission:

[http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/doc/official/keydoc/actlang/act\\_lang\\_de.pdf](http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/doc/official/keydoc/actlang/act_lang_de.pdf))

But where can we find the large number of migrant languages in European language policy? Why don’t we use the resources of autochthonous European *and* the migrant languages to become multilingual?

A closer look at European language policy shows that it allows to protect the autochthonous languages. But not even for them it aims at multilingualism on a social level. It does not aim to transform the plurilingual coexistence of diverse languages into a multilingual communication and to exploit the language potential of European societies.

In general it is necessary to abolish ideological barriers towards immigrant languages. This works for instance by intercultural teaching.

According to Bender-Szymanski (2002, 159) an interculturally competent teacher is characterized by

- An effort to overcome experienced barriers,
- Reflection of their own norms and rules,
- Respect for different cultural orientations and an integration of these into their cognitive and action repertoire,
- Appraisal of experienced acculturation as enrichment,
- Achievement of a “careful balancing of interests”.

For Auernheimer, one question remains unanswered, namely the question “about the relative importance of the personal qualifications of professionals over the institutional structures and the overall principles of the institution, not to mention the political framework and the political climate. [...] To only focus on the staff’s personal qualifications would quickly lead to absurdity, and vice versa to neglect them in the process of organizational development would be costly.” (Auernheimer 2002, 200).

In school, the majority language is the language that leads to academic success, and without competences in the majority language access to a career would not be possible, but language learning, like any kind of mediation, has to put into effect the potentials of the learners and take into account their existing language skills, language of thought, and language awareness, which is affected by the first language, and finally their access to the majority language (cf. Hoffmann 2011). The multilingualism of students in the classroom has a lot of potential for greater use as a natural resource. Teaching must begin with the requirements of learners and therefore take into account the high proportion of multilingual students.

A lot of models of bilingual education on various school levels have been elaborated. This work is absolutely necessary and should be expanded towards multilingual, stable models.

Multilingualism will become a capital not only of the individual but of the entire society if it is no longer regarded as a deficit-inducing phenomenon of migration. Especially schools have to play a leading role in the transformation of the plurilingual potential of a society into the reality of a multilingual society.

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