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# **Towards a European Index of Multilingual Policies and Practices: Background, Aims and Design**

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# Towards a European Index of Multilingual Policies and Practices: Background, Aims and Design

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## Abstract

*After an Introduction to the project (1), the European Union and the Council of Europe are addressed in Section 2 as major actors in promoting multilingualism and plurilingualism at the European level of language policies and practices. The concepts of trilingualism and the trilingual formula are dealt with in Section 3. Against this background, the spectrum of language varieties (4), the spectrum of language domains (5), primary data collection and the tri-municipal formula (6), the design of the Questionnaire and the rating of its outcomes (7) in the proposed Index are discussed. Section 8 offers concluding remarks.*

The proposed *European Index of Multilingual Policies and Practices* is part of the *Language Rich Europe* project, co-financed by the European Commission under its *Lifelong Learning Programme*, and initiated by the British Council, the UK's international organization for educational opportunities and cultural relations. The project is coordinated by the British Council offices in Berlin and Brussels, and supervised by an international Steering Group. *Babylon, Centre for Studies of the Multicultural Society* at Tilburg University had the lead on the development of the concept and Questionnaire for the Index and on data processing, data analysis and writing up the cross-national outcomes of data collection in 2011/2012. The participating European countries and autonomous regions, federal states or cantons in this first round of the project are presented below. The final

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<sup>1</sup> [www.tilburguniversity.edu/babylon](http://www.tilburguniversity.edu/babylon)

cross-national book publication on the project will be made available in the national languages of most participating countries, in 4 regional/minority languages, and in Arabic and Turkish as major languages of immigration across European nation-states.

This text offers a *status quo* description of the LRE project in its initial stage in 2011. A final description is offered in Extra, G. and Yağmur, K. (Eds.), *Language Rich Europe. Trends in Policies and Practices for Multilingualism in Europe*. Cambridge University Press (2012).

*Table 1.* Overview of participating countries and autonomous regions or federal states (NA = not applicable)

Nr	Participating countries	Participating autonomous regions or federal states
1	Austria	NA
2	Bosnia and Herzegovina	NA
3	Bulgaria	NA
4	Denmark	NA
5	Estonia	NA
6	France	NA
7	Germany	3–4 Bundesländer
8	Greece	NA
9	Hungary	NA
10	Italy	NA
11	Lithuania	NA
12	Netherlands	Friesland
13	Poland	NA
14	Portugal	NA
15	Romania	NA
16	Spain	Catalonia, Basque Country
17	Switzerland	1 Italian, 1 French and 1 German canton
18	Ukraine	NA
19	United Kingdom	England, Wales, Scotland, Northern Ireland

It should be made clear from the beginning that the proposed Index is meant as a descriptive tool for awareness-raising at both the public and the political macro-level and for motivating key stakeholders across a variety of sectors, languages and countries to take action: no more and no less. The Index is not meant as an instrument for carrying out in-depth analyses of multilingual policies or practices at the micro-level. The outcomes of the Index, however, may trigger highly relevant follow-up case studies which will deliver complementary perspectives and data, derived from the Index's macro-level perspectives.

It should also be made clear from the beginning that the proposed Index is *not* meant as a normative or prescriptive tool. It is *not* our ambition to rank “best”, “less good” or “worst” language policies and practices in a hierarchical league table, but to present *descriptive indexes* per strand and per country or region which reflect the degree of adherence to European benchmarks in terms of European guidelines or recommendations.

### European actors in promoting multilingualism and plurilingualism

Language diversity is considered to be a key property of Europe's identity, and promoting language learning and multilingualism belongs to the main activities of European institutions in the domain of language policies and practices. The two major European agencies concerned with promoting multilingualism of society and plurilingualism of people, respectively, are the European Union (henceforward EU) and the Council of Europe,

with seats in Brussels/Belgium and Strasbourg/France, respectively. The major language policy agencies within these two institutions are the *Unit for Multilingualism Policy* within the Directorate-General of Education and Culture in Brussels and the *Language Policy Unit* in Strasbourg, complemented by the programmes of the European Centre for Modern Languages in Graz/Austria. Baetens Beardsmore (2008) gives an insightful overview of both EU and Council of Europe language promotion initiatives in the past.

Within the European Union, language policy is the responsibility of individual Member States. EU institutions play a supporting role in this field, based on the “principle of subsidiarity”. Their role is to promote cooperation between the Member States and to promote the European dimension in national language policies. The EU encourages all its citizens to be plurilingual; more specifically, it encourages them to be able to speak two languages in addition to their “mother tongue”. Although the EU has limited influence in this area as the content of educational provision is the responsibility of individual Member States, a number of EU funding programmes actively promote language learning and language diversity. The major domains where the EU has dealt with language issues are the following: the status of EU languages as official and working languages, the use of EU languages by and within EU institutions, translation services and terminology harmonization, language learning and teaching, and the protection or promotion of language diversity. In each of these domains, EU institutions have shown a strong commitment to plurilingualism of people.

Within the three constituent bodies of the European Union (EU), i.e., the European Commission (EC), the Council of the EU, and the European Parliament, multilingualism has been a key area of concern for many years. In its Communication (2008), *Multilingualism: an asset for Europe and a shared commitment*, to the European Parliament and the Council of the EU, the European Commission (2008: 15) refers to a range of considerations for “mainstreaming” multilingualism in relevant EU policies and for promoting more opportunities to learn more languages. The Member States are invited to offer a wider range of languages more effectively within the education system from an early age up to adult education and to value and further develop language skills acquired outside the formal education system. Moreover, the EC is determined to make strategic use of relevant EU programmes and initiatives to bring multilingualism “closer to the citizen”. The Commission Staff Working Document (2008), accompanying the above-mentioned EC Communication, presents a good overview of existing EU activities supporting multilingualism.

The EC Communication (2008: 4) aims to achieve a qualitative shift by presenting a policy that goes beyond education to address multilingualism in a wider context:

*“Today’s European societies are facing rapid change due to globalisation, technological advances and ageing populations. The greater mobility of Europeans – currently 10 million Europeans work in other Member States – is an important sign of this change. Increasingly, people interact with their counterparts from other countries while growing numbers live and work outside their home country. This process is further reinforced by the recent enlargements of the EU. The EU now has 500 million citizens, 27 Member States, 3 alphabets and 23 EU official languages, some of them with a worldwide coverage. Some 60 other languages are also part of the EU heritage and are spoken in specific regions or by specific groups. In addition, immigrants have brought a wide range of languages with them: it is estimated that at least 175 nationalities are now present within the EU’s borders.”*

The EC Communication (2008) has been welcomed and supported by resolutions from both the Council of the EU (2008) and the European Parliament (2009). Against this background,

the proposed Index is meant as a *tool for awareness-raising* across Europe on policies and practices for promoting multilingualism in all sectors of education and in a range of domains outside and beyond formal education.

### **Promoting multilingualism and the trilingual formula**

Promoting multilingualism in terms of trilingualism has not only been advocated by the EC. UNESCO adopted the term “multilingual education” in 1999 (General Conference Resolution 12) for reference to the use of at least three languages in education, i.e., the mother tongue, a regional or national language, and an international language. Already in the early 1950s, the Indian government put forward the outline of a multilingual educational policy, which included instruction in the mother language, in the regional (or State) language, in Hindi as the language of general communication and in one of the classical languages (Sanskrit, Pali, Arabic or Persian). Revised in 1961, the proposal was named the “three language formula” (TLF), which included instruction in the regional language, in Hindi in non-Hindi-speaking areas or in another Indian language in Hindi-speaking areas, and in English or in another European language. Over the 12 years of primary and secondary schooling, instruction is given in the mother tongue or in the regional language from the first to the fifth year, the TLF being introduced in the sixth year. Even though it is recognized as the national norm, the TLF is nonetheless not applied to the letter in all states and has turned out to be a hypothetical project rather than a social reality.

The EC (1995) in a so-called “Whitebook” opted for trilingualism as a policy goal for all European citizens. Apart from the “mother tongue”, each citizen should learn at least two “community languages”. This policy goal was backed up by the Council of the EU (2002) in Barcelona. In fact, the concept of “mother tongue” was used to refer to the official languages of Member States and ignored the fact that for many inhabitants of Europe “mother tongue” and “official state language” do not coincide (Extra and Gorter 2008: 44). At the same time, the concept of “community languages” was used to refer to the official languages of two other EU Member States. In later EC documents, reference was made to one foreign language with high international prestige (English was deliberately not referred to) and one so-called “neighbouring language”. Needless to say, the latter concept always referred to neighbouring countries, and never to the language of one’s real-life next-door neighbours.

In its Communication (2008: 6) referred to in Section 2, the EC shows its awareness of the importance of ‘valuing all languages’:

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

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

*With a view to allowing closer links between communities, the Commission’s advisory Group of Intellectuals for Intercultural Dialogue (2008) developed the concept of a ‘personal adoptive language’, which should usefully benefit from further reflection.”*

The Member States are invited to “provide genuine opportunities for all to master the national language(s) and two other languages” (EC Communication 2008:12). Against this background and given the growing status of English as *lingua franca* in Europe, it would make sense to promote the trilingual formula across European countries in terms of

- the national languages as first or second language
- English as language of international prestige
- an adoptive language of personal choice

The order in which each of these languages is actually acquired by individuals will vary according to particular personal contexts and societal contexts (see Section 4).

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

Table 2. Attitudes towards multilingualism in Europe (source: Special Eurobarometer 243: 53, European Commission 2006)

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

The last statement is in line with the EC ideas on trilingualism for all European citizens. The fact that there is less support for it shows that there is still a long way to go for a broad acceptance of this principle across Europe.

A detailed overview and analysis of EU policies on multilingualism is provided by Cullen et al. (2008). The overview shows that there is still significant reluctance or resistance with respect to additional language learning – apart from learning English. Only one in five Europeans can be described as an active additional language learner and language skills are unevenly distributed geographically and culturally. Most of the activities aimed at promoting multilingualism take place in the formal education sector, more particularly in the domain of secondary education. Cullen et al. (2008: iii–iv) arrive at the following main conclusions with respect to the political and policy context of promoting multilingualism in the EU:

*“Multilingualism and linguistic diversity are sometimes conflicting policy agendas. Language learning policy has tended to be influenced by ‘harder’ priorities like economic competitiveness and labour market mobility, and*

*linguistic diversity policies by ‘softer’ issues like inclusion and human rights. Multilingualism policy has been more highly prioritized than linguistic diversity policy in terms of concrete actions.*

*The action of the European Parliament reflects a consistent and persistent effort to maintain minority language protection and linguistic diversity support. Since the late 1970s, the European Parliament has issued a series of communications and resolutions that call for the Commission to take action in order to promote the use of minority languages and to review all Community legislation or practices which discriminate against minority languages. However, a major problem is that none of these initiatives are binding for the Member States.”*

### **The spectrum of languages to be addressed in the Index**

In its Communication (2008: 5), the EC refers to the many “national, regional, minority and migrant” languages spoken in Europe “adding a facet to our common background”. At various places in the EC Communication, reference is also made to foreign language learning, both in terms of those European languages with a worldwide coverage and in terms of those non-European languages for which the same holds. The value of regional/minority and immigrant languages across European Member States is also acknowledged by the HLG (2007: 6–7 and 18–19). Both types of languages are important means of intra-group communication and are part of the personal, cultural and social identity of many EU citizens. The HLG report also mentions that it is necessary to use the potential of immigrants as a source of language knowledge and as a good opportunity for companies to profit from immigrants’ cultural and linguistic abilities in order to gain access to markets in the immigrants’ countries of origin.

In the light of all these considerations, the constellation of languages (see Extra and Gorter 2008: 3–60) to be addressed in our Index will include national, foreign, regional/minority and immigrant languages. We are fully aware of the different connotations across European countries in referring to the people (and their languages) with a more or less long-standing history of residence that stems from abroad (see Extra and Gorter 2008: 10 for the nomenclature of the field). The definitions adhered to in compiling the Index are the following:

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

For similar perspectives, we refer to McPake and Tinsley (2007). The distinction presented above between “regional/minority” and “immigrant” languages is widely used and understood across continental Europe, while the attractive bottom-up-supported reference to “community” languages, common in the UK, may refer to national, regional and/or immigrant languages. Moreover, the concept of “community” languages often refers to the national languages of European Union countries in EU documents and is in this sense almost “occupied territory”, at least in the EU jargon. A final argument in favour of

“immigrant” languages is its wide-spread use on the website of Ethnologue, Languages of the World, a most valuable source of cross-national information on this topic.

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

There are a number of complicating factors that make clear-cut distinctions virtually impossible. First of all, within and across EU Member States, many regional/minority and immigrant languages have larger numbers of speakers than many official state languages. Moreover, both regional/minority and immigrant languages in one EU country may be official state languages in another country. Examples of the former result from language border crossing in adjacent nation-states, such as Finnish in Sweden or Swedish in Finland. Examples of the latter result from processes of migration, in particular from Southern to Northern Europe, such as Portuguese, Spanish, Italian or Greek. It should also be kept in mind that many, if not most, immigrant languages in European nation-states originate from countries outside Europe. It is the context of migration and minoritization in particular that makes our proposed distinction between regional/minority and immigrant languages ambiguous. However, we cannot think of a more transparent alternative. In our opinion, if nothing else, the proposed distinction will at least lead to awareness-raising and may ultimately lead to an inclusive approach in the European conceptualization of minority languages.

Seen from the perspective of first vs. additional language learning, the following language varieties and language learning modalities can be distinguished:

Table 3. Language varieties and language learning modalities

Four language varieties	National languages	Regional/minority languages	Immigrant languages	Foreign languages
First language learning	++	++	++	-
Additional language learning	+(+)	+(+)	+	++
++ = common phenomenon across EU countries + = rare phenomenon across EU countries				

With respect to national languages, the Index will include national languages as additional languages for non-native speakers. With respect to all four language varieties referred to in Table 3, there may be overlap between the categories, as is illustrated by the following examples:

- Spanish occurs as a national language in Spain, as an immigrant language in many other European countries, and/or as a foreign language in education;

- Finnish occurs as a national language in Finland, as a regional/minority language in Sweden, as an immigrant language in Denmark, and as a foreign language in higher education in a number of European countries.

Table 4 gives an overview of the status quo of ratification of the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages under Part III (“Measures to promote the use of regional or minority languages in public life”) by the participating European countries referred to in Table 1. The 19 participating countries can, apart from their different regional or minority language profiles, be split up into two main categories in terms of their national language profiles, as demonstrated in Table 4.

Table 4. *Status quo* of (co-)official national languages and officially recognized regional or minority languages in the participating countries under Part III of the ECRML

Nr	Participating countries	National language	Officially recognized regional or minority languages, under Part III of the ECRML
1	Austria	German	Burgenland-Croatian, Czech, Hungarian, Romani, Slovak, Slovene
2	Bulgaria	Bulgarian	-
3	Denmark	Danish	German
4	Estonia	Estonian	-
5	France	French	-
6	Germany	German	Danish, Low German, North/Sater Frisian, Romani, Upper/Lower Sorbian
7	Greece	Greek	-
8	Hungary	Hungarian	Croatian, German, Romanian, Serbian, Slovak, Slovene
9	Italy	Italian	-
10	Lithuania	Lithuanian	-
11	Netherlands	Dutch	Frisian
12	Poland	Polish	Armenian, Belarusian, Czech, German, Hebrew, Karaim, Kashub, Lemko, Lithuanian, Romani, Russian, Slovak, Tatar, Ukrainian, Yiddish
13	Portugal	Portuguese	-
14	Romania	Romanian	Bulgarian, Croatian, Czech, German, Hungarian, Polish, Romani, Russian, Serbian, Slovak, Turkish, Ukrainian
15	Spain	Spanish	Basque, Catalan, Galician, Valencian

Nr	Participating countries	National languages	
16	Ukraine	Ukrainian	Belarusian, Bulgarian, Crimean Tatar, Gagauz, German, Greek, Hungarian, Moldavian, Polish, Romanian, Russian, Slovak, Yiddish
17	United Kingdom	English	Cornish, Irish, Scottish/Gaelic, Welsh
18	Bosnia & Herzegovina	Bosnian, Croatian, Serbian	Albanian, Czech, German, Hungarian, Italian, Macedonian, Montenegrin, Polish, Romani, Romanian, Rysin, Slovak, Slovene, Turkish, Ukrainian, Yiddish/Ladino
19	Switzerland	French, German, Italian, Romansch	Romansch and Italian in the cantons of Graubünden and Ticino, respectively

The two participating countries with more than one official national language are Bosnia & Herzegovina and Switzerland, and those with officially recognized minority languages instead of regional languages at the nation-state level are, e.g., Hungary and Lithuania. As is clear from Table 4, seven out of nineteen countries have not (yet) ratified the European Charter. Recognition of regional or minority languages under Part III of the ECRML, however, does not mean full protection under all articles of Part III, let alone adherence to the Charter. To give an example: Frisian is the only regional language in the Netherlands with an officially recognized educational provision, at least within the borders of the province of Friesland. This issue of degrees of recognition will be taken up in the first strand of the Questionnaire (see next section). One final remark should be made on the spectrum of officially recognized regional or minority languages referred to in Table 4. It becomes immediately clear that the variation between our 19 participating countries is enormous in this domain, with quite a few Central and Eastern European countries being positioned on the elaborate side of the spectrum and Western and Southern European countries on the restricted side.

### **Language domains of the Index**

Seven domains or strands are covered by the Index. The first strand or meta-domain concerns the availability of national/regional documents and databases on language diversity. Given the key role of language learning in education, three domains are distinguished focusing on different public-funded educational sectors. In addition, three crucial domains outside and beyond education are addressed. All in all, the following seven domains are covered:

Table 5. Strands and domains covered by the Index

Strands 1–7	Domains
Meta-Strand 1	Official documents and databases on language diversity
<i>Within Education Strands</i>	
Strand 2	Languages in (pre-)primary education
Strand 3	Languages in secondary education
Strand 4	Languages in adult vocational and university education
<i>Outside Education Strands</i>	
Strand 5	Languages in the media
Strand 6	Languages in public services and public spaces
Strand 7	Languages in business

The first strand or meta-domain focuses on the (non-)availability of nationwide or regionwide official documents and databases on language diversity in each of the participating countries or regions. The availability of such documents and databases will contribute significantly to the awareness of multilingualism in a given country. Language documents may focus on dealing with some or all of the four language varieties that will be taken into account. The bi-partition of Strand 1 in official documents (Strand 1A) and official databases (Strand 1B) is closely related to the common distinction in studies on language planning between status planning and corpus planning. In our case, Strand 1A refers to efforts undertaken to regulate the use and function of different languages in a given society, and Strand 1B refers to efforts undertaken to map the distribution and vitality of the spectrum of languages in a given society.

Derived from the typology proposed by Poulain (2008), three types of official language databases are distinguished, i.e., continuously updated and nationally/regionally accumulated municipal register data, nation/region-wide census data at intervals of 5–10 years, and periodical survey data. Needless to say, the types of language question(s) in such databases are of crucial importance for the quality of data outcomes. The highest validity emerges for questions on home language use, the lowest for questions on the opaque concept of mother tongue and intermediate validity for questions on main language (Extra 2010).

Strands 2 and 3 focus on compulsory education for non-adults. Given the huge diversification in post-secondary education at the national and crossnational level, Strand 4 focuses on basic (vocational) vs. high (university) education. As a result, this strand will yield highly binary and complementary data on post-secondary education. Strands 5–7 cover three crucial domains outside and beyond education.

One of the innovative and pioneering dimensions of the proposed Index construction is its focus on both educational and non-educational sectors. For all strands, sub-strands are arranged according to particular sub-domains and language types. For the latter, the following sequential ordering is maintained: national languages (also as additional languages for non-native speakers), foreign languages, regional/minority languages and immigrant languages.

It should be mentioned explicitly that the domains of language pedagogy and language attitudes have not been added to or included in the strands that are taken into consideration in this first 2011 round of data collection in the project. These two domains are by definition characterized by more or less strong academic and non-academic presuppositions that would show high variability both between and within the countries that are focused upon in the project.

The planned Index will be based on an accumulated score per country and/or region, derived from the scores for each of the seven strands. The scores for Strands 1–3 will be derived from the outcomes of secondary data analysis of available documents; those

for Strands 4–7 from the outcomes of primary data collection and data analysis. European recommendations or guidelines will be used as benchmarks for differential answers to questions and for resulting differential scoring procedures. Such European benchmarks for the questions and answers can partially be based on European key documents. This holds in particular for Strands 2 and 3, which focus on compulsory education within and across European nation-states. If such documents prove unavailable for particular questions and answers, European benchmarks are selected on the basis of European networks and interest groups such as the European Media Network for Strand 5, the Eurocities Network of major European cities for Strand 6, and the Business Forum for Multilingualism for Strand 7. For Strand 7, an adapted and updated version of the Questionnaire in the ELAN report published by CILT (2006) is used.

### Primary data collection and the tri-municipal formula

The collection of primary data for Strands 4–7 is based on a city-oriented approach derived from the following considerations:

- Multilingualism is most prevalent in urban settings.
- Cities are primary spaces where urban planners create local policies on multilingualism.
- Cities reinforce translocal and transnational dynamics in responding to language diversity.

In methodological linkage with the fact that 2 out of our 19 participating countries have (at least) 3 co-official and co-occurring national languages (see Table 4), a *tri-municipal formula* has been opted for in each of the participating countries (or regions). The selection of cities has been different for countries 1–17 and countries 18–19:

- Countries 1–17 will focus on the two cities with the largest population size plus one city where the regional/minority language is spoken with the highest status, vitality and/or number of speakers in the country;
- Countries 18–19 will focus on three cities, each of which has a different official national language.

The selection of the three cities and the proposed regional/minority languages to focus upon have been motivated by all participating national teams on the basis of municipal statistics for the first two cities and regional/minority language/group statistics for the third city. Table 6 gives an overview of the resulting outcomes per country.

Table 6. Tri-municipal formula for all participating countries

Nr	Countries with one national language	Largest city	Second/Third largest city	Additional city	Dominant regional/minority language in additional city
1	Austria	Vienna	Graz	Klagenfurt	Slovene
2	Bulgaria	Sofia	Plovdiv	Shumen	Turkish
3	Denmark	Copenhagen	Aarhus	Aabenraa	German
4	Estonia	Tallinn	Tartu	Narva	Russian
5	France	Paris	Marseille	Corte	Corsican
6	Germany	Berlin	Munich	Flensburg	Danish

Nr	Countries with 3(4) national languages	Largest city in region 1	Largest city in region 2	Largest city in region 3	Official national language in 1 / 2 / 3
7	Greece	Athens	Thessaloniki	Xanti	Turkish
8	Hungary	Budapest	Debrecen	Pécs	German
9	Italy	Rome	Milan	Trieste	Slovene
10	Lithuania	Vilnius	Kaunas	Klaipeda	Russian
11	Netherlands	Amsterdam	Rotterdam	Leeuwarden*	Frisian
12	Poland	Warsaw	Krakow	Gdansk	Kashubian
13	Portugal	Lisbon	Oporto	Miranda do Douro*	Mirandese
14	Romania	Bucharest	Iași	Cluj	Hungarian
15	Spain	Madrid	Barcelona	Bilbao	Spanish/Catalan/ Basque
16	Ukraine	Kiev	Kharkiv	Lviv	Russian
17	United Kingdom	London	Glasgow	Cardiff	English/Scottish-Gaelic/Welsh
18	Bosnia & Herzegovina	Sarajevo	Banja-Luka	Mostar	Bosnian/Serbian/ Croatian
19	Switzerland	Zürich	Genève	Lugano	German/French/Italian

\* Due to the absence of a university infrastructure in this city, Strand 4B does not apply.

National profiles will be based on primary data collection for the 19x3 cities referred to in Table 6. As can be derived from Table 6, the dominant regional/minority languages in the chosen additional cities have the status of national language in adjacent countries. It has been agreed with partners in Germany, the Netherlands, Spain, Switzerland, and the UK that additional primary and/or secondary data will be collected due to their regional/federal set-up or the prominence of certain regional or minority languages.

The focus of primary data collection for Strands 4–7 in each of the 19 participating countries is summarized below:

- For Strand 4, the focus is on language provision in different types of post-secondary education in the public domain. Two contrastive sectors are addressed, i.e., language provision in basic vocational education for (young) adults aged 16-plus with low previous qualifications vs. language provision in academic/university education.
- For Strand 5, the focus is on media provision, more in particular on language provision in audiovisual media, defined as public and private radio and TV broadcasting offered through the open national/regional channels. In addition, language provision in press and print will be analysed at three types of public locations, i.e., the largest train stations, non-scientific/public bookstores and non-scientific/public libraries in the earlier mentioned cities in the country or region.
- For Strand 6, the focus is on language provision in public services and public spaces at the city level, more in particular on institutional language strategies, oral communication facilities and written information facilities at the city (council) level in the earlier mentioned cities in the country or region.
- For Strand 7, the focus is on four different types of company sectors, on three different types of company size, and on three different types of company origin. Data collectors

are asked to collect at least 24 samples in their country or region. Ideally, samples should be distributed as evenly as possible across multi-/international (M/I), national (N), and regional or local (R/L) businesses, and as evenly as possible across sectors and business types, as outlined in Table 7.

Table 7. Levels and sectors of business types

Type \ Size	Supermarkets	Building construction businesses	Hotels	Banks
Small	N + R/L	N + R/L	N + R/L	N + R/L
Medium-sized	M/I + N + R/L	M/I + N + R/L	M/I + N + R/L	M/I + N + R/L
Large	M/I + N + R/L	M/I + N + R/L	M/I + N + R/L	M/I + N + R/L

Cross-national comparability of the outcomes for Strand 7 will be enhanced by the given level and sector specifications. Both company-external and company-internal language policies are addressed.

In Table 8, a summarizing overview of strands, domains and targets for primary data collection per city (3x) is provided.

Table 8. Strands, domains and targets for primary data collection per city

Strand	Domain	Targets per city (3x)
4	Languages in vocational and university education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Largest prototypical institution for vocational education and training (VET) with language provision</li> <li>• Largest public and general university</li> </ul>
5	Languages in the media	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Language provision in radio and TV programmes as described by the best-selling newspaper <i>in the largest city</i> (1x)</li> <li>• Language provision in press and print at the largest train station, public bookstore and public library</li> </ul>
6	Languages in public services and spaces	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Institutionalized language strategies, oral communication facilities and written information facilities at the central city level</li> </ul>
7	Languages in business	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Small-/medium-sized and large multi-/international, national and regional/local supermarkets, businesses in building construction, hotels and banks</li> </ul>

### Designing the Questionnaire and rating its outcomes

In designing the Questionnaire and rating its outcomes, support has been and will be offered by the Migration Policy Group in Brussels, on the basis of its experiences with the construction of a Migrant Integration Policy Index in cooperation with the British Council

(Huddleston et al. 2011). A comparison of the Migrant Integration Policy Index (MIPEX) and the Language Rich Europe Index (LRE Index) is offered in Table 9.

Table 9. MIPEX and LRE Index in comparative perspective

MIPEX 2011	LRE Index 2012
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Seven strands</li> <li>• + septagonal spider graph</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Seven strands</li> <li>• + septagonal spider graph</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Four dimensions per strand</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Four language varieties per strand</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Multiple indicators per dimension</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Multiple indicators per language variety</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Total number of indicators: 148</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Total number of questions: 260</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Total number of countries: 26</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Total number of countries: 19</li> </ul>

The following prerequisites for constructing the LRE Index have been taken into account:

- Index questions should deliver rateable data for each of the seven strands;
- rateable data should be weighed;
- yes/no-questions where one of the two answers would predictably lead to 100% scores should be avoided;
- the Index should be robust enough for repeated measurement over time.

In the analyses, the outcomes for each of the seven strands will be compared as proportional scores. The Index, in turn, is the mean value of these seven proportional scores. This Index is by definition a neutral tool in the sense that the chosen dimensions with the chosen operationalizations are weighed equally. Equal weighing of the proportional scores between strands does not impede value-driven differential weighing of scores per question/indicator within strands. In Table 10, an overview is given of the scoring procedure.

Table 10. Scoring procedure for the Index  
(\* = maximum mean value of 7 proportional scores)

Strands	N questions	Max. score (%)
1	15	100
2	92	100
3	60	100
4	30	100
5	14	100
6	31	100
7	18	100
Index	260	100*

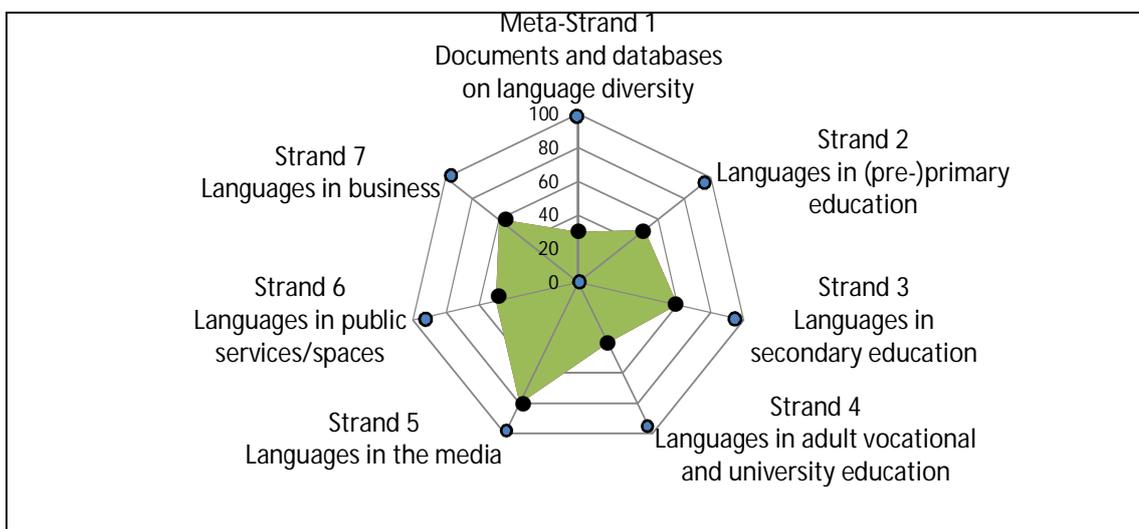
The ultimate establishment of an Index for Multilingual Policies and Practices will make it feasible to carry out cross-linguistic and cross-national comparisons of databases in which equal criteria for such comparisons are used. Such an Index also makes it possible for users to situate their own policies in relation to those in other countries and consequently to share information in transparent transnational perspectives. The Index can therefore contribute to context-specific new policy initiatives. For similar considerations and analyses, we refer to Extra and Yağmur (2008) in developing a cross-national Language Vitality Index for the

status of immigrant languages at home in six large multicultural cities across Europe (from North to South: Göteborg, Hamburg, The Hague, Brussels, Lyon, Madrid).

In this context, it should be mentioned that, from a conceptual point of view, the chosen dimensions for the LRE Index are related more closely than in many other large-scale attempts to operationalize multiple human activities or properties in terms of an Index. An interesting case in point is the widely used Human Development Index (HDI), proposed by the United Nations in its annual UNDP reports. The HDI measures the overall achievements in a particular country in three basic dimensions of human development, i.e., life expectancy, educational achievement, and income per capita. For each of these dimensions, an Index based on multiple values has been created. The ultimate HDI is based on the average of the three indices mentioned. In this case also, the chosen dimensions with the chosen operationalizations are weighed equally (for details see UNDP 2002).

In Figure 1, a visual illustration is given for the imaginary outcomes of country/region X on the proposed strands and scores obtained per strand in adherence to European benchmarks.

Figure 1. Index of Multilingual Policies and Practices in Europe for country/region X



## Conclusions

The proposed European Index of Multilingual Policies and Practices, derived from the proposed Questionnaire, attempts to comply with three types of demands: internal validity, external validity and crossnational comparability of data. The demands are spelled out below.

### Internal validity of data

- Is the Questionnaire/index sufficiently *comprehensive* in its conceptual construct and scope and therefore fit for its aims?
- Is the Questionnaire/index sufficiently *explicit and transparent* in its formulation?
- Is the Questionnaire/index sufficiently *practical* as a tool for data collection in terms of intelligibility and administrative work load?

*External validity of data*

- Is the Questionnaire/index sufficiently *valid* in its linkage to European benchmarks/recommendations that guide its scoring?

*Crossnational comparability of data*

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

The combination of secondary data analysis for Strands 1–3 and primary data collection for Strands 4–7 (see also Section 5) is considered to be innovative and constitutes one of the pioneering dimensions of the project. For each of the domains to be covered in Strands 4–7, little or no primary data is available in most of the countries participating in this project. In this first round of Index development, the focus of data collection for Strands 4–7 is on within-sample variation, not on sample size. As mentioned above, validity demands at this stage relate to the conceptual construct and scope of the Questionnaire/Index, not to generalizability. As mentioned in the Introduction, the outcomes of the project will create a descriptive tool for raising awareness on multilingual policies and practices in Europe, based on comparative analyses of how 19 countries perform against European recommendations or benchmarks on a full spectrum of languages: no more, no less.

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