## Key Data on

## Teaching Languages

 at School in Europe 2017 EditionEurydice Report


European

# Key Data on 

# Teaching Languages at School in Europe 

## 2017 Edition

Eurydice Report

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Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency
Education and Youth Policy Analysis
Avenue du Bourget 1 (J-70 - Unit A7)
BE-1049 Brussels
Tel. +32 22995058
Fax +32 22921971
E-mail: eacea-eurydice@ec.europa.eu
Website: http://ec.europa.eu/eurydice

## CONTENTS

Table of Figures ..... 5
Introduction ..... 9
Main Findings ..... 11
Codes, Abbreviations and Acronyms ..... 17
Chapter A - Context ..... 19
Chapter B - Organisation ..... 29
Section I- Structures ..... 29
Section II - Range of foreign languages taught ..... 43
Section III - Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) ..... 55
Chapter C - Participation ..... 59
Section I- Number of foreign languages learnt by students ..... 59
Section II - Foreign languages learnt by students ..... 71
Chapter D - Teachers ..... 85
Section I- Qualifications ..... 85
Section II - Transnational mobility ..... 97
Chapter E - Teaching Processes ..... 105
Section I- Instruction time ..... 105
Section II - Expected learning outcomes ..... 119
Section III - Language support measures for newly arrived migrant students ..... 131
Glossary ..... 141
Statistical Databases and Terminology ..... 147
References ..... 149
Annexes ..... 151
Acknowledgements ..... 173

## TABLE OF FIGURES

## Chapter A - Context

Figure A1: State languages and regional, minority or non-territorial languages with official status, 2015/16
Figure A2: Proportion of 15 -year-old students who mainly speak a different language at home to the language of schooling, 2015

Figure A3: Proportion of immigrant and non-immigrant 15-year-old students by language spoken at home, 2015
Figure A4: Proportion of 15 -year-old students attending schools where more than $25 \%$ of students do not speak the language of schooling at home, 2015

## Chapter B - Organisation

Figure B1: Starting ages at which the first and second foreign languages are compulsory subjects for all students in pre-primary, primary and/or general secondary education, 2015/16

Figure B2: Period during which learning a foreign language is compulsory in pre-primary, primary and/or general secondary education, 2002/03, 2010/11, 2015/16 32
Figure B3: Period during which learning two foreign languages is compulsory in primary and/or general secondary education, 2002/03, 2010/11, 2015/16
Figure B4: Additional compulsory foreign languages taught on certain educational pathways in primary and/or general secondary education, 2015/16

Figure $\mathrm{B5}$ : Provision of foreign languages as core curriculum options in primary and/or general secondary level, 2015/1638

Figure B 6 : The teaching of two foreign languages in the curriculum
for primary and/or general secondary education, 2015/16

Figure B7: Difference between general education students and VET students in the number of years spent learning one foreign language as a compulsory subject, 2015/16

Figure B8: Difference between general education students and VET students in the number of years spent
learning two foreign languages simultaneously as compulsory subjects, 2015/16 ..... 42
Figure B9: Mandatory foreign languages taught during compulsory education, 2002/03, 2010/11, 2015/16 ..... 44

Figure B10: Central recommendations/regulations for schools on the inclusion of specific foreign languages in the
curriculum, primary and general secondary education, 2015/16

Figure B11: Foreign languages listed in central recommendations/regulations, primary and general secondary education, 2015/16

Figure B12: Regional or minority languages specifically referred to in official documents issued by central education authorities, primary and/or general secondary education, 2015/16

Figure B13: Central regulations on the teaching of classical Greek and Latin, lower and general upper secondary education, 2015/16
Figure B14: Status of target languages taught through CLIL in primary and/or general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2015/16

Figure B15: Existence of central recommendations on knowledge- and skills-related admission criteria for access to CLIL Type A provision in primary and/or general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2015/16

## Chapter C - Participation

Figure C1a: Proportion of students learning foreign languages in primary education, by number of languages (ISCED 1), 2014

Figure C1b: Proportion of students learning at least one foreign language in primary education, by age (ISCED 1), 2014

Figure C2: Trends in the proportion of students learning at least one foreign language in primary education (ISCED 1), 2005, 2014

Figure C3: Proportion of students learning foreign languages in lower secondary education, by number of languages (ISCED 2), 2014

Figure C4: Trends in the proportion of students learning two or more foreign language(s) in lower secondary education (ISCED 2), 2005, 2014
Figure C5: Proportion of students learning foreign languages in upper secondary education, by number of languages (ISCED 3), 2014
Figure C6: Trends in the proportion of students learning two or more foreign languages in upper secondary education (ISCED 3), 2005, 2014

Figure C : Average number of foreign languages learnt per student, primary and secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2014
Figure C 8 : Foreign languages learnt by most students, primary and secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2014
Figure C9: Countries with a high proportion of students (more than 90 \%) learning English in primary and secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 201473

Figure C10: The second most learnt foreign language, primary and secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2014
Figure C11: Foreign languages other than English, French, German and Spanish learnt by a minimum $10 \%$ of students, primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2014
Figure C12: Trends in the proportions of students learning English in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2005, 2014
Figure C13: Trends in the proportions of students learning French, primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2005, $2014 \quad 79$
Figure C14: Trends in the proportions of students learning German, primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2005, 2014

Figure C15: Difference in the proportions of students learning Spanish, general secondary education (ISCED 2-3), 2005, 2014

Figure C16: Differences in the proportions of students learning English in general and vocational upper secondary education (ISCED 3), 2014

## Chapter D - Teachers

85Figure D1: Central recommendations on the degree of subject specialisation needed by foreign language teachers in primary education, 2015/16

Figure D2: Central recommendations on the degree of subject specialisation needed by foreign language teachers in general secondary education, 2015/16
Figure D3: Subjects that specialist foreign language teachers are qualified to teach according to central recommendations in primary and general secondary education, 2015/16
Figure D4: Minimum duration and level of initial teacher education of specialist or semi-specialist foreign language teachers in primary and general secondary education, 2015/16

Figure D5: Qualifications required at central level to work in schools providing CLIL (Type A) instruction in primary and/or general secondary education, 2015/16

Figure D6: Qualifications required/recommended at central level to teach students from migrant backgrounds who do not speak the language of schooling in primary and/or general secondary education, 2015/16

Figure D7: Existence of central recommendations on ITE content and a period to be spent in the target language country for prospective foreign language teachers, 2015/16

Figure D8: Proportion of modern foreign language teachers
in lower secondary education who have been abroad for professional purposes, 2013
Figure D : Funding schemes organised at central level to support the transnational mobility of foreign language teachers in primary and general secondary education, 2015/16

Figure D10: Proportion of modern foreign language teachers in lower secondary education who have been abroad for professional purposes with support from a transnational mobility programme, 2013

Figure D11: Proportion of teachers in lower secondary education who have been abroad for professional purposes, by reason for travel, EU level, 2013

## Chapter E - Teaching Processes

Figure E1: Recommended minimum annual instruction time for foreign languages as compulsory subjects, by grade, in full-time compulsory general education, 2015/16

Figure E2: Trends in the recommended minimum number of hours of compulsory foreign language teaching during a notional year in primary and full-time compulsory general secondary education, 2010/11, 2015/16

Figure E3: Relationship between the minimum instruction time recommended for the first compulsory foreign language and the number of years over which this provision is spread during full-time compulsory general education, 2015/16

Figure E4: Minimum recommended instruction time per notional year for teaching the first and second languages as compulsory subjects in full-time compulsory general education, 2015/16
Figure E5: Minimum instruction time allocated to foreign languages as compulsory subjects, as a proportion of total instruction time in primary and full-time compulsory general secondary education, 2015/16

Figure E6: Priority given to the four communication skills in teaching the first foreign language, full-time compulsory general education, 2015/16

Figure E7: Expected minimum level of attainment based on CEFR for the first and second foreign languages at the end of lower secondary education (ISCED 2) and general upper secondary education (ISCED 3), 2015/16
Figure E8: CEFR levels covered by national tests, lower secondary education, 2015/16 125
Figure E9: CEFR levels covered by national tests, general upper secondary education, 2015/16 127
Figure E10: Languages tested through national tests which lead to a certificate at the end of lower secondary and upper general secondary education, 2015/16
Figure E11: Information on foreign language study on certificates awarded to students at the end of general upper secondary education, 2015/16

Figure E12: Testing the language of schooling of newly arrived migrant students, in pre-primary, primary and secondary education, 2015/16

Figure E13: Preparatory classes for newly arrived students, primary and lower secondary education, 2015/16
Figure E14: Language learning support measures for migrant students in mainstream education, primary and lower secondary education, 2015/16

Linguistic diversity is part of Europe's DNA. It embraces not only the official languages of Member States, but also the regional and/or minority languages spoken for centuries on European territory, as well as the languages brought by the various waves of migrants. The coexistence of this variety of languages constitutes an asset, but it is also a challenge for Europe.

This fourth edition of Key Data on Teaching Languages at School in Europe describes the main policies on the teaching and learning of languages, with a focus on foreign languages. It contains 60 indicators in five chapters entitled Context, Organisation, Participation, Teachers and Teaching Processes. While this book builds on the previous edition published in 2012, it also investigates new areas, principally the language provision for children from migrant backgrounds. The report was produced in close cooperation with the European Commission.

The publication belongs to the Key Data series, the aim of which is to combine statistical data and qualitative information on European education systems. The indicators are organised by thematic area within the chapters and sections. They provide clear, precise and comparable information displayed as graphics and are accompanied by brief commentaries - a headline summarises the key points made.
Several distinct sources are used to build the indicators: Eurydice, Eurostat and the OECD's PISA and TALIS international surveys. These indicators are frequently interrelated to provide a better understanding of language teaching across Europe.

The Eurydice information is taken from official sources and its reference year is 2015/16. Eurydice indicators mainly cover primary and secondary education (ISCED levels 1, 2 and 3), although some also refer to the pre-primary level (ISCED level 0 ). All indicators concern general education with the exception of two, which relate to vocational education.
The Eurydice information provides insight into the policies and recommendations in place in European countries which influence foreign language teaching. They cover organisational aspects such as the number of languages taught, the age range of students involved and the range of foreign languages offered in schools, not only in mainstream education, but also in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) type provision. In addition, some indicators show the amount of instruction time allocated to the field, while others focus on the levels of attainment students are expected to reach and the levels at which they are tested, as defined by the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. A new section is dedicated to language support measures for students from migrant backgrounds. Finally, crucial to the issue of language learning, the initial and continuing education of foreign language teachers is also addressed.

The Eurostat statistical data, referring to 2014, provide information on the language learning participation rates of pupils in primary and secondary education (ISCED levels 1, 2 and 3). These data refer to general as well as vocational education; it must also be noted that both Eurostat and Eurydice data cover only public sector and grant-aided private schools.

A few indicators have been designed using the contextual questionnaire databases for the PISA 2015 (OECD) international survey. They offer a means of considering multi-lingualism as it really exists in schools in Europe, providing information on the proportion of students who speak a language at home other than the language of instruction. Furthermore, a small number of indicators, based on the data from the contextual questionnaire of the TALIS 2013 (OECD) international survey provide a useful insight into teachers' transnational mobility for professional purposes.

Eurydice data cover all countries of the European Union as well as Bosnia and Herzegovina, Switzerland, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Montenegro, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia,

Norway, Serbia and Turkey. The country coverage of indicators based on other sources is more limited.

The present publication contains several time series. They are taken from Eurydice and Eurostat sources and are particularly helpful in identifying trends in language teaching over the last decade. For example, they enable the reader to ascertain to what extent foreign languages (as compulsory subjects) are being taught at an increasingly early age in primary education, and whether the percentage of students learning specific foreign languages is increasing or decreasing.

The 'Main Findings' of the report are summarised in a separate section at the beginning of the publication. The codes, abbreviations and acronyms used are also listed at the front, while the glossary appears towards the end of the volume together with a short bibliography. These are followed by three annexes, which include short country descriptions of foreign language provision, information on the provision of CLIL and detailed statistical data.

All those who have contributed in any way to this collective undertaking are listed at the end of the report.

## MAIN FINDINGS

The 2017 edition of Key Data on Teaching Languages at School in Europe covers a very wide range of subjects in relation to the teaching and learning of foreign languages. These are addressed in five chapters: Context, Organisation, Participation, Teachers, and Teaching Processes. The 'Main Findings' bring together the key points from each of these chapters with particular emphasis on the following issues:

- the provision of foreign languages in the curriculum, with a focus on the first and second foreign languages as compulsory subjects;
- the range of languages studied;
- Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL);
- the expected levels of attainment for the first and second foreign languages;
- foreign language teacher profiles and qualifications;
- transnational mobility of foreign language teachers;
- language support for newly arrived migrant students.

Data from three sources are referred to in the 'Main Findings', the principal source being the Eurydice network, which has provided information on foreign language teaching policies in European countries. Eurostat has provided complementary statistical data on student participation rates in language learning, while TALIS (OECD) has supplied contextual data on teachers' transnational mobility.

## Compared with a decade ago, students in primary education are learning a foreign language from a younger age

In 2002, the Barcelona European Council invited EU countries to take actions to 'improve the mastery of basic skills, in particular by teaching at least two foreign languages from a very early age'. In 2014, at EU level, $83.8 \%$ of all students attending primary education studied at least one foreign language. This is a substantial increase ( 16.5 percentage points) compared to 2005 where the percentage stood at 67.3 \% (see Figure C2). This is not surprising, given the reforms to lower the starting age for compulsory foreign language learning in some countries. In the majority of countries, this obligation now starts between the ages of 6 and 8 (see Figure B1).

However, this European trend hides great differences between countries. In 2014, in 12 countries, nearly all students in primary education studied at least one foreign language (Spain, France, Croatia, Italy, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Malta, Austria, Poland, Liechtenstein, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Norway). In contrast, in Belgium (Flemish Community), Portugal and Slovenia, more than half of primary students were not learning any foreign languages (see Figure C1a). These differences in proportions can be largely explained by the variation in the ages at which learning a foreign language becomes compulsory.
... however, the amount of instruction time, while increasing, remains modest
In 2016, the share of instruction time dedicated to foreign languages compared to total instruction time for the entire primary curriculum is still modest: in the majority of countries, this percentage ranges between 5 and 10 \%. It is slightly higher in Belgium (German-speaking Community - 11.9 \%), Greece (the Unified Revised Curriculum - 11.4 \%), Spain (10.8 \%), Croatia (11.1 \%), Latvia (10.1 \%), Malta (14.9\%), the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (10.4 \%) and much higher Luxembourg (44.0 \%) (see Figure E5).

Nevertheless, between 2011 and 2016, a few countries substantially increased the instruction time for foreign language teaching in primary education: Denmark, Spain, Cyprus, and Slovakia (see Figure E2).

## More lower secondary students are now learning two foreign languages compared with 10 years ago

At EU level, 59.7 \% of all students enrolled in lower secondary education were learning two foreign languages or more in 2014. This is a substantial increase compared to 2005 when it was only 46.7 \% (see Figure C4). This reflects a policy change in several countries, which aimed to increase the number of students learning a second language as well as lower the starting age. Indeed, unlike in 2003, learning a second foreign language is now compulsory for all students from the later years of primary education in Denmark, Greece and Iceland and from the beginning of lower secondary education in the Czech Republic, France, Italy, Malta and Poland (see Figure B3).

This encouraging trend should not hide the very important differences that exist within the EU. In 11 countries, more than $90 \%$ of lower secondary students learn two foreign languages or more (Estonia, Greece, Italy, Luxembourg, Malta, Poland, Romania, Finland, Iceland, Liechtenstein and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia). In contrast, in five countries, the figure is below $20 \%$ : in the French Community of Belgium, there is no provision for a second foreign language at this education level; in Ireland and Hungary, learning a second language is not compulsory; and in Bulgaria and Austria, learning a second language only becomes compulsory in upper secondary education (see Figure C3).

## In some countries, learning two languages is an entitlement rather than an obligation

Instead of making two foreign languages compulsory for all students, national curricula provide other ways of ensuring that all students have the opportunity to learn two or more foreign languages. For example, in Belgium (French Community), Spain, Croatia, Slovenia, Sweden, Liechtenstein and Norway, learning two foreign languages is not an obligation for all students before they leave full-time compulsory education; however, all students have an entitlement to learn two languages (see Figure B6). In all these countries, except Belgium (French Community), this opportunity is granted to all students at the beginning of lower secondary education at the latest (see Figure B5).

## VET students do not have the same opportunities to learn two languages as their counterparts in general education

At EU level, in 2014, the proportion of the total population of VET students in upper secondary education who were learning two languages or more is $34.5 \%$. This is nearly 20 percentage points less than their counterparts in general education. In general education, at least $90 \%$ of students learn two or more foreign languages in 11 countries ( ${ }^{1}$ ); while in vocational education, this percentage is reached in only one country (Romania). Similarly, two countries have a third or more students in general education not learning a foreign language (the United Kingdom and Norway), versus seven countries in vocational education (Belgium (French Community), Denmark, Germany, Greece, Spain, Iceland and Norway) (see Figure C5).

These statistics give a true reflection of the differences in language provision as set out in official curricula for general education students, on the one hand, and VET students on the other. In fact, in 16 education systems, by the end of secondary education, VET students will have learnt two languages as compulsory subjects for fewer years than their counterparts in general education (see Figure B8).

[^0]
## English is the most studied foreign language

In almost all European countries, English is the foreign language learnt by most students during primary and secondary education. English is a mandatory foreign language in nearly all education systems that stipulate a particular foreign language that all students must study (see Figure B9), that is, in almost half of the European countries studied.

In 2014, at EU level, virtually all students ( 97.3 \%) studied English during the entire period of lower secondary education. The proportion was lower in primary education ( $79.4 \%$ ) as in some countries foreign language learning is not part of the curriculum during the first years of compulsory schooling (see Figure B1). At EU level, the proportion of students learning English in upper secondary education was $85.2 \%$. This is mostly due to a lower proportion of vocational education students learning foreign languages. Moreover, in upper secondary education, a greater variety of foreign languages is usually offered in schools (see Figure B11).

## ... and many more primary education students learn English compared with 10 years ago

The proportions of students learning English rose during the last decade. The change is the most profound for the youngest - primary education - students. At EU level, in 2014, 18.7 percentage points more students were learning English in primary education compared with 2005 (see Figure C12). This is mainly due to the lowering of the starting age for the compulsory learning of the first foreign language (see Figure B2). This trend is observed in the education systems that do not specify a mandatory language, as well as in those where English is compulsory.

The change was less profound in secondary education, as the majority of students in these education levels were already learning English in 2005.

## French, German and Spanish are popular choices for the second foreign language

Where schools may choose which foreign languages to offer, French and German are the most common options (see Figure B11). Moreover, certain education systems make French and/or German mandatory subjects (see Figure B9), especially in multi-lingual countries where they are one of the state languages, for example in Belgium, Luxembourg and Switzerland (see Figure A1).

French is the second most learnt foreign language in European countries. In 2014, at EU level, 33.7 \% of students were studying French in lower secondary education and $23.0 \%$ in upper secondary general education. German is the third most learnt foreign language in lower secondary education. At EU level, $23.1 \%$ of lower secondary education students learn German. The proportion reaches $18.9 \%$ in general upper secondary education.
Most European countries put less emphasis on Spanish compared to English, French or German. No European country specifies Spanish as a compulsory foreign language for all students (see Figure B9), and only two countries (Malta and Sweden) require that all lower or upper secondary schools provide the opportunity to learn Spanish (see Figure B11a). Few children learn Spanish in primary level. At EU level, in lower secondary education, $13.1 \%$ of students learn Spanish. The proportion reaches $19.1 \%$ in general upper secondary education.
Languages other than these major European languages are studied in only a few countries - mostly due to historic reasons or geographical proximity (see Figure C11). Danish, Italian, Dutch, Russian and Swedish are the only other foreign languages learnt by a minimum of $10 \%$ of students in primary or general secondary education in any European country.

## ... and Spanish has become more popular than 10 years ago

The proportion of students learning French has either remained the same or has slightly decreased in European countries during the last 10 years (see Figure C13). Regarding German, in primary and lower education the figure remained largely unchanged between 2005 and 2014, but in general upper secondary education, the proportion dropped by 11.0 percentage points (see Figure C14). The popularity of the Spanish language in lower secondary education has slightly increased during the last 10 years ( 5.6 percentage points) (see Figure C15).

## Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is limited in Europe

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is a teaching method which provides additional teaching in foreign languages without increasing the overall instruction time, or taking away lessons from other curriculum subjects. Although almost all countries have some schools providing this kind of teaching, only a few have introduced this approach in all schools at some stage. These include Austria and Liechtenstein in the first grades of primary education, Cyprus in at least one grade of primary education, Luxembourg and Malta at primary and secondary levels. In Italy CLIL is provided in the last grade of upper secondary education (see Figure B14).

## ... and its development presents great challenges

This teaching method poses significant challenges, notably in relation to teacher education and qualifications. Teachers applying CLIL need to be qualified in one (or more) non-language subject and have a high command of the foreign language used as the language of instruction. Moreover, specific methodological skills to teach a non-language subject through the medium of a foreign language are needed. In fact, in 15 education systems, teachers are required to have additional qualifications to teach in CLIL type of provision. In most cases, a particular language proficiency level is required usually B2 ('vantage') or C1 ('effective operational proficiency') levels of the Common European Framework of Reference for languages, established by the Council of Europe) (see Figure D5).

## Students are expected to reach 'independent user' level in their first foreign language by the time they finish school

In the curricula of nearly all countries, all four communication skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) are considered to be equally important at the end of compulsory education. Furthermore, the vast majority of countries set the same level of attainment for each of the four communication skills (see Figure E6).

A majority of countries use the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) established by the Council of Europe to set internationally comparable attainment levels for foreign languages. For the first foreign language, most countries require level A2 ('waystage') at the end of lower secondary education and B2 ('vantage') at the end of upper secondary education. The minimum requirements for the second foreign language in most countries jump from A1-A2 ('breakthrough' - 'waystage') at the end of lower secondary education to B1 ('threshold') at the end of upper secondary school (see Figure E7).

Attainment levels for the second learnt language are lower than for the first one in the majority of countries. The difference between the first and second foreign language in attainment levels is not surprising as the second foreign language is learnt for fewer years in all countries. Instruction time for the second foreign language is also lower.

## End of secondary education certificates usually record students' exam results, but do not often use the internationally comparable CEFR scale

In nearly all countries, at the end of secondary education, students receive a certificate referring to the foreign language(s) they have studied or, more specifically, the courses they have followed. Usually, assessment or exam results are also indicated. In seven countries (Estonia, France, Latvia, Lithuania, Austria, Romania and Slovakia), CEFR levels are used to express students' proficiency levels on the certificates (see Figure E9). This low figure is quite surprising given that in 22 education systems, the national tests in foreign languages, which nearly always take place at the end of secondary education, are aligned to the CEFR scale (see Figure E11).

## In half of the countries studied, generalist teachers teach foreign languages in primary education

In primary education, half of the countries recommend that foreign languages are taught by generalist teachers. Among these, half recommend only generalists at this education level whereas the other half mention both generalists and more specialised teachers (defined in the report as specialists and semispecialists) (see Figure D1).

In general secondary education, foreign language teachers are typically specialised teachers. Only three countries still have generalist teachers at lower secondary education: Iceland, Norway and Serbia. For the latter two, more specialised teachers are also recommended (see Figure D2).

The minimum qualification level of specialised foreign language teachers is usually the same for all education levels

In most countries, the minimum qualification level required of teachers specialised in foreign languages is the same for all level of educations. In 16 countries, specialised teachers should at least have a Master's degree. In 12 countries, a qualification at Bachelor's level is sufficient.

In the eight remaining education systems, the higher the level of education in which teachers work, the higher the minimum level of qualification. In Spain, Hungary and Romania, a Bachelor's degree is required for primary education and a Master's degree for general secondary education. In Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), Denmark, the Netherlands and Norway, a Master's degree is only required for specialised teachers in general upper secondary education (see Figure D4).

Transnational mobility for one in four foreign language teachers has already been supported by an EU programme

In the TALIS 2013 survey, lower secondary teachers from 19 European countries, report on their travels abroad for professional purposes during initial teacher education or while in service. More than half of foreign language teachers (56.9 \%) state that they have already travelled abroad for professional purposes (see Figure D8). In comparison to other subject teachers, this percentage is quite high as only $19.6 \%$ of non-language teachers report that they had done so.

There may be many reasons for this lack of take-up of transnational mobility. For example, there may be difficulties in replacing teachers for short periods or funding might still be an issue. While national funding schemes do exist, especially in countries from Western Europe (see Figure D9), EU funding is the main source of financial support for foreign language teachers who go abroad for professional purposes. In 2013, $26.1 \%$ of foreign language teachers who reported that they had already been abroad for professional purposes had done so with funding from an EU programme, such as Erasmus+. Only 11.5 \% had done so with financial support from a national or regional programme (Figure D10).

## ... and half of foreign language teachers state that they have already been abroad as part of teacher initial education

Amongst the lower secondary foreign language teachers that reported in TALIS 2013 that they had been abroad for professional reasons, $60.4 \%$ of them state that they did so to learn languages. Over half indicate that they have been abroad to study as part of their teacher education (see Figure D11). It is worth mentioning that more than half of foreign language teachers have been abroad as part of their initial training, whereas only four countries recommend or require that prospective foreign language teachers spend a period of time in the target language country (Ireland, France, the United Kingdom and Switzerland) (see Figure D7).

Other professional reasons for having been abroad, as reported by lower secondary foreign language teachers, are accompanying visiting students ( $46.3 \%$ ), establishing contact with schools abroad (31.5 \%) and teaching abroad (23.0 \%) (see Figure D11).

## Most European countries provide language support for newly arrived migrant students

Determining the appropriate types of support is one of the first steps to be taken when newly arrived migrant students enter the education system. Currently, central recommendations on testing the language of schooling for newly arrived students exist in approximately one third of European countries. In Greece, Cyprus, Latvia, Sweden and Norway, all newly arrived students undergo assessment in the language of schooling (at least in some education levels). Some other education systems (Belgium (Flemish Community), Croatia and Austria) assess the proficiency in the language of schooling of all students at specific stages in order to determine whether support is needed. If a newly arrived migrant student enters the education system at this particular stage, he or she will be tested as well. In the rest of Europe, the reception of newly arrived students is mostly a matter for school autonomy, and institutions are free to establish their own assessment procedures (see Figure E12).

One of the measures taken to support newly arrived students in the education system is the provision of separate classes where they are given intensive language teaching and, in some cases, an adapted curriculum for other subjects, with the intention of preparing them to move quickly into mainstream classes. Preparatory classes with intensive training in the language of schooling are available for newly arrived migrants in less than half the European countries and are usually limited to one or two years. Most European countries do not separate newly arrived migrants into preparatory classes, but integrate them into mainstream classrooms directly, into the grade corresponding to their age (see Figure E13).

Almost all countries provide additional classes in the language of schooling. Usually, newly arrived migrant students attend these classes instead of lessons in other subjects during school hours. More than a third of European education systems provide personalised teaching or an individualised curriculum. In several education systems, teaching assistants may be available in class. Nine countries (the Czech Republic, Germany, Austria, Slovenia, Finland, Sweden, Switzerland, Norway and Turkey) provide mother tongue tuition or bilingual subject teaching (see Figure E14).

## ... but only in two countries are all prospective teachers trained to work with migrant students

Teaching in multi-lingual and multi-cultural classes requires a complex set of skills. However, only a quarter of European countries have central recommendations or requirements for teachers working with students from migrant backgrounds who do not speak the language of schooling. Mostly, specific qualifications on the teaching of the language of schooling as a foreign language are required. Only in Denmark and Austria does initial teacher education prepare all prospective teachers for their role in facilitating the integration of students from migrant backgrounds (see Figure D6).

## CODES, ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

## Country codes

| EU/EU-28 | European Union | AT | Austria |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| BE | Belgium | PL | Poland |
| BE fr | Belgium - French Community | PT | Portugal |
| BE de | Belgium - German-speaking Community | RO | Romania |
| BE nl | Belgium - Flemish Community | SI | Slovenia |
| BG | Bulgaria | SK | Slovakia |
| CZ | Czech Republic | FI | Finland |
| DK | Denmark | SE | Sweden |
| DE | Germany | UK | United Kingdom |
| EE | Estonia | UK-ENG | England |
| IE | Ireland | UK-WLS | Wales |
| EL | Greece | UK-NIR | Northern Ireland |
| ES | Spain | UK-SCT | Scotland |
| FR | France | EFTA/EEA and candidate countries |  |
| HR | Croatia | BA | Bosnia and Herzegovina |
| IT | Italy | CH | Switzerland |
| CY | Cyprus | IS | Iceland |
| LV | Latvia | LI | Liechtenstein |
| LT | Lithuania | ME | Montenegro |
| LU | Luxembourg | MK* | Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia |
| HU | Hungary | NO | Norway |
| MT | Malta | RS | Serbia |
| NL | Netherlands | TR | Turkey |

* ISO code 3166. Provisional code which does not prejudge in any way the definitive nomenclature for this country, which will be agreed following the conclusion of negotiations currently taking place on this subject at the United Nations (http://www.iso.org/iso/country codes/iso 3166 code lists.htm [accessed 24.04.2017]).


## Statistics

| $(:)$ | Data not available | $(-) \quad$ Not applicable or zero |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| p.p. | Percentage points |  |

## Abbreviations and acronyms

## International conventions

| CEFR | Common European Framework of Reference for Languages |
| :--- | :--- |
| CLIL | Content and Language Integrated Learning |
| ECEC | Early Childhood Education and Care |
| ESLC | European Survey on Language Competences |
| Eurostat | Statistical Office of the European Communities |
| ISCED | International Standard Classification of Education |
| ITE | Initial Teacher Education |
| OECD | Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development |
| PISA | Programme for International Student Assessment (OECD) |
| TALIS | Teaching and Learning International Survey (OECD) |
| UOE | UNESCO/OECD/EUROSTAT |
| VET | Vocational Education and Training |

## National abbreviations in their language of origin

| AHS | Allgemeinbildende höhere Schule | AT |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| GCSE | General Certificate of Secondary Education | UK-ENG/WLS/NIR |
| HAVO | Hoger Algemeen Voortgezet Onderwijs | NL |
| NMS | Neue Mittelschule | AT |
| PGCE | Postgraduate Certificate in Education | UK-ENG/WLS/NIR |
| VMBO | Voorbereidend Middelbaar Beroepsonderwijs | NL |
| VWO | Voorbereidend Wetenschappelijk Onderwijs | NL |
| ZŠ/G | Základní škola/Gymnázium | CZ |

## CONTEXT

The language pattern of most European countries is complex with a variety of languages spoken. Languages may be spoken across entire states or they may have a regional basis within countries; it is also common for states to share languages with their neighbours around their border areas, thus reflecting their shared history. Europe's multi-lingual nature may be approached from different angles - one of which is, unquestionably, the official recognition of languages by European or national authorities. This chapter therefore starts by listing all official languages in European countries.
State languages are usually the languages of schooling. However, some regional, minority or nonterritorial languages with official status may also be the main language of schooling in the regions where these languages predominate. Nevertheless, some students do attend schools where the main language of schooling differs from the language they speak at home. Although these students tend to be rich in language capital, they may need some additional support in the language of schooling. Moreover, their teachers may need training in how to teach the language of schooling as a second language and how to work in multi-lingual classrooms.

In order to provide the context for these aspects of language diversity, this chapter also presents several indicators on the languages spoken at home, where they differ from the language of schooling or the language of the test. These indicators are based on data from the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2015. Most of the European education systems covered by this report participated in the survey. In order to simplify the Figures based on PISA data, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Liechtenstein and Serbia who did not participate in the survey, are not featured.
All statistical data for this chapter are available in Annexe 3. For further information on the PISA database, see the Statistical Databases and Terminology section.

## MORE THAN 60 LANGUAGES ARE OFFICIALLY RECOGNISED IN THE EUROPEAN UNION

In the European Union, 66 languages have official status, from which 26 languages are official state languages. An official language means that the language is used for legal and public administration purposes within a specified area of any given state. The official status can be limited to part of the state or extend over its entire territory. The official language rights may vary across different countries, regions and languages.

The European Union has 24 official and working languages, which are state languages in at least one of its Member countries $\left({ }^{1}\right)$. Regulations and other documents of general application are drafted in the 24 official languages. There are fewer official languages than Member States, as some share common languages. German, Greek, English, French, Dutch and Swedish are official state languages in more than one country.
In most European countries only one language is recognised as a state language (see Figure A1). However, Ireland, Cyprus, Malta and Finland have two official languages. In Luxembourg, as well as in Bosnia and Herzegovina, there are three state languages. Belgium has three official languages, but these are used in delimited linguistic areas and not recognised as administrative languages across the whole territory of the country. Only the region of Brussels-Capital is bi-lingual (Dutch and French). Similarly, although Switzerland has four official state languages, most of the cantons are mono-lingual. German is the only official language in 17 Swiss Cantons, 4 Cantons are French-speaking and

[^1]1 Canton is Italian-speaking. In addition, 3 Cantons are bi-lingual (German and French), while 1 is trilingual (German, Italian and Romansh).

More than half of all European countries officially recognise regional or minority languages within their borders for legal or administrative purposes. The official recognition is normally granted to languages within a certain geographical area - often a region - in which they are widely spoken. Often a given proportion of the population speaking the minority language is necessary to invoke the official language rights. For instance, in Serbia a minority language is officially recognised and can be used for legal and administrative purposes in any local administrative unit where the minority population accounts for at least $15 \%$ of the total number of inhabitants. In Poland, Romania, Slovakia and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, the threshold is set at $20 \%$. In Hungary, if the minority population exceeds $10 \%$, the local minority self-governing authority can require that the minority language is used in addition to the state language on local government decrees, official forms and public notice boards, as well as in the local media. If the minority population exceeds $20 \%$ of the total number of inhabitants, additional rights may be granted on request. For example, local public officers who speak the minority language may be employed.

Figure A1: State languages and regional, minority or non-territorial languages with official status, 2015/16


## Explanatory note

Figure A1 groups regional, minority and non-territorial languages under the heading 'regional or minority languages'. Languages in the table are listed in alphabetical order according their ISO 639-3 code (see http://www.sil.org/iso639-3/ [accessed 24.10.2016]).
For a definition of 'official language'; 'state language'; 'regional or minority language' and 'non-territorial language', see the Glossary.

## Country-specific notes

Belgium (BE fr, BE nl), Czech Republic, Germany, Estonia, Greece, Spain, France, Italy, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Malta, Austria, Romania, Slovenia, Finland, United Kingdom (Scotland), Iceland and Montenegro: All these countries have granted official language status to their sign language(s).
Belgium and Switzerland: The official languages are only used in delimited areas.
Germany: Romany is an officially recognised minority language under the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages. It is, however, not an administrative language or an official language in the sense of the definition.
Spain: In addition, Bable-Asturian, a language which does not have an official status, is protected by law in the Principado de Asturias and Castilla y León.
United Kingdom: Welsh in Wales, Scottish Gaelic and Scots in Scotland.

Figure A1 (continued): State languages and regional, minority or non-territorial languages with official status, 2015/16

|  | State language | Regional and/or minority language with official status |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| BE | German, Dutch, French |  |
| BG | Bulgarian |  |
| CZ | Czech | German, Polish, Romany, Slovak |
| DK | Danish | German, Faroese, Greenlandic |
| DE | German | Danish, Frisian, Low German, Romany, Sorbian |
| EE | Estonian |  |
| IE | English, lrish |  |
| EL | Greek |  |
| ES | Spanish | Catalan, Valencian, Basque, Galician, Occitan |
| FR | French |  |
| HR | Croatian | Bosnian, Bulgarian, Czech, German, Hebrew, Hungarian, Italian, македонски, Polish, Vlax Romani, Romanian, Romany, Rusyn, Russian, Montenegrin, Slovak, Slovenian, Albanian, Serbian, Turkish, Ukrainian |
| IT | Italian | Catalan, German, Greek, French, Friulian, Croatian, Ladin, Occitan, Provençal, Slovenian, Albanian, Sardinian |
| CY | Greek, Turkish | Maronite, Armenian |
| LV | Latvian | Liv (Livonian) |
| LT | Lithuanian |  |
| LU | German, French, Luxembourgish |  |
| HU | Hungarian | Bulgarian, German, Greek, Croatian, Armenian, Polish, Romanian, Romany and Boyash, Rusyn, Slovak, Slovenian, Serbian, Ukrainian |
| MT | English, Maltese |  |
| NL | Dutch | Frisian |
| AT | German | Czech, Croatian, Hungarian, Slovak, Slovenian, Romany |


|  | State language | Regional and/or minority language with official status |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| PL | Polish | Belarusian, Czech, Kashubian, German, Hebrew, Armenian, Karaim, Lithuanian, Romany, Russian, Lemko, Slovak, Tatar, Ukrainian, Yiddish |
| PT | Portuguese | Mirandês |
| RO | Romanian | Bulgarian, Czech, German, Greek, Croatian, Hungarian, Polish, Romany, Russian, Slovak, Serbian, Turkish, Ukrainian |
| SI | Slovenian | Hungarian, Italian |
| SK | Slovak | Bulgarian, Czech, German, Croatian, Hungarian, Polish, Romany, Rusyn, Ukrainian |
| FI | Finnish, Swedish | Romany, Russian, Sami, Tatar, Yiddish |
| SE | Swedish | Finnish, Meänkieli, Sami, Romany, Yiddish |
| UK | English | Welsh, Scottish Gaelic, Scots |
| BA | Bosnian, Croatian, Serbian |  |
| CH | German, French, Italian, Romansh |  |
| IS | Icelandic |  |
| LI | German |  |
| ME | Montenegrin | Bosnian, Croatian, Albanian, Serbian |
| MK | Македонски | Bosnian, Romany, Albanian, Serbian, Turkish |
| No | Norwegian (two versions: Bokmål and Nynorsk) | Finnish, Kven, Sami |
| RS | Serbian | Bosnian, Bulgarian, Czech, Croatian, Hungarian, Montenegrin, македонски, Romanian, Rusyn, Slovak, Albanian |
| TR | Turkish |  |

The number of officially recognised regional or minority languages varies from one country to another. Latvia, the Netherlands and Portugal each have only one official regional language. In contrast, Croatia has granted official status to 21 regional, minority or non-territorial languages. Hungary, Italy, Poland, Romania and Croatia have more than 10 official regional, minority or non-territorial languages. Some regional or minority languages are officially recognised in several countries. Many Slavic languages (Bulgarian, Czech, Croatian, Slovak, Slovenian, Polish, Russian and Ukrainian) as well as German and Hungarian, are recognised as regional or minority languages in more than three European Union countries.

Another part of the language picture in Europe is the existence of non-territorial languages, i.e. languages used by certain groups of people within the state, but 'which [...] cannot be identified with a particular area thereof' (Council of Europe, 1992). Romany is a typical example of a non-territorial language. It is an officially recognised minority language in 10 countries - the Czech Republic, Germany, Croatia, Hungary, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, Finland, Sweden and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia. Besides, in Austria, Romany is recognised as a minority/regional language in the Land of Burgenland.

The mosaic of European languages would not be complete without mentioning sign languages. In 1988, the European Parliament unanimously approved a resolution on sign languages (European Parliament, 1988), asking all EU member countries to recognise their national sign language(s) as official languages. At present, around two-thirds of European countries officially recognise their sign language(s).

Finally, in addition to the official languages, attention should be drawn to the existence of languages spoken by immigrant populations, notably Arabic, Turkish, Urdu, Hindi and Chinese (Eurostat, 2016). These languages contribute to European linguistic diversity and complete the linguistic picture.

## IN MOST EUROPEAN COUNTRIES THE MAJORITY OF 15-YEAR-OLDS SPEAK the Language of schooling at home

The PISA 2015 data reveals that the majority of 15 -year-old students in almost all European countries speak the language of the PISA test at home, which is further considered as a proxy for speaking the language of schooling. The data reveals that, at EU level, $91.0 \%$ of 15 -year-old students speak the language of schooling at home. The languages spoken at home that differ most often from the language of schooling are Spanish, Turkish and Russian. A considerable proportion of Spanishspeaking students attend schools where a regional language (Valencian, Galician or Basque) is the main language of schooling. In addition to Turkey, Turkish-speaking students can be found in schools where the language of schooling is German, Dutch, French, Danish or Finnish. Russian speaking students attend schools where the main language of schooling is German, Latvian, Lithuanian, Czech, Estonian, Finnish and Polish.

Figure A2 shows that the proportion of 15 -year-old students who do not speak the language of schooling at home is similar to the EU-28 average (approximately 9 \%) in Bulgaria, France, Latvia, Slovakia, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), Norway and Turkey.

However, due to their particular linguistic circumstances, some European countries differ significantly from the EU average. Malta and Luxembourg have especially high proportions of students who speak a different language at home to the language of schooling. In Malta, which is a bi-lingual state, $87.7 \%$ of 15 -year-olds speak a language at home other than the language of schooling. All students took the PISA test in English, which is the pre-dominant language for science instruction, but 84.4 \% indicate that they speak Maltese at home. Normally, both Maltese and English are used in class through code switching (see Chapter B, Section III on CLIL), while all formal aspects of maths and science education (textbooks, workbooks, assessments, tests, exams, written exercises, etc.) are mainly in English. In Luxembourg, 84.5 \% of 15 -year-old students speak a different language at home to the language of schooling - 45.3 \% indicate that at home they speak Luxembourgish - a Germanic language - which is one of the three official languages of Luxembourg (see Figure A1). Almost all of the students that speak Luxembourgish at home ( $94.1 \%$ ) report that German is their language of schooling. Furthermore, $21.8 \%$ of 15 -year-old students in Luxembourg speak Portuguese at home, but half of them have German and the other half French as the language of schooling.

Switzerland also has a significantly higher proportion than other countries of 15 -year-olds that mainly speak a language at home that is different to the language of schooling (26.1 \%). In this multi-lingual state, most students who speak German, French or Italian (or their dialects) have the same language at home and at school, but there are many students who speak languages other than the Swiss official languages at home (Portuguese, Albanian, Serbo-Croatian, English, Spanish and Turkish).

In Belgium, Germany, Spain, Cyprus, Austria and Sweden, the proportion of 15 -year-old students who mainly speak a language at home that is different to the language of schooling is higher than the EU28 average, ranging between $10 \%$ and $22 \%$.

In contrast, Poland has an especially language homogenous 15-year-old population, with only $1.1 \%$ of students that speak a different language at home to the language of schooling. The proportion is also very low (significantly below $4 \%$ ) in Croatia, Hungary, Portugal, Romania and Montenegro.

At EU level, the proportion of students who were speaking languages at home other than the language of schooling increased by $3.0 \%$ between the PISA testing cycles of 2003 and 2015 (see Annexe 3). The proportion grew in half of the education systems analysed. The increase was especially high in Switzerland ( $14.0 \%$ ). In Belgium (French Community), Austria and Sweden, the proportion rose from around 7-9 \% in 2003 to 16-19 \% in 2015.

In contrast, in Belgium (Flemish Community), Luxembourg and the Netherlands, the proportion of students speaking the language of schooling at home in 2015 was lower than in 2003. Nevertheless, in Belgium (Flemish Community) and Luxembourg, the proportion of 15 -year-old students who mainly speak a different language at home to the language of schooling remains higher than the EU average. From 2003 to 2015, in Belgium (Flemish Community), the share fell from $22.9 \%$ to $15.5 \%$, and in Luxembourg from 92.5 \% to 84.5 \%. In the Netherlands, the proportion was $7.2 \%$ in 2015 (below the EU average), while it was 14.6 \% in 2003 (above the EU average).

Figure A2: Proportion of 15-year-old students who mainly speak a different language at home to the language of schooling, 2015


Explanatory note (Figure A2)<br>When the indicated 'language of test' corresponds to the indicated 'language at home', students are considered as speaking the same language at home as at school. Speaking a dialect of a certain language at home is considered as speaking the standard language. PISA used this approach in creating the variable 'International Language at Home' (ST022Q01TA). As this approach has not yet been applied to BE de and IT, dialects have been recoded accordingly.<br>The Figure takes into account the standard errors that reflect by how much the value calculated from a sample may vary. The Figure shows the five groups of countries where the proportion of 15 -year-old students who mainly speak a different language at home to the language of schooling differs significantly ( $\mathrm{p}<.05$ ) from any other group.<br>For further information on PISA, see the Statistical Databases and Terminology section. See Annexe 3 for data.

## TWO THIRDS OF THE 15-YEAR-OLDS WHO DO NOT SPEAK THE LANGUAGE OF SCHOOLING AT HOME ARE IMMIGRANTS

Identifying the populations that do not speak the language of schooling at home might help in providing more appropriate language support measures. Figure A3 shows the proportions of students speaking the same language at school and at home among the immigrant and non-immigrant populations. Immigrant and non-immigrant populations are defined on the basis of the birthplace of parents. A student is defined as an 'immigrant' if both his/her parents were born abroad. Immigrant students can be either born in the country of residence (second-generation immigrants) or foreignborn (first-generation immigrants). A student is considered a 'non-immigrant' if at least one of his/her parents was born in the country of residence.

At EU level, immigrant students form two thirds of those who did not speak the language of schooling at home (comparing the light red bars on the left and right hand side of the Figure A3). However, having parents who were born abroad does not necessarily mean that the student does not speak the language of schooling at home. At EU level, $5.6 \%$ of 15 -year-old students are immigrants that speak the language of schooling at home (see the dark red bars in the left side of the Figure A3). A similar proportion of 15 -year-old students ( $5.5 \%$ ) are immigrants that do not speak the language of schooling at home. In other words, half of the 15 -year-old-students whose parents were born abroad indicate that they speak the language of schooling at home.

Remarkably, one third of the15-year-old students that do not speak the language of schooling at home are non-immigrants. At EU level, $3.4 \%$ of 15 -year-olds are non-immigrants who do not speak the language of schooling at home. Moreover, since many countries have very low numbers of immigrant students (see the left side bars in the Figure A3), non-immigrant students constitute the largest share of students that do not speak the language of schooling in the majority of European countries.

Figure A3 shows that the immigration status of the students who do not speak the language of schooling at home varies greatly between countries. In those that have a significantly higher proportion of 15 -year-old students than the EU average (red countries in the Figure A2), nonimmigrant students constitute the majority in Belgium (German-speaking Community), Spain, Cyprus, Luxembourg and Malta. In contrast, immigrant students predominate among those who do not speak the language of schooling in Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), Germany, Austria, Sweden and Switzerland. For example, in Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), the 15 -year-old immigrant students mostly speak Arabic, Turkish and other European Union languages that are not the official languages in Belgium. In Germany, most of these students speak Russian or Turkish. In Austria, immigrant students most commonly speak Turkish, Bosnian, Serbian, Croatian and Albanian languages at home. In Switzerland, the country with the third highest proportion of students not speaking the language of schooling, the languages spoken at home are mostly Albanian, Portuguese, Yugoslavian (Serbian, Croatian), Turkish and English.

CONTEXT

Figure A3: Proportion of immigrant and non-immigrant 15-year-old students by language spoken at home, 2015

.. who speak another language at home
. who speak the language of the test at home
Insufficient sample (fewer than 30 students or 5 schools with valid data or too much missing data)
Source: Eurydice, on the basis of PISA 2015.

## Explanatory note (Figure A3)

The values indicated in the Figure are an estimation based on the survey results. See Annexe 3 for the exact data and standard errors of the estimates. For further information on PISA, see the Statistical Databases and Terminology section.
When the indicated 'language of test' corresponds to the indicated 'language at home', students are considered as speaking the same language at home as at school. Speaking a dialect of a certain language at home is considered as speaking the standard language. PISA used this approach in creating the variable 'International Language at Home' (ST022Q01TA). As this approach has not yet been applied to BE de and IT, dialects have been recoded accordingly.
A student is defined as an 'immigrant' if both his/her parents were born abroad.

Non-immigrant students often form a substantial portion of the students who do not speak the language of schooling at home in those countries that have several official languages (see Figure A1). In Belgium (German-speaking Community), non-immigrant students form the majority of those that do not speak the language of schooling because $7.1 \%$ of them are French-speaking students attending German-speaking schools. In Luxembourg, non-immigrant students form slightly more than a half of those that do not speak the language of schooling at home. This is mainly due to the large proportion of non-immigrant 15 -year-olds who speak Luxembourgish at home but have German as the language of schooling. In Malta - the country with the highest proportion of students who do not speak the language of schooling at home - the majority of these students are non-immigrants, who took the test in English but spoke Maltese at home. Normally, both Maltese and English are used in class through code switching (see Chapter B, Section III on CLIL), while all formal aspects of science education (textbooks, workbooks, assessments, tests, exams, written exercises, etc.) are mainly in English.

In Spain, many students speak a language other than the language of schooling at home due to regional variations in the language of schooling. For example, $9.8 \%$ of 15 -year-olds are nonimmigrants who speak Spanish at home but have a regional language as the language of schooling, mostly Catalan.

## MOST SCHOOLS HAVE LESS THAN A QUARTER OF STUDENTS WHOSE MOTHER TONGUE IS NOT THE LANGUAGE OF SCHOOLING

Teaching and learning in a heterogeneous language context is obviously a challenge both for teachers and students. Language diversity in the student intake is also a major challenge for the education systems concerned. Specific measures may be needed to support students in mastering the language of schooling as well as to support teachers in managing multi-lingual and, in some cases, multi-cultural classes.

Language heterogeneity at school, defined here as schools where more than $25 \%$ of students speak a different language at home, varies between countries. This can partly be explained by the national language context: some countries have several state languages and/or regional, minority or nonterritorial languages (see Figure A1). Another factor is the proportion of students from migrant backgrounds who speak a foreign language at home (see Figure A3).

At EU level, approximately $9.7 \%$ of 15 -year-old students are in language heterogeneous schools, where more than $25 \%$ of students speak a different language at home to the language of schooling. In a first group of 10 countries, the proportion of these students does not significantly differ from the EU average. This is the case in Bulgaria, Greece, France, Latvia, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Slovakia, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), Norway and Turkey.

Figure A4: Proportion of 15-year-old students attending schools where more than $\mathbf{2 5} \%$ of students do not speak the language of schooling at home, 2015


Source: Eurydice, on the basis of PISA 2015.
UK (1) = UK-ENG/WLS/NIR

## Explanatory note

The values indicated in the Figure are an estimation based on the survey results. See Annexe 3 for the exact data and standard errors of the estimates. For further information on PISA, see the Statistical Databases and Terminology section.

When the indicated 'language of test' corresponds to the indicated 'language at home', students are considered as speaking the same language at home as at school. Speaking a dialect of a certain language at home is considered as speaking the standard language. PISA used this approach in creating the variable 'International Language at Home' (ST022Q01TA). As this approach has not yet been applied to BE de and IT, dialects have been recoded accordingly.

In a second group of nine countries, the proportion of 15 -year-old students in language heterogeneous schools is significantly above the EU average (Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), Germany, Spain, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Malta, Austria, Sweden and Switzerland). In Luxembourg and Malta, at least $97 \%$ of 15 -year-old students are in language heterogeneous schools. In Malta, which is a bilingual state, students are taught in both Maltese and English in all state schools (see Chapter B, Section III on CLIL). Both languages are used to teach maths and sciences, but the textbooks, written exercises and assessments in these subjects use mainly English. As all students took the PISA test in English and 84.4 \% indicated that they speak Maltese at home, these students are considered to have a different language of schooling to the language they speak at home. However, as Maltese is the language of schooling for other subjects, it must be noted that this high percentage does not reflect all subjects taught.

In a third group of eight countries, the proportion of 15 -year-old students in language heterogeneous schools is significantly lower than the EU average. This is the case in the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Ireland, Italy, Romania, Slovenia and Finland. Romania is an exception since all students are in homogenous schools.

Most of the countries belonging to the first group are also characterised by the fact that the proportion of students that do not speak the language of schooling at home does not significantly differ from the EU average (see Figure A2). However, in Greece, Lithuania and the Netherlands, the overall proportion of students that do not speak the language of schooling is lower than the EU average. This might indicate that in these three countries students that do not speak the language of schooling tend to be more concentrated in certain schools than in other EU countries.

## ORGANISATION

## SECTION I - STRUCTURES

Section I is concerned with foreign language provision at pre-primary, primary and secondary levels as laid down within countries' official regulatory frameworks. They focus on the number of languages provided as compulsory subjects and core curriculum options. Languages as compulsory subjects are languages that all students on a particular educational programme must study. Languages as core curriculum options are languages that all schools must offer as part of a set of optional subjects; students must choose at least one subject (which does not have to be a language), from this set of subjects.

The indicators show the starting age of the first and second foreign languages as compulsory subjects and the trends in starting ages. They also provide information on the circumstances in which some or all students have the opportunity to learn additional languages, depending on the educational pathway they take. In addition, one indicator focuses on the EU objective to teach two foreign languages from an early age. Finally, they illustrate the difference in the number of years students in general education and those in vocational education have to study up to two foreign languages as compulsory subjects. Annexe 1 provides a brief summary of foreign language provision in each country to support the information presented in this section.

## COMPULSORY LEARNING OF THE FIRST FOREIGN LANGUAGE STARTS between 6 AND 8 YEARS OLD IN MOST EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

In most countries, the starting age of the first foreign language as a compulsory subject ranges from between 6 and 8 years old, in the first year(s) of primary education. In Belgium (German-speaking Community), all children enrolled in pre-primary education start learning French as early as 3 years old. In Spain, a similar early start also occurs in four Autonomous Communities (Cantabria, Castilla-La Mancha, Castilla y León and Communidad Valenciana). At the other end of the scale stands the United Kingdom (Wales and Northern Ireland) where it is not obligatory for all students to start learning a foreign language until the age of 11 when they begin secondary education.

Schools in Estonia, Finland and Sweden have some freedom to determine the grade in which the first foreign language is introduced as a compulsory subject. Central education authorities define an age (or grade) bracket for the introduction of foreign languages: between 7 and 9 years old in Estonia and Finland, and between 7 and 10 in Sweden. According to national statistics, schools in Estonia and Finland usually start foreign language teaching when students are 9 years old. In Sweden, foreign language learning usually starts at age 7 .

Ireland and the United Kingdom (Scotland) are the only countries where learning a foreign language at school is not compulsory. In Ireland, all students learn Irish and English, neither of which are viewed as foreign languages. In the United Kingdom (Scotland), where there is no statutory curriculum, schools have a duty to offer foreign languages, but students are under no obligation to learn one. However, a new policy, which should be fully implemented by 2021, will mean all students will start to learn a foreign language from age 5 (see Figure B5).

Some countries are introducing reforms to lower the starting age for the compulsory learning of the first foreign language. In Cyprus, since September 2015, children attending pre-primary education should start learning English from the age of 3, although this phase does not form part of compulsory education. The full implementation of this change is scheduled for September 2017.

Figure B1: Starting ages at which the first and second foreign languages are compulsory subjects for all students in pre-primary, primary and/or general secondary education, 2015/16


Source: Eurydice.

## Explanatory note

This Figure deals primarily with languages described as 'foreign' (or 'modern') in the curriculum. Regional and/or minority languages (see Figure B12) and classical languages (see Figure B13) are included only when the curriculum designates them as alternatives to foreign languages.
The starting ages reflect the normal age of students when foreign language teaching begins; they do not take into account early or late entry to school, grade repetition or other interruptions to schooling (students' notional age).
'Phasing in' means that the reforms are being implemented in 2015/16. Where implementation does not begin until after this academic year, the reforms are reported solely in the text.
'Second language' means a language learned by students in addition to the first, which results in students learning two different languages at the same time.
For a definition of 'foreign language', 'language as a compulsory subject' and 'phasing in', see the Glossary.

## Country-specific notes

Belgium (BE fr): In the Region of Brussels-Capital and in the Walloon Communes with specific language status, students must start learning the first foreign language as a compulsory subject from age 8.
Germany: In six Länder, students must start learning the first foreign language from age 6.
Spain: In some Autonomous Communities, learning two languages is compulsory from age 12 (Cantabria and Galicia) and 10 (Región de Murcia and Canarias).
Slovakia: The situation described in the Figure will be fully implemented in 2019/20.
United Kingdom (ENG): Academies do not have to follow the national curriculum, but most do.
Switzerland: Five Cantons have slightly different starting ages: 6 and 7 years old for the first language; 11 and 12 years old for the second language.

In Portugal, the reform making English a compulsory subject for students aged 8 was fully implemented in 2015/16; since 2016/17, it also applies to students aged 9. In Slovenia, a reform introduced in 2014/15 made the learning of one foreign language compulsory for all students aged 7 it was fully implemented by 2016/17.

In Greece, from 2016/17, all 6 year old students have to start learning English. In Poland, from the 2017/18 school year, foreign language learning will be part of non compulsory pre-primary education, from age 3 . In contrast, following the changes in the starting age of compulsory education, since 2016/17, compulsory foreign language learning for all children will be postponed from age 5 to age 6.

In a great majority of countries, it is compulsory for all students in general education to learn two different foreign languages at the same time at some point during their schooling. In most cases, the starting age for the second foreign language ranges from 11 to 13 years old. Usually, this corresponds to the end of primary education or the beginning of secondary education. Luxembourg stands out as all students learn a second foreign language from the age of 7 . In Estonia, as is the case with the first foreign language, central education authorities require schools to introduce this teaching within a defined age range ( $10-12$ years old). A similar requirement applies to schools in the Czech Republic: students must start learning a second foreign language between the ages of 11 and 13.

In most countries, the learning of the second foreign language starts a number of years later than the first foreign language. However, in several countries, the learning of a second foreign language as a compulsory subject follows rather quickly (within one to two years after the beginning of the first compulsory language). This is notably the case in Luxembourg and Iceland where students start learning the second language one year after the first; while in Greece, the Netherlands and Switzerland, it is two years after. In the Netherlands, schools decide when to introduce the learning of the first foreign language, but most schools do so when students are between 10 and 12 , that is to say two years or less before they start the second compulsory foreign language at the age of 12 .

Luxembourg and Iceland are the only countries where all students in general education have to study three languages. However, the duration of this compulsory learning greatly differs: six years (between 13 and 19 years old) in Luxembourg, and one year in Iceland (between 17 and 18 years old).

In France, since 2016/17, the second language is compulsory for all students at an earlier age, i.e. from the age of 12. Conversely, the reform introduced in Slovakia in September 2015, which will be fully implemented by 2019/20, increases the age at which the second foreign language starts being a compulsory subject: it is now 15. In this case, education authorities revoked a decision taken some years ago to make this second foreign language compulsory from the age of 11 (see Figure B3). In Poland, since 2016/17, the changes in the starting age of compulsory education mean that all students start learning the second foreign language from the age of 13 .

## COMPULSORY LEARNING OF THE FIRST FOREIGN LANGUAGE BEGINS AT AN INCREASINGLY EARLY AGE

Over the last two decades, Europe has witnessed an increase in the duration of compulsory foreign language learning. This increase has been achieved almost everywhere by lowering the age at which this learning begins.

As Figure B2 shows, since 2003, the most dramatic changes have taken place in Belgium (Germanspeaking Community), Cyprus, Poland, the United Kingdom (England) and Italy. In the first two of these countries, the compulsory learning of one foreign language now starts at the beginning of preprimary level (prior to the start of compulsory education), whereas 13 years ago, it only began in the second and third years of primary education respectively. Italy is an exceptional case as the lengthening of the period of compulsory foreign language learning for all students has taken place not only at primary level but also, and quite importantly, at upper secondary level.

Figure B2: Period during which learning a foreign language is compulsory in pre-primary, primary and/or general secondary education, 2002/03, 2010/11, 2015/16


[^2]
## Explanatory note

This Figure deals primarily with languages described as 'foreign' (or 'modern') in the curriculum. Regional and/or minority languages (see Figure B12) and classical languages (see Figure B13) are included only when the curriculum designates them as alternatives to foreign languages.
The starting age refers to the first compulsory foreign language and reflects the normal age of students (students' notional age); it does not take into account early or late entry to school, grade repetition or other interruptions to schooling. The duration of provision refers to any language learnt.
For 2015/16 when the measure is 'being phased in', this is indicated. However, for the years 2003 and 2011, even if a reform were being phased in at this time, it is not shown.
For further analysis and country specific information on the situation in 2015/16, see Figure B1.
For a definition of 'phasing in', 'foreign language' and 'language as a compulsory subject', see the Glossary.
Country-specific notes
Belgium (BE fr): The French Community is responsible in (a) Brussels and in the Walloon Communes with a specific language status, wherever the language of instruction is French, and (b) in the French-speaking part of Wallonia.
Belgium ( $\mathbf{B E ~ n l}$ ): The Flemish Community is responsible in (a) Brussels wherever the language of instruction is Dutch, and (b) in the Flemish Region.
Estonia and Finland: In 2010/11 and 2002/03, the education authorities specified only that pupils had to start learning a foreign language as compulsory subject between the ages of 7 and 9 .
Ireland: Foreign language teaching is not compulsory. The official languages of English and Irish are taught to all students.
Spain: Since 2006, Autonomous Communities can decide to make the learning of a foreign language compulsory for children attending pre-primary education. The Figure presents the most widespread situation across Spain.
Netherlands: It is compulsory to learn a foreign language during primary education. In practice, this occurs between the ages of 10 and 12, but schools can organise this provision at an earlier stage.
Sweden: In 2010/11, and 2002/03, the education authorities specified only that students had to start learning a foreign language as a compulsory subject between the ages of 7 and 10 .

In the period since 2003, 14 education systems did not lower the age at which learning a foreign language became compulsory for all students. There are, however, particular circumstances in the majority of these education systems. In 2003, in Luxembourg, Malta, Austria and Norway, students were already obliged to learn a language at an early age ( $5-6$ years old). In Estonia, the Netherlands, Finland and Sweden, schools enjoyed some flexibility in determining the year when students had to start learning a foreign language. In Belgium (Flemish Community), a reduction in the number of years' study occurred in Brussels because it adopted the same legislation on obligatory foreign language teaching as the rest of the Community.

In 2015/16, in the great majority of countries, students learn one language as a compulsory subject for 10, 11 or 12 years. A small group of countries (the Netherlands, the United Kingdom (England), Belgium (French Community (except Brussels and the Walloon communes with specific linguistic status) and the Flemish Community), Hungary and Portugal) have regulations making this learning obligatory for between seven and nine years. Two parts of the United Kingdom (Wales and Northern Ireland) stand out as compulsory language learning lasts only three years. At the other end of the spectrum, students must learn one language for 13 years in Italy, Luxembourg, Poland, Romania and the former Republic of Macedonia, and for 15 years in Belgium (German-speaking Community) and Cyprus.

This obligation to study one foreign language lasts until the end of upper secondary level in all countries except in Malta, Portugal and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland). In Malta and Portugal, all students can study languages until the end of upper secondary level, as all schools have to offer at least one optional language (see Figure B5).

## IN MORE COUNTRIES, STUDENTS MUST LEARN TWO FOREIGN LANGUAGES FROM THE FIRST YEARS OF LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION

Figure B1 indicates that in a majority of education systems, all general education students must learn two languages at the same time at one point during their schooling. Figure B3 shows that since 2003, a little over a third of the education systems for which there is data, introduced curriculum reform relating to the introduction or removal of second languages, or to the duration of second language learning.

The reforms in most countries can be divided into two categories: those where it is now compulsory to learn two languages whereas previously it was not; and those where the learning of the second language as a compulsory subject now starts at an earlier age. In the majority of cases, these changes took place or began to be implemented before 2011.
Denmark, Italy, Malta and Turkey belong to the first category. In the first three countries, it is now obligatory for all students to learn two foreign languages from the age of 11. This obligation stops when students move to upper secondary school. In Turkey, the second foreign language becomes compulsory for all general education students starting upper secondary level.

In the second category, Greece and Iceland join the small group of countries where the compulsory learning of two foreign languages starts at primary level. In Greece, this obligation stops when students reach the end of lower secondary education. The Czech Republic, France and Poland have substantially lowered the age at which all students must start learning a second foreign language: in the Czech Republic and Poland, this obligation previously only affected students in upper secondary education, but now it applies to all students in the early years of lower secondary education.

In three countries, recent reforms reduced the number of years during which all students are obliged to learn two foreign languages. In Cyprus, since 2015/16, the second language is no longer compulsory for all students in general upper secondary education, although students aged 16 to 18 can choose a second foreign language as an option, or take additional lessons in English. In Slovenia, in 2011, a reform making the second language compulsory from the age of 12 was being phased in but it was put on hold in November 2011. In 2016, the obligation to learn two foreign languages applies only to students aged 15 onwards. Below this age, a second language is available as a core curriculum option from aged 12 or as part of the extended curriculum from aged 9. In Slovakia, an ongoing reform that will be fully implemented by 2019/20 will eventually make the learning of two foreign languages compulsory from the age of 15 instead of 11 (see Figure B1).

In 2015/16, in about half of the education systems that require all students to study two languages at the same time at one point during their schooling, the period of learning lasts for four years in Bulgaria, Cyprus, Austria, Slovenia, Slovakia, Bosnia-Herzegovina and Turkey, and five years in Belgium (German-speaking and Flemish Communities), Denmark, Greece, France, Lithuania, Malta and the Netherlands). The period of learning two languages is six years in the Czech Republic, Poland and Finland, seven years in Estonia, Latvia and Montenegro and eight years in Romania, Switzerland, Iceland, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Serbia. Finally, students must study two languages for three years in Italy, Portugal and Liechtenstein and for one year in Norway. Luxembourg stands out as all students have to learn two languages for 12 years.

SECTION I - STRUCTURES

Figure B3: Period during which learning two foreign languages is compulsory in primary and/or general secondary education, 2002/03, 2010/11, 2015/16


Source: Eurydice

## Explanatory note

This Figure deals primarily with languages described as 'foreign' (or 'modern') in the curriculum. Regional and/or minority languages (see Figure B12) and classical languages (see Figure B13) are included only when the curriculum designates them as alternatives to foreign languages.
The starting age refers to the second compulsory foreign language and reflects the normal age of students; it does not take into account early or late entry to school, grade repetition or other interruptions to schooling. The duration of provision refers to any language learnt.
'Second language' means a language students learn in addition to the first one, which results in students learning two different languages at the same time.
For 2015/16 when the measure is 'being phased in', this is indicated. However, for the years 2003 and 2011, even if a reform were being phased in at this time, it is not shown. For further information on the situation in 2015/16, see Figure B1.
For a definition of 'phasing in', 'foreign language' and 'language as a compulsory subject', see the Glossary.

## Country-specific notes

Spain: A second foreign language is compulsory for all students in Región de Murcia and Canarias (from the age of 10) and in Cantabria and Galicia (from the age of 12).
Estonia: In 2015/16, 2010/11 and 2002/03, the education authorities specified only that pupils had to start learning the second foreign language as compulsory subject between the ages of 10 and 12 .
Hungary and Norway: Break in the time series due to methodology change.
Netherlands: The duration of the learning of two languages varies according to the pathway students follow.
Slovakia: The situation described in the Figure will be fully implemented by 2019/20.

## THREE OR FOUR FOREIGN LANGUAGES ARE COMPULSORY FOR SOME STUDENTS IN TEN COUNTRIES

From the start of secondary education, some education systems offer different educational pathways for students, either within the same school or in different types of school. In these countries, there may be a difference, on the one hand, between the number of compulsory foreign languages all students have to learn and, on the other, the number of foreign languages that are compulsory only for students on particular pathways. As the map of Figure B4 shows, such differences are found in slightly less than half of countries.

Figure B4: Additional compulsory foreign languages taught on certain educational pathways in primary and/or general secondary education, 2015/16


Source: Eurydice.

## Explanatory note

This Figure deals primarily with languages described as 'foreign' (or 'modern') in the curriculum. Regional and/or minority languages (see Figure 12) and classical languages (see Figure 13) are included only when the curriculum designates them as alternatives to foreign languages.
Educational pathway: In some countries, students must choose a specialist area of study from a range of options at secondary level; for example, in some countries, they must choose between literary or scientific studies. In other countries, students must choose between different types of school, such as, for example, Gymnasium, Realschule, etc. in Germany. This concept only applies to mainstream schools. It does not attempt to describe very specific educational provision such as CLIL, experimental schools, music schools, etc.
For a definition of 'foreign language' and 'language as a compulsory subject' see the Glossary.

## Country-specific note

Germany: Two foreign languages are compulsory in the Gymnasium course of education from grade 7 onwards. In the majority of the Länder, the second foreign language is compulsory from grade 6 of the Gymnasium.

In about half of the countries offering different pathways that also have different curricula for foreign languages, the provision for foreign languages as compulsory subjects begins to diverge in the first year(s) of upper secondary education, i.e., from the age of 14 onwards, depending on the country. In Denmark, Italy and Bosnia and Herzegovina, this timing corresponds to the age when a second foreign language stops being compulsory for all students (see Figure B3); in other words, only students on some educational pathways must carry on studying two foreign languages or even start a
third, in the case of Italy. In Latvia, Slovenia and Iceland, in addition to the two foreign languages compulsory for all, students on some pathways must study three languages, and even four languages in the case of Iceland.

In the other half of these countries, the differences in the curriculum begin earlier, i.e., in the first years of lower secondary education. Beyond this general similarity, the provision of foreign languages as compulsory subjects differs significantly between these countries. In Germany and Hungary, for instance, only students on certain education pathways have to study two foreign languages in secondary education. In Austria and Liechtenstein, the same applies to students in lower secondary education; however, this obligation falls on all general education students at a later stage in upper secondary education. In Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Malta, all students must study two foreign languages from the beginning of lower secondary education (or the second year of primary education in the case of Luxembourg); however, students on some educational pathways have to study three languages from the first year(s) of lower secondary education.

Luxembourg, Iceland and Liechtenstein are the only countries where students on some educational pathways have to study up to four foreign languages. This learning lasts for five, four and three years respectively.

## IN HALF OF EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, CORE CURRICULUM OPTIONS ENABLE STUDENTS IN ALL SCHOOLS TO LEARN ADDITIONAL LANGUAGES

In half of the European countries studied, all schools are required to offer at least one foreign language as an optional subject to all students, who are free to take it or not.

This option is only provided at secondary level except in Sweden and the United Kingdom (Scotland). In Sweden, schools enjoy a lot of autonomy to decide when to introduce not only compulsory subjects but also core curriculum options in the school curriculum (see Figure B1). As a result, students may already have such options at primary level in some schools. The reform undertaken in the United Kingdom (Scotland) gives all students an entitlement to foreign language learning from the age of 5 . They should also be given the opportunity to learn a second foreign language from the age of 9 . This reform is scheduled to be completed by 2021.

At secondary level, languages as core curriculum options are introduced at different stages. In half of the education systems with such provision, all schools must offer a foreign language as a core curriculum option from the beginning of lower secondary education. This increases students' opportunity to learn more languages and to study at least two foreign languages as stated in the European objective (see Figure B6).

Within this group of countries, three curriculum profiles can be identified. First, the language offered as a core curriculum option is in addition to the two compulsory foreign language subjects that all students have to learn (Denmark, Malta and Switzerland) (see Figure B3). Second, learning a second foreign language is optional (core curriculum option) in lower secondary education, but becomes compulsory at upper secondary level (Slovenia, Slovakia and Norway). Finally, learning one foreign language is compulsory across both levels of secondary education, and students have the option to learn a second (as a core curriculum option) throughout the same period (Spain) or only until the end of compulsory education (Croatia).

In Belgium (French Community) also, the option available to all 14-year-old students gives them the opportunity to learn two languages.

Figure B5: Provision of foreign languages as core curriculum options in primary and/or general secondary level, 2015/16


Source: Eurydice.

## Explanatory note

This Figure deals primarily with languages described as 'foreign' (or 'modern') in the curriculum. Regional and/or minority languages (see Figure B12) and classical languages (see Figure B13) are included only when the curriculum designates them as alternatives to foreign languages.
For a definition of 'foreign language' and 'core curriculum option', see the Glossary.

## Country-specific notes

Spain: In most Autonomous Communities, this option is offered to students in secondary education. However, in some, such as Región de Murcia and Canarias, this option is provided earlier in the last two grades of primary education.
Slovakia: The situation described in the Figure will be fully implemented by 2019/20.
Finland: Local providers enjoy a great deal of autonomy to decide on the options to include in the curriculum. In practice, however, they usually include at least one foreign language at primary and lower secondary level.

When a foreign language as an option is introduced at a later stage, i.e. in upper secondary education, it can replace the second foreign language as a compulsory subject that ceases to be obligatory for all students. This is notably the case in Greece, Lithuania and Portugal. Also, it can offer the opportunity to all students in general education to study more than two languages, as is, for example, the case in France, Austria and Finland.

In the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), there is no obligation for children aged 14 and over to study one foreign language. However, schools are required to provide at least one foreign language in the curriculum for students aged 14 to 16. In England, academies do not have to follow the National Curriculum and therefore are not required to provide access to a language, but most make a similar offer.

In Malta, schools are required to offer an exceptionally large number of languages. In addition to the two foreign languages, all schools have to provide as compulsory subjects for students aged 11-16, they also have to offer five other foreign languages for students aged 13-16. After the age of 16, foreign language learning is no longer compulsory. Instead, all students must choose a language among several, including Maltese. Only three state schools provide upper secondary general education after the age of 16. Two of them offer seven languages. The third one, the University Junior

College, which has the highest number of registered students at this level, offers ten languages as core curriculum options (Arabic, French, English, German, Greek, Italian, Latin, Maltese, Russian and Spanish).

The reform currently being phased in in Slovakia provides a foreign language as a core curriculum option to all students aged 12 to 15 instead of a second language as a compulsory subject. The full implementation of this change is expected by 2019/20.

In many countries, foreign language provision is not limited to foreign languages as compulsory subjects or core curriculum options. Indeed, schools in a great number of countries enjoy some autonomy enabling them to offer additional teaching of foreign languages. This teaching may be part of the core curriculum or constitute extra-curricular activities. However, local provision and initiatives are not reported in this section, which focuses on the top-level regulations defining the minimum foreign language provision for all schools. Chapter C contains complementary data, as it gives information on the language learning participation rates of pupils in primary and secondary education.

## IN THE GREAT MAJORITY OF COUNTRIES, ALL STUDENTS HAVE TO LEARN TWO LANGUAGES FOR AT LEAST ONE YEAR DURING COMPULSORY EDUCATION

At the Barcelona European Council (2002), the EU Heads of State or Government called for further action 'to improve the mastery of basic skills, in particular by teaching at least two foreign languages from a very early age'. This recommendation derives from the momentum generated by the Lisbon European Council (2000) at which the European Union set itself the strategic objective of becoming 'the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world'. In 2015/16, educational policies in nearly all countries complied with the terms of the recommendation by enabling all students to learn at least two foreign languages during compulsory education.

This aim translates into a situation where the most common practice across Europe is that all students have to learn a minimum of two foreign languages for at least one year during full-time compulsory education. The duration of this learning varies a great deal between countries though (see Figure B3).

In a second group of countries, the learning of two foreign languages, while not compulsory, is possible for everyone during full-time compulsory education (an entitlement). In these countries, the first language is compulsory, whereas the second is offered by all schools through core curriculum options. Thus, when students come to choose their optional subjects, they may decide to learn a second foreign language irrespective of the school they attend. In Liechtenstein, where alternative education pathways are available at the beginning of lower secondary education, students in Realschule and Gymnasium have to learn two languages.

The last category - compulsory or an entitlement for some only - comprises countries with very different profiles. In Ireland and across the United Kingdom, there is no obligation for schools to provide all students with the opportunity to learn two languages at any time during compulsory education. However, the curriculum frameworks are sufficiently flexible to allow schools to offer students in compulsory education the opportunity to learn two languages; this depends entirely on the school's decision. In the United Kingdom (Scotland), a new policy, which is currently being phased in and should be fully implemented by 2021, will give all students the opportunity to start learning a first foreign language on entry to primary, and a second additional language five years later.

In Hungary, students who attend the Gimnázium have to study two foreign languages, usually from the age of 14 ; In Germany those following the most academic programmes have to study two foreign languages from the age of 11 or 12 ; in both countries, the remaining students have one language as a compulsory subject, and the opportunity to study a second one is not available to all.

Figure B6: The teaching of two foreign languages in the curriculum for primary and/or general secondary education, 2015/16


## Explanatory note

This Figure deals primarily with languages described as 'foreign' (or 'modern') in the curriculum. Regional and/or minority languages (see Figure B12) and classical languages (see Figure B12) are included only when the curriculum designates them as alternatives to foreign languages.
An entitlement for all (to learn a minimum of two foreign languages): In general, the first language is included in the curriculum as a compulsory subject and the second one as a core curriculum option.
Compulsory or an entitlement for some (to learn a minimum of two foreign languages): Only some students are obliged or entitled to learn two languages, either because their schools are free to offer them an opportunity to learn a further language, or because the students concerned are on educational pathways in which two or more languages are offered or compulsory.
For a definition of 'foreign language' and 'core curriculum option', see the Glossary.
For more country information on foreign languages as compulsory subjects, see Figures B1, B2 and B3, and on languages as core curriculum option, see Figure B5.

## IN THE VAST MAJORITY OF COUNTRIES, VET STUDENTS WILL HAVE LEARNT ONE FOREIGN LANGUAGE FOR THE SAME NUMBER OF YEARS AS THEIR PEERS IN GENERAL EDUCATION

By the end of secondary education, all students in vocational and general education will have been required to learn one foreign language for the same number of years in most European countries. Indeed, in a few cases only, all VET students will have learnt one foreign language for a lower number of year(s) by the end of secondary education. In Denmark, Germany, Spain and Switzerland, it is not compulsory for all VET students to learn a foreign language; it depends on the education and training programme they follow. Consequently, the obligation for every student to learn one foreign language only applies to students before they start their VET programme, i.e. before they are 15 or 16 depending on the country. In the Netherlands, there is no national curriculum for VET education: each qualification has its own programme designed to fit the needs of specific professions. Finally, in Austria, the shorter duration of the VET programme (one year less) at upper secondary education accounts for the difference.

Conversely, in Latvia and Poland, VET programmes are longer and so VET students study a language for a year more than their counterparts in general education.

SECTION I-STRUCTURES

Figure B7: Difference between general education students and VET students in the number of years spent learning one foreign language as a compulsory subject, 2015/16


No difference
Fewer years for VET students
More years for VET students
No VET
No foreign language as compulsory subject

## Explanatory note

Given the complexity of Vocational Education and Training (VET) and the large number of pathways in some countries, only the programmes providing direct access to tertiary education (i.e. ISCED-P code '354') are considered in this indicator. In addition, within this defined scope, the information is based on the most representative programmes, excluding those delivered in institutions dedicated to very specific fields (e.g. fine arts and performing arts). Adult education programmes, programmes falling under special needs education, or pathways with a very small number of students are also excluded. Within this scope, when vocational programmes are of a different duration, the shortest one is considered to indicate the end age. For more details on the ISCED classification, please see the International Standard Classification of Education ISCED 2011 (Unesco Institute for Statistics, 2012).
This Figure deals primarily with languages described as 'foreign' (or 'modern') in the curriculum. Regional and/or minority languages (see Figure B12) and classical languages (see Figure B13) are included only when the curriculum designates them as alternatives to foreign languages.
For more information on the learning of one foreign language as a compulsory subject in general education, please see Figures B1 and B2.
No VET: There is no VET programme within the defined scope.
No foreign language as compulsory subject: No obligation for all students to learn one foreign language.

## Country-specific note

Liechtenstein: The school-based part of the VET programmes is provided in Switzerland.

## IN MOST COUNTRIES, VET STUDENTS WILL HAVE SPENT FEWER YEARS LEARNING TWO LANGUAGES THAN THEIR PEERS IN GENERAL EDUCATION

Figure B8 shows the number of years during which VET and general education students will have studied two languages simultaneously as compulsory subjects by the end of secondary education. It provides a global picture of VET programmes on the one hand, and general education programmes on the other, and does not provide information on the particular situations of the numerous individual pathways in VET and general education. Comparison of foreign language participation rates between the two educational programmes is available in Chapter $C$ (see Figure C6).

Nearly all countries fall into three categories. In the largest (16 education systems), the difference in learning time between the two education programmes is to the detriment of VET students. In most cases, it is three or four years. This difference, however, is two years in Bulgaria and one year in Cyprus and the Netherlands. In the Netherlands, this is explained by the shorter duration of the VET programmes on which the indicator is based, as defined in the scope of the study.

Figure B8: Difference between general education students and VET students in the number of years spent learning two foreign languages simultaneously as compulsory subjects, 2015/16


## Explanatory note

See the note for Figure B7.
For more information on the learning of two foreign languages as compulsory subjects in general education, please see Figures B1 and B3.

## Country-specific note

Liechtenstein: The school-based part of the VET programmes is provided in Switzerland.

In most education systems of this first category (Belgium (German-speaking and Flemish Communities), the Czech Republic, Estonia, France, Latvia, Switzerland, Montenegro and Serbia), VET students will have started learning a second foreign language as a compulsory subject in lower secondary education, or even before, when basic education is still common for all. At upper secondary education, this learning stops being compulsory for all students in VET programmes while it continues for those in general education. In Austria, Slovenia, Slovakia and Turkey, the second foreign language as a compulsory subject solely concerns all students in general education, only or mainly at upper secondary level.

The second group of countries (10 education systems) comprises those where there is no difference between the two types of educational programmes. In other words, this means that by the end of secondary education, VET and general education students will have learnt simultaneously two languages for the same number of years.

Finally, in the last category (10 education systems), there is no obligation for all students to study two languages either in basic education or in upper secondary education.

In Poland, the longer duration of VET programmes explains the additional year spent on language learning by VET students.

## ORGANISATION

## SECTION II - RANGE OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES TAUGHT

The previous section discussed the number of foreign languages that students in Europe study either as compulsory curriculum subjects or as core curriculum options. This section addresses the specific languages taught in schools in Europe. It starts by describing those education systems that require all students to learn a specific mandatory foreign language (see Glossary) or languages. It then goes on to discuss the influence that education authorities have on the range of foreign languages offered and the degree of autonomy given to schools. The foreign languages that all schools must offer are listed, as well as the languages that schools may offer, as specified by central education authorities.

The last two indicators in this section concern languages that are not necessarily considered to be foreign languages, or are presented as alternatives to foreign languages in the curriculum. These are the regional, minority or non-territorial languages available as possible elective subjects or in bilingual education programmes. The recommendations/regulations on classical language provision are also addressed.

## A MANDATORY FOREIGN LANGUAGE IS SPECIFIED IN HALF OF EUROPEAN EDUCATION SYSTEMS

Learning a foreign language is compulsory in almost all European countries (see Figure B1). However, some education systems have regulations that mean all students must study exactly the same foreign language (or languages), while others leave the choice to schools, students and parents.

A specific mandatory foreign language is defined as a particular foreign language that all students are required to study irrespective of their educational pathway or type of school. Figure B9 shows that all students must study the same foreign language (or languages) for at least one school year during their compulsory education in approximately half European education systems. In the other half, students or schools have a choice, in some cases this choice is completely free, while in others it is restricted to a specified shortlist of two or more foreign languages (see Figures B10 and B11). Some education authorities specify the 'preferred' foreign languages to be offered as first or second foreign languages, but do not make them mandatory.

In most countries, only one specific foreign language is mandatory for all students during compulsory schooling. Two mandatory foreign languages are stipulated in Belgium (German-speaking and Flemish Communities), Cyprus, Switzerland and Iceland. In Luxembourg, there are three - all students must study German, French and English during compulsory education.

English is mandatory in most of the education systems that stipulate a particular foreign language that all students have to study. All students must learn English in 13 countries or regions within the European Union, as well as Switzerland, Iceland, Liechtenstein, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Norway. In most cases, English is the first language that students have to learn.

French is the first mandatory language in Belgium (German-speaking and Flemish Communities) and some Cantons in Switzerland. It is the second mandatory language in Cyprus, Luxembourg and some Cantons in Switzerland. In most of these countries or regions within countries, French is one of the state languages (see Figure A1). Similarly, German is compulsory in those countries where it is one of the state languages, namely in Luxembourg, as well as in all non-German speaking regions in Switzerland.

Less widely spoken languages are rarely compulsory. Only Finland and Iceland specifies some Nordic languages as mandatory for all students, due to historical or political reasons. In Finland, the second
state language (Swedish or Finnish depending on the school's main language of schooling) is mandatory. In Iceland, Danish is mandatory.

Switzerland is a special case. Within a Canton, two foreign languages are compulsory for students to learn, except in the Italian-speaking Canton where three languages are compulsory. The specified mandatory languages include all state languages (French, German, Italian and Romansh) and English. The order depends on the Canton. Usually, either a state-language is specified as the first mandatory foreign language and English as the second foreign language or English is specified as the first mandatory foreign language, and one state language as the second.

In addition, it is important to note that the education systems with large minorities who do not speak the main state language require that students learn the official language in minority schools. This is the case in Belgium (German-speaking Community), Estonia and Latvia.

Figure B9: Mandatory foreign languages taught during compulsory education, 2002/03, 2010/11, 2015/16

|  | BE fr | BE de | BEn\| | BG | cz | DK | DE | EE | IE | EL | ES | FR | HR | IT | CY | Lv | LT | Lu | HU | мт |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2015/16 |  | - $\bullet$ | - $\bullet$ |  |  | $\bullet$ | $\bullet$ |  | $\otimes$ | $\bullet$ |  |  |  | $\bullet$ | - $\Delta$ |  |  | - $\square^{\bullet}$ |  | $\bullet$ |
| 2010/11 |  | - $\bullet$ | - $\bullet$ |  |  | - | $\bullet$ |  | $\otimes$ | $\bullet$ |  |  |  | $\bullet$ | - 4 |  |  | ■ $\square^{\text {- }}$ |  | $\bullet$ |
| 200203 |  | $\triangle$ | - $\bullet$ |  |  | $\bullet$ | $\bullet$ |  | $\otimes$ | $\bullet$ |  |  |  |  | - $\triangle$ | $\bullet$ |  | - 4 - |  | $\bullet$ |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | UK-ENG/ | UK. |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | NL | AT | PL | PT | RO | SI | SK | Fl | SE | WLSINIR | SCT | BA | CH | is | L | ME | MK | No | RS | TR |
| 2015/16 | $\bullet$ |  |  | $\bullet$ |  |  | $\bullet$ | filsv | $\bullet$ |  | $\otimes$ |  | varies• | - da | $\bullet$ |  | $\bullet$ | $\bullet$ |  |  |
| 2000/11 | $\bullet$ |  |  |  |  |  |  | filsv | $\bullet$ |  | $\otimes$ | (:) | (:) | $\bullet$ da | $\bullet$ | (:) | (:) | $\bullet$ | (:) |  |
| 200203 | $\bullet$ |  |  |  |  |  |  | fiisv | $\bullet$ |  | $\otimes$ | (:) | (:) | - da | $\bullet$ | (:) | (:) | $\bullet$ | (:) |  |
|  | En | Iglish | $\triangle$ | Frenc | ch | 1 | German | $\otimes$ |  | compulsory eign langua | ge lear |  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Com } \\ & \text { learl } \end{aligned}$ | $\text { mppuls } \text { arning }$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { soyy fors } \\ & \text { with ch } \end{aligned}$ | eign langu oice of lan |  |  |

Source: Eurydice.

## Explanatory note

A foreign language is indicated where it is mandatory for at least one school year during full-time compulsory education and applies to all students irrespective of their type of school or education pathway. Where several specific mandatory languages exist, their position in the cells above corresponds to the order in which they are learnt.
For a definition of 'foreign language' and 'specific mandatory language', see the Glossary.

## Country-specific notes

Belgium (BE fr): Only the Region of Brussels-Capital has a specific mandatory language, and this is Dutch.
Belgium (BE de): German is a specific mandatory language in schools in which French is the language of instruction for the French-speaking minority resident in the German-speaking region.
Germany: In nine Länder, English is mandatory as the first foreign language. French is mandatory in Saarland. Ireland: Irish and English must be studied by all students.
Spain: English is a specific mandatory language in some Autonomous Communities (Castilla-La Mancha, Comunidad Valenciana, Principado de Asturias, La Rioja and Canarias) in some education levels during compulsory education.
Finland: Swedish (sv) in schools where Finnish is the language of schooling and Finnish (fi) in schools where Swedish is the language of schooling.
Iceland: Students may choose Swedish or Norwegian instead of Danish (da), subject to certain conditions.
The development over time shown in Figure B9 reveals that policies on mandatory languages are rather stable in Europe. However, a few changes have been reported in recent years. Two countries introduced new policies making English mandatory for all students. In Portugal, the reform making English a mandatory subject for 8 -year-olds was fully implemented in 2015/16. In Slovakia, English became a mandatory language in the 2011/12 school year.

Statistical data regarding the numbers of students learning foreign languages reveal that English is studied in all countries regardless of its status (mandatory, recommended or free choice). However, other foreign languages are studied more in those countries where education authorities make them mandatory (see Chapter C, Section II).

## IN MOST COUNTRIES, CENTRAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES INFLUENCE THE RANGE OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM

In some countries, all students study the same mandatory foreign language in all schools (see Figure B9). In a few other countries, schools are free to offer any foreign languages and students may freely choose from those available. The most common approach, however, lies in-between: central education authorities indicate that specific languages must be offered to students, or may be offered, but schools are free to opt for various additional languages.

In Europe, many education systems lay down requirements stating which specific languages schools must offer, but the majority of European countries define a list of foreign languages from which schools must choose. Often, the choice of languages and school autonomy increase with the education level, as students learn more languages. For example, in Lithuania, all primary schools must offer at least two different languages from the defined list (English, French and German). In lower secondary education, the first foreign language is continued, but schools can offer more choice for the second foreign language. In upper secondary education, no specific foreign languages are listed, but the choice for the State Matriculation Examinations is limited to English, French, German and Russian.

There are no central recommendations/regulations on specific languages in Ireland, Croatia, Poland, Romania, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Scotland) or in Bosnia and Herzegovina. However, central education authorities in some countries still issue guidance. For example, in Poland, it is recommended that school authorities try to make it possible for students to continue learning the language they started at the earlier level of education, e.g. lower secondary schools are advised to offer the foreign languages that are taught in the primary schools in their catchment area.

Figure B10: Central recommendations/regulations for schools on the inclusion of specific foreign languages in the curriculum, primary and general secondary education, 2015/16


Source: Eurydice.

## Explanatory note

Schools must choose languages from a defined list means that central education authorities define at least two choices of 'foreign language subject'. The list must specify all the options available. Where education authorities specify several languages and then add 'any other language' as an option, the list is not considered 'defined' for the purpose of this indicator. However, 'any EU language' is considered to be a defined list of 24 languages. When central authorities provide a curriculum or state examinations for certain languages, but allow schools to offer other languages, this is not considered to be a defined list.

Explicit reference to school autonomy: Official regulations or recommendations explicitly state that schools have autonomy in deciding which languages to include in the school curriculum.
For a definition of 'foreign language' and 'specific mandatory language', see the Glossary.


#### Abstract

Country-specific notes Belgium (BE fr): At ISCED 1-3, all schools must provide Dutch in the Region of Brussels-Capital. Spain: The basic curriculum for ISCED 1-3 established at the state-level mentions English, German, French, Italian and Portuguese as possible choices for the first foreign language. The situation in the different Autonomous Communities varies. Most Autonomous Communities provide a list of languages. Schools have to provide the specified first and second foreign languages in the Autonomous Communities of La Rioja (from ISCED 1 to ISCED 3), Castilla La Mancha, Valenciana, Principado de Asturias and Canarias (in ISCED 1). Italy: In ISCED 3, in general education, schools have autonomy in the choice of foreign languages. English is compulsory in some technical and vocational pathways.


## MOST COUNTRIES DEFINE A LIST OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

The previous indicator (Figure B10) showed that in Europe, education authorities regulate the offer of foreign languages either demanding that all schools provide one or more specific languages, or indicate a list of foreign languages from which they must choose. Figure B11 provides two lists of the foreign languages mentioned in central recommendations. The first (B11a) shows the languages schools must offer, and the second (B11b) shows the languages schools may offer. It is important to note that often schools may offer additional foreign languages to those that are required or listed as a choice.

More than two-thirds of European education systems provide a list of foreign languages from which schools must choose one or more to include in their curriculum. Approximately half of European education systems oblige all schools to offer specific foreign languages. Often these two approaches complement each other.

All schools must normally provide those foreign languages that are mandatory for students to learn (see Figure B9). In a few countries (the Czech Republic, Denmark, Malta, Sweden and Turkey), all schools are obliged to provide some foreign languages even though they are not mandatory for students to study (see Figure B11a). For example, in the Czech Republic and Turkey, all schools are required to offer English as a foreign language, although for students it is not mandatory to study English. In Sweden, in addition to English (mandatory subject), all schools must offer French, Spanish and German in upper secondary education. In lower secondary education, schools must offer two of the following three languages French, Spanish or German. Besides these, schools can choose which other languages to offer. The widest offer is in Malta, where, in addition to English, which is mandatory for all students, all lower and upper secondary schools must provide French, German, Spanish, Italian, Arabic and Chinese.

Figure $\mathrm{B} 11(\mathrm{~b})$ lists all the foreign languages that schools may choose to offer where the language is provided in more than one European education system. It presents a picture of the range of foreign languages available in the curricula of European schools. The ten most commonly listed foreign languages include five main EU languages (English, French, German, Spanish and Italian), three large non-EU modern languages (Russian, Chinese and Arabic), as well as Latin and Classical Greek.

Most commonly, central authorities mention three to seven languages as possible 'foreign languages' to be offered in schools. For example, in Norway, all lower secondary schools must provide English and offer at least one of the following four languages: French, German, Spanish or Russian. In Estonia, the first foreign language in primary schools has to be English, French, German or Russian.

Some countries provide long lists of possible foreign languages. For example, in Slovenia, basic schools may teach English or German as the first foreign language. Core curriculum options in lower secondary education can be chosen from a list of 12 languages for which subject curricula have been adopted. In France, where numerous regional languages are allowed to be included in the curriculum as 'foreign languages', the list of possible languages is even longer.

Figure B11: Foreign languages listed in central recommendations/regulations, primary and general secondary education, 2015/16

(*) Specified in comments

## Explanatory note

The first chart (a) shows the foreign languages that all schools must offer according to central education authorities. The second chart (b) shows the foreign languages that schools may choose to offer from the list specified by central education authorities. Central education authorities oblige schools to offer at least one of the languages shown in (b). Not all these languages are available to students; they must choose from the range of languages the school decides to provide. However, schools are usually allowed to offer additional languages to those specified.
Schools in education systems where central education authorities do not specify a list of languages are completely free to choose which foreign languages they offer.
Languages are listed in descending order, according to the number of countries that include them in their central curricula/official documents. The ranking does not take into account the educational level for which it is recommended/required. If several languages are listed in the same number of countries, they are ordered according to their ISO code (ISO 639-3 standard). Figure B11b shows only those foreign languages that are cited by more than one education system. When cited by only one educational system, the language is marked as 'other' in the Figure and specified in the country notes.

Regional and/or minority languages, as well as classical languages, are included only when official documents issued by central education authorities designate them as alternatives to foreign languages. For a definition of 'foreign language' and 'specific mandatory language', see the Glossary.

## Country-specific notes

Belgium (BE fr): In the Region of Brussels-Capital, all schools should provide Dutch, as the first foreign language at ISCED 1-3. All other schools can offer a choice of two more foreign languages.
Germany: In nine Länder, all schools must provide English. All schools must provide French in Saarland.
France: Other foreign languages at ISCED 2: Tamoul, Armenian, Vietnamese, regional languages (Basque, Breton, Catalan, Corsican, Creole, Gallo, Melanesian languages, the regional languages of Alsace, the regional languages of Moselle country, Occitan language, Tahitian). Other foreign languages at ISCED 3: Armenian, Cambodian, Danish, Swedish, Norwegian, Finnish, Persian and regional languages: Basque, Breton, Catalan, Corsican, Creole, Melanesian languages, Occitan language, Tahitian.
Italy: Other foreign languages: Albanian, Slovenian. Serbian and Croatian are considered as one foreign language Serbo-Croatian.
Netherlands: All schools are required to provide Frisian in Frisian regions.
Austria: Croatian refers mainly to Burgenland-Kroatisch, one of the regional and/or minority languages with official status. Other foreign languages: Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian as one subject (ISCED levels 2 and 3); Czech, Slovak and Slovenian (ISCED levels 1 to 3).
Slovenia: Other foreign language: Macedonian.
Finland: Swedish (sv) in schools where Finnish is the language of schooling and Finnish (fi) in schools where Swedish is the language of schooling.
Switzerland: Number and type of specific foreign languages differ between the linguistic regions and Cantons: Frenchspeaking Switzerland must provide German/English (ISCED 1-2), German-speaking Switzerland French/English, Italianspeaking Switzerland German/French/English. Italian must be provided at ISCED 2 and 3 in all French- and Germanspeaking Cantons and at ISCED 1 in Cantons Uri and Graubünden. Romansh must be provided in Canton Graubünden.

## REGIONAL OR MINORITY LANGUAGES ARE PART OF THE CURRICULUM IN HALF OF THE COUNTRIES STUDIED

In many European countries, numerous regional or minority languages as well as non-territorial languages are spoken. It is estimated that in the EU, 40 to 50 million people speak one of its 57 official regional and minority languages (see Figure A1), some of which are at serious risk (European Parliament, 2013). Regional and minority languages 'account for linguistic diversity and belong to humanity's intangible cultural heritage' (EPRS, 2016).

Figure B12 shows that in half of European education systems, central education authorities specifically refer to the teaching of certain regional, minority, or non-territorial languages in official documents. These references may be included in the national curriculum or education programme, in national assessment or examination documents or in regulations that require schools to offer tuition in these languages. For example, in Hungary, national framework curricula have been developed for almost all official regional and minority languages. Education in minority languages must be provided in kindergartens and schools if requested by the parents of at least eight children. In the United Kingdom (Scotland), the Scottish curriculum recognises Scottish Gaelic and Scots as an integral part of the curriculum. The guidance encourages practitioners to build upon the diversity of languages represented within the communities of Scotland, valuing the languages which children bring to school.

Regional, minority or non-territorial languages that have official status (see Figure A1) usually feature in official documents. All official languages and only the official languages are mentioned in education authorities' official documents in Spain, Italy, Hungary, the Netherlands, Poland, Slovenia, Sweden, the United Kingdom (Wales and Scotland), Montenegro and Norway.

France, Lithuania and the United Kingdom (Northern Ireland) have only one official state language, but mention one or more regional or minority languages that may be included in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) or in the school curriculum.

Figure B12: Regional or minority languages specifically referred to in official documents issued by central education authorities, primary and/or general secondary education, 2015/16

|  |  | BE fr | BEd | 3En | BG | CZ | DK | DE | EE | IE | EL | ES | FR | HR | IT | CY | LV | LT | LU | HU | MT | NL |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| No reference |  | - | - | - | - | $\bullet$ |  |  | - | - | - |  |  | $\bullet$ |  | - | - |  | $\bullet$ |  | $\bullet$ |  |
| Belorussian | bel |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |  |  |
| Bosnian | bos |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Breton | bre |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Bulgarian | bul |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | - |  |  |
| Catalan | cat |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ | - |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Valencian | cat |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Corsican | cos |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | - |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Kashubian | csb |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Czech | cse |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Welsh | cym |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Danish | dan |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| German | deu |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |  |  | $\bullet$ |  | - |  |  |
| Greek | ell |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |
| Basque | eus |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | - | - |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Faroese | fao |  |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Finnish | fin |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Meänkieli (Tornedalen Fin |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Kven | fkv |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| French | fra |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Franco-Provençal | frp |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | - |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Frisian | fry |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |
| Friulan | fur |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Scottish Gaelic | gla |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Irish | gle |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Galician | glg |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Hebrew | heb |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Croatian | hrv |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |
| Hungarian | hun |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Armenian | hye |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |
| Italian | ita |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Greenlandic | kal |  |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Karaim | kdr |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Lithuanian | lit |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Ladin | 11 d |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Македонски | mkd |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Low German | nds |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Occitan | oci |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ | - |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Polish | pol |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |  | - |  |  |
| Creole | rcf |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | - |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Romany | rom |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |
| Romanian | ron |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |
| Lemko | rue |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Rusyn | rue |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | - |  |  |
| Ruthenian | rue |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Vlach | rup |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Russian | rus |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | - |  |  |  |  |
| Scots | sco |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Slovak | slk |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | - |  |  |
| Slovenian | slv |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |
| Sami | sme |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Albanian | sqi |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Sardinian | srd |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Serbian | srp |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | - |  |  |
| Tahitian | tah |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | - |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Tatar | tat |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Melanesian languages | tpi |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | - |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Turkish | tur |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Ukrainian | ukr |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | - |  |  |
| Sorbian | wen |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Yiddish | yid |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Other (dialects) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\bullet$ |  |  |

Figure B12 (continued): Regional or minority languages specifically referred to in official documents issued by central education authorities, primary and/or general secondary education, 2015/16


[^3]
## Explanatory note (Figure B12)

This Figure shows the regional or minority languages mentioned in official documents issued by central education authorities. No distinction is made between educational levels, education pathways, or types of school. In some countries, the languages mentioned might be offered in schools in some regions only.
Languages are classified in order of their ISO code (ISO 639-3 standard). Dialects that have no code are marked as 'other' and specified in notes.
For a definition of 'regional or minority language' and 'non-territorial language', see the Glossary.

## Country-specific notes

Spain: Apart from Spanish as the official language, certain Autonomous Communities have a co-official language. In these cases, the education authorities establish their own model for teaching their official languages.
France: Other: Gallo and the regional languages of Alsace and Moselle (known as Alsatian and Moselle Franconian dialects).
Hungary: Other: Boyash, a dialect of Romanian.
Austria: Two documents issued by central education authorities make explicit reference to the tuition of minority languages in schools: the Act on School Education for Ethnic Minorities in Burgenland (Burgenländisches Minderheitenschulgesetz) sets down the requirements for teaching Hungarian, Croatian (Burgenland-Kroatisch) and Romany; and the Minority Schooling Act for Carinthia (Minderheitenschulgesetz für Kärnten) which covers the teaching of Slovene in the minority areas.
Serbia: Other: Bunjevac.
In contrast, several countries that grant official status to regional or minority languages (the Czech Republic, Croatia, Latvia and Portugal), do not make a specific reference to them in official documents issued by central education authorities. However, in some cases, a broader reference may be made. For example, in the Czech Republic, members of national minorities have the right to be educated in own their language, as well as a right to CLIL. In Croatia, all recognised national minorities have a right to CLIL in their own language (see more in the Chapter B, Section III).

## LATIN IS COMPULSORY FOR AT LEAST SOME UPPER SECONDARY STUDENTS IN ONE THIRD OF EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

In order to provide the full picture of language learning in European schools, Figure B13 shows the existing regulations on the provision of classical languages. It is important to highlight that in many countries classical Greek and Latin are not considered as 'foreign languages' and therefore were not included in the other indicators in this section.

Regulations on teaching Latin and classical Greek differ greatly between lower and general upper secondary education. At lower secondary level, in most countries, there are no recommendations/regulations regarding this provision. However, in two-thirds of European countries, central education authorities regulate classical language provision for upper secondary level.

Most of the education systems with recommendations/regulations on classical language provision at lower secondary level fall into two groups. In the first, the national language directly stems from either Latin or classical Greek. This situation occurs in Belgium (French Community), Greece, France, Cyprus and Romania. The second group involves countries where students follow different pathways in lower secondary education. In Germany, Luxembourg, Hungary, the Netherlands, Austria, Switzerland and Liechtenstein, students are streamed into different types of schools. Classical Greek and/or Latin are compulsory subjects or options for those students attending the most academic type of schools, such as the Gymnasium in Germany, Austria, Hungary, Switzerland and Liechtenstein or the Voorbereidend wetenschappelijk Onderwijs (VWO) in the Netherlands. In Croatia, Latin and Classical Greek are mandatory for a small minority of students attending an optional 'classical programme' in elementary school (osnovna škola).

At upper secondary level, most European countries issue recommendations or regulations on classical language provision. Usually, classical Greek and/or Latin are offered as core curriculum options in humanities or language-oriented high school pathways. Often central education authorities require that
either classical Greek or Latin is offered. The recommendations/ regulations for upper secondary education differ somewhat between languages. Latin is generally more widespread than classical Greek.

Classical languages are rarely compulsory. Only six European countries make it compulsory for all students to learn a classical language in secondary education. Classical Greek is compulsory in Greece and Cyprus for the entire period of lower secondary education (three years) and for the first year of upper secondary education, when all students follow a common curriculum. Latin is compulsory for all students at lower secondary level in Romania (for one year, in grade 8) and for one year for all students attending general upper secondary education in Croatia, Montenegro and Serbia.

Both classical Greek and Latin are compulsory for students in certain schools or educational pathways in Germany, Greece, Croatia, Italy, the Netherlands, Romania and Iceland. For example, in Germany, Latin and Classical Greek are compulsory for pupils who want to attain the Allgemeine Hochschulreife in a Gymnasium specialising in classical languages.

Some countries with no specific recommendations or regulations on how classical languages should be delivered in schools may still provide a national curriculum for these languages. For example, in Lithuania, schools are free to offer Latin as an optional subject for students. However, the Ministry of Education has developed a programme for Latin and Antique Literature, Culture and History for 5-10th grades (lower secondary education).

Figure B13: Central regulations on the teaching of classical Greek and Latin, lower and general upper secondary education, 2015/16


## Explanatory note (Figure B13)

This Figure shows recommendations/regulations issued by central education authorities on how classical languages should be provided at secondary level.
Compulsory for some: Refers to students following particular educational pathways or in some types of schools.
Core curriculum option: Schools must provide opportunities to learn Latin or classical Greek, but students are not obliged to study these subjects.
No recommendations/regulations: Means 'no recommendations regarding the inclusion of Latin or classical Greek as an option in the curriculum of some or all students' and 'no recommendations regarding the obligation for some or all students to study these languages'.

## Country-specific notes

Greece: At ISCED 3, students follow a common curriculum for one year, when classical Greek is compulsory for all. Afterwards, Latin and classical Greek are compulsory or core curriculum options on different pathways.
Croatia: Latin is mandatory for at least one year in all general ISCED 3 programs. Both Latin and classical Greek are compulsory for students attending the 'classical programme' during the entire duration of ISCED 2 and ISCED 3. Cyprus: Due to a recent reform, classical Greek was compulsory for all Class A (15-16 years old) students in 2015/16. For Classes B \& C (16-18 years old), classical Greek and Latin were common core options on some pathways (old programme).

## ORGANISATION

## SECTION III - CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING (CLIL)

This third section deals with Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). CLIL is used in this report as a generic term to describe all types of provision in which a language different to the language of schooling is used to teach certain curriculum subjects other than languages themselves. The distinctive feature of CLIL provision is that pupils are taught different subjects in the curriculum in at least two languages. For instance, most subjects are taught in the language of schooling but mathematics, geography or natural sciences are taught in a different language.

The objective of this type of provision is to enhance students' proficiency in languages other than the language of schooling. The target language in CLIL lessons is not the subject of the study but a communication vehicle to study another subject of the curriculum. The exposure to the target language is thus increased without claiming an excessive share of the school timetable.

This section does not cover arrangements for providing language support to immigrant pupils (see Figure E14) or those whose mother tongue is not the language of instruction, with the aim of ensuring their gradual integration into mainstream education in that language. Programmes in international schools are also excluded.

The first indicator analyses the possible status of the target languages in the existing CLIL provision ('foreign language', 'regional, minority or non-territorial language' and/or 'other state language'). The second, which focuses on CLIL provision targeting a foreign language, discusses admission criteria for CLIL programmes.

## IN ADDITION TO FOREIGN LANGUAGES, regional or minority languages are widely taught through clil

Figure B14 shows that in nearly all European countries some schools offer CLIL provision. This means that part of the curriculum is taught in a language different to the state language used as the language of schooling in order to improve students' proficiency in another language. There is no CLIL provision in Greece, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Iceland and Turkey but this type of provision was introduced in 2016/17 in Montenegro.

In one group of education systems, in addition to a state language which is the language of schooling, CLIL is provided in at least two other types of language. In 14 systems, these include a foreign language and a regional, minority or territorial language (see Figure A1). This is the case in the Czech Republic, Germany, Estonia, Spain, France, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Austria, Poland, Slovakia, Sweden and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia. In Belgium (French and Flemish Communities) and Switzerland, CLIL is provided in a foreign language and another state language. Finland is the only country where the CLIL method is used for teaching three types of language (foreign language, another state language and a non-territorial language).

In a second group of education systems, only one type of language is targeted in CLIL provision. In 10 education systems, the target language is a foreign language (in Bulgaria, Denmark, Cyprus, the Netherlands, Portugal, Romania, the United Kingdom (England), Liechtenstein, Norway and Serbia). In five other education systems, only regional, minority or non-territorial languages are targeted: Croatia (Hungarian and Czech), Slovenia (Hungarian) and, within the United Kingdom: Wales (Welsh), Northern Ireland (Irish) and Scotland (Scottish Gaelic). In the four remaining education systems, CLIL provision targets another state language: German/French in the German-speaking Community of

Belgium, English/rish in Ireland, Luxembourgish/German and Luxembourgish/French in Luxembourg and Maltese/English in Malta.

In Spain, some schools offer CLIL provision in which three languages are used to teach the curriculum, including the state language and one regional language. This very infrequent arrangement is not shown in Figure B14, which relates only to the most common situation where two languages are used for teaching the curriculum.

Figure B14: Status of target languages taught through CLIL in primary and/or general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2015/16


## Explanatory note

For detailed information on CLIL provision in each country, see Annexe 2.
In some countries, with several official state languages, these may also be regarded as foreign languages. This situation arises because languages are considered as foreign languages in the curriculum while their status as state languages is a political decision. In such cases, the target language is displayed as ' 1 other state language' in the Figure.
This Figure does not cover:

- CLIL provision where the language of schooling is not a state language (further information available in Annexe 2);
- CLIL provision with more than two languages involved (further information available in Annexe 2);
- Education programmes provided in their mother tongue for children whose mastery of the language of schooling is not sufficient (see Figure E14);
- Programmes in international schools.

For a definition of 'CLIL'; 'language of schooling'; 'foreign language'; 'regional or minority language'; 'nonterritorial language' and 'state language', see the Glossary.

The combination of languages used in CLIL also depends very much on the linguistic heritage of each country. Almost all countries with several official state languages and/or at least one official regional, minority or non-territorial language has some CLIL provision. They thus take advantage of their linguistic diversity in order to try and develop students' multi-lingualism (see Figure A1). For instance in Spain, CLIL provision exists for each of the six official regional languages (Catalan, Valencian, Basque, Galician and Occitan). However, in Denmark, Cyprus, the Netherlands, Portugal, Romania, Norway and Serbia, CLIL provision only targets foreign languages, even though at least one regional, minority or non-territorial language is officially recognised.

Close examination of the foreign languages used as target languages (see Annexe 2), reveals that English, French and German, and to a lesser degree Spanish and Italian, are the most widespread target languages for CLIL provision. The four first languages are also the most taught foreign languages in schools across Europe (see Chapter C, Section II).

In Germany and France, existing CLIL programmes target more than 10 foreign languages. The number of target languages in the existing CLIL provision with the status of regional, minority or nonterritorial languages also exceeds 10 in France and Hungary.

CLIL provision exists in primary, lower secondary and general upper secondary education. There is no indication that CLIL provision is more concentrated in any particular level.

The fact that CLIL provision exists in an education system does not necessarily mean that it is widespread within the education system (see data available in Annexe 2 of EACEA/Eurydice, 2012). Only in Italy, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Austria, Malta and Liechtenstein is CLIL provision available in all schools at some stage. Since 2010 in Italy, all students in the last year of upper secondary education have to learn one non-language subject through a foreign language. Those on the 'language' pathway must learn one non-language subject through their first foreign language by the age of 16, and a second through their second foreign language from age 17. In Cyprus, CLIL is provided in all primary schools during one school year at least. In Luxembourg, from primary level, some subjects are taught in German instead of Luxembourgish and, in lower secondary, some are taught in French. In Austria, foreign languages are taught through CLIL-type provision during the first two years of primary education. In Malta, CLIL provision (Maltese/English) is available in all state schools for all grades of primary and secondary education. In Liechtenstein, English is taught through CLIL-type provision in the first grade of primary education. It is also the case for part of the foreign language instruction in the second grade.

## ADMISSION CRITERIA FOR ACCESSING CLIL PROVISION ARE NOT COMMON

Figure B15 focuses on 'Type A' CLIL provision targeting foreign languages.
In most of the countries where CLIL provision targets a foreign language, no official central recommendations exist on the specific admission criteria schools should use to select students for this type of programme.

Central recommendations for admission criteria to CLIL Type A provision only exist in eight education systems. In five of these, the criteria are related both to language skills and to the knowledge of specific curriculum subjects and/or general aptitude (France, Poland, Portugal, Slovakia and Liechtenstein). In the remaining three, central recommendations concern language skills only (Belgium (Flemish Community), Romania and Serbia). However, in three countries, where central recommendations exist, the situation is different according to the level of education concerned. In Liechtenstein and Serbia, central recommendations only concern secondary education. In Slovakia, language skills are among the recommended selection criteria only for general upper secondary education.

In Spain, several Autonomous Communities, as top-level education authorities, issue central recommendations on admission criteria for CLIL provision. Language skills are the basis of the criteria most commonly cited (for instance in Cataluña, La Rioja, Comunidad de Castilla y León, Canarias, Extremadura and Cantabria). There are no admission criteria in some other Autonomous Communities, (e.g. in the Región de Murcia and the Principado de Asturias). However, the 2013 Education Act (LOMCE) establishes that the admission criteria for CLIL programmes will have to be
the same across the country and that language skill requirements will no longer be allowed. This reform was fully implemented in primary education at the end of 2015/16, and will be completed at the end of 2016/17 at secondary level.

The absence of central recommendations or regulations on knowledge- and skills-related admission criteria for CLIL programmes does not prevent schools from adopting their own criteria. This is for instance the case in the Czech Republic, Spain (some Autonomous Communities), the Netherlands, Switzerland and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia.

Figure B15: Existence of central recommendations on knowledge- and skills-related admission criteria for access to CLIL Type A provision in primary and/or general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2015/16


Language skills
Knowledge of specific curriculum subjects and/or general aptitude

No central recommendations on admission criteria

No CLIL type A provision

Source: Eurydice.

## Explanatory note

This Figure only concerns CLIL Type A provision.
Admission criteria applying at least to one education level are mentioned in the Figure.
Where more general recommendations exist, not specifically related to CLIL provision, they are not shown in the Figure.
This Figure does not cover:

- CLIL provision where the language of schooling is not a state language;
- Education programmes provided in their mother tongue for children whose mastery of the language of schooling is not sufficient (see Figure E14);
- Programmes in international schools.

For a definition of 'CLIL' and 'CLIL type A', see the Glossary.
For detailed information on CLIL provision in each country, see Annexe 2.

## Country-specific note

Spain: The Figure represents the most common situation in the country.

## PARTICIPATION

## SECTION I - NUMBER OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES LEARNT BY STUDENTS

At the 2002 Barcelona European Council ( ${ }^{1}$ ), the EU Heads of State or Government agreed on the importance of 'teaching at least two foreign languages from a very early age'. The first section of this chapter provides statistical data on the number of foreign languages learnt by students according to education level and pathway. It is therefore useful in the monitoring of developments in relation to the Council's objective. The second section shows which foreign languages students learn in European countries at the different education levels.

Both sections cover primary and secondary education and highlight the changes that have taken place between 2005 and 2014. The main differences in foreign language learning between students in general upper secondary and those in vocational upper secondary education are also briefly described. The chapter is based on statistical data from the Eurostat/UOE database which covers all types of vocational upper secondary education, not only those leading to tertiary education. It is also worth noting that the Eurostat/UOE data collection covers all age groups enrolled in primary, lower and upper secondary education, including adults involved in courses similar to initial educational programmes.

The Eurostat/UOE database provides statistics by education level on the total number of languages learnt as well as the average number of languages learnt by students. It also provides data on the proportion of students learning specific languages. All these statistics reflect the situation for a given year (here 2014), calculated on the basis of the total population enrolled at a specific education level. However, each education level comprises several grades and the situation may vary greatly from one grade to another.

Depending on the education system, foreign language teaching may begin at a very early stage of primary education - sometimes even in pre-primary education - or, on in contrast, it may become part of the curriculum only in the final years of primary education (see Figure B1). Language learning participation rates in a given year across the whole of the primary school population may thus vary enormously from one country to the next, in line with the curriculum. However, most of the students who were not yet learning a foreign language in the reference year (here, 2014) will have started to do so before the end of their primary education.

This difference between grades also exists in upper secondary education. In some education systems, fewer foreign languages, or none at all, are compulsory towards the end of this education level (see Figures B2 and B3). Where learning at least two foreign languages is only compulsory in the first grade of upper secondary education in a particular education system, the proportion of students learning at least two foreign languages at this level is likely to be lower than in an education system where two languages are compulsory in all upper secondary grades.

Ideally, statistics by age would enable a better understanding of what actually happens within a particular education level. This type of data is only collected on a voluntary basis by Eurostat and is therefore not available for all countries. Where this information is available, it clearly shows how the participation rate can vary across ages (see Figure C1b). The reader should therefore be aware that the statistics in this chapter only provide a snapshot of what is happening in an education level at a certain moment in time and does not reveal what a student will learn throughout his/her school education.

[^4]The Eurostat/UOE data collection does not cover all education systems for which Eurydice information is available. In order to simplify the Figures, those not participating in the Eurostat/UOE data collection are not featured in this chapter. The non-participating countries are the German-speaking Community of Belgium, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Switzerland, Montenegro, Serbia and Turkey.

In the Eurostat/UOE data collection, only languages regarded as foreign languages in the curriculum drawn up by the central education authorities are included. Regional languages are only included when the curriculum designates them as alternatives to foreign languages. Ancient Greek, Latin, Esperanto and sign languages are not included. The study of languages offered in addition to the basic curriculum is not included. The data on non-nationals studying their native language in special classes or those studying the language of schooling of the host country are also excluded.

All statistical data for this chapter are available in Annexe 3.

## IN 12 COUNTRIES, ALMOST ALL STUDENTS LEARN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN PRIMARY EDUCATION

The learning of the first compulsory language usually starts in primary education, between the ages of six and eight (see Figure B1). As a result, nearly all pupils starting secondary education have already begun to study at least one foreign language. As shown in Figure C1a, $83.8 \%$ of primary students at EU level learn at least one foreign language. Language learning participation rates cover all students enrolled in primary education in 2014. Participation rates among the primary school population may vary enormously from one country to the next, according to the age when foreign language teaching becomes compulsory (see Figure C1b for countries for which data is available).

In 12 countries, at least $99 \%$ of students enrolled in primary education learn one or more foreign languages (in Spain, France, Croatia, Italy, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Malta, Austria, Poland, Liechtenstein, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Norway). In these countries, the compulsory learning of a foreign language starts at the age of 6 at the latest, except in Croatia where this subject becomes compulsory at the age of 7 .

At EU level, 16.3 \% of all students enrolled in primary education are not learning a foreign language at school during the reference year. In three countries, at least half of students are not doing so. This applies to Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), Portugal and Slovenia. In 2013/14, the starting age for the compulsory learning of a foreign language was rather late in these education systems, compared to others: age 9 in Slovenia and age 10 in Belgium and Portugal. Portugal and Slovenia are currently implementing an earlier start for compulsory foreign language learning (age 8 and 7 respectively), which may result in a higher proportion of primary students learning a foreign language in the coming years.

Learning a second foreign language often becomes compulsory at the end of primary education or beginning of lower secondary education, the proportion of primary students learning two or more foreign languages is therefore rather small. At EU level, it represents $4.6 \%$. However around $30 \%$ of students in primary education learn two or more foreign languages in Estonia and Greece, while the figure is much higher in Luxembourg ( $83.5 \%$ ), where the learning of the compulsory second language starts at the age of 7 .

SECTION I - NUMBER OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES LEARNT BY STUDENTS

Figure C1a: Proportion of students learning foreign languages in primary education, by number of languages (ISCED 1), 2014


Source: Eurydice, on the basis of Eurostat/UOE data [educ_uoe_lang02] (last update: 17/02/2017).
Figure C1b: Proportion of students learning at least one foreign language in primary education, by age (ISCED 1), 2014


Source: Eurydice, on the basis of Eurostat/UOE data (last update: September 2016).

## Explanatory note (Figures C1a and C1b)

The proportion of students learning $0,1,2$ (or more) foreign languages is calculated with respect to all students in all years of primary education or at a specific age in primary education, even when foreign language learning does not begin in the initial years at this level. The number of students learning $0,1,2$ (or more) foreign languages is divided by the corresponding total number of students enrolled.
Participation in the data collection by age is on a voluntary basis. For this reason, fewer education systems are covered.
Data are available in Annexe 3.

## Country-specific note

Estonia: In schools where Estonian is not the language of schooling, Estonian is counted as a foreign language for statistical purposes.

Figure C1b presents, by age, the proportion of students learning a foreign language in primary education. This information is however not available for all the education systems shown in Figure C1a. In Figure C1b, the age mentioned corresponds to the actual age of students and not to the notional age (the age a student is supposed to be in a specific grade). For instance, in the French Community of Belgium, students should start learning a foreign language at the age of 10 (notional age), i.e. in the fourth grade of primary education. However, $11.4 \%$ of children aged 10 (actual age) are not yet learning a foreign language. The fact that some 10-year-old students may not yet be in the fourth grade of primary education may partly explain this.

In six countries where compulsory foreign language learning starts before the age of 7 (Spain, Luxembourg, Malta, Austria, Liechtenstein and Norway), at least $90 \%$ of students learn a foreign language in each age category.

In most countries where the compulsory age for learning a foreign language comes later, there is a clear take-off in the age category corresponding to the compulsory starting age. This take-off happens at the age of 8 years in the Czech Republic, Germany and Lithuania, at the age of 9 in Slovenia and Iceland, and at the age of 10 in Belgium (French and Flemish Communities) and Portugal. This correlates with the age at which foreign language learning starts becoming compulsory in the respective countries in 2013/14.

In Estonia and Finland, the top-level education authorities make the start of foreign language learning compulsory within an age range (between 7 and 9 years old), meaning that schools may decide on the starting age within this range. The proportion of students learning a foreign language clearly takes off at the age of 9 years in both countries. At the age of 7 and 8 years old, the proportion is higher in Estonia than in Finland.

Figure C1b also reflects the fact that in several countries, schools have a certain degree of autonomy in introducing foreign languages into the curriculum before the compulsory age. For instance in Hungary, where students must learn a foreign language at the age of 9 , at least $40 \%$ of them do so at the ages of 7 and 8 years. This means that schools offer language provision earlier than requested. More than $40 \%$ of students learn a foreign language at least one year earlier than the age at which it becomes compulsory in the French Community of Belgium, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary and Iceland.

## THE PROPORTION OF PRIMARY STUDENTS LEARNING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE HAS INCREASED IN AT LEAST EIGHT COUNTRIES OVER THE DECADE

At EU level, 83.8 \% of all primary students were learning one or more foreign languages in 2014. Only 67.3 \% were doing so in 2005. Figure C2 shows three different trends during this period.

In the first group of 12 countries, the situation remained relatively stable (less than 10 percentage point difference). In six of these, more than $90 \%$ of primary students were learning at least one foreign language in both reference years (in Spain, Italy, Luxembourg, Malta, Austria and Norway). In the other six countries, the situation remained relatively stable, although with lower participation rates (in Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), Estonia, Greece, Portugal, Finland and Sweden).

In the second group of eight countries, the proportion of primary students learning foreign languages has increased by at least 10 percentage points. The increase is between 13 and 17 percentage points in Bulgaria, Latvia and Lithuania, and at least 25 percentage points in the Czech Republic, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia and Iceland. This generally corresponds to reforms in the starting age of the first compulsory language (see Figure B2).

SECTION I - NUMBER OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES LEARNT BY STUDENTS

Figure C2: Trends in the proportion of students learning at least one foreign language in primary education (ISCED 1), 2005, 2014


## Explanatory note

The proportion of students learning one or two (or more) foreign languages is calculated with respect to all students in all years of primary education, even when foreign language learning does not begin in the initial years of this level. The number of students learning one or two (or more) foreign languages is divided by the corresponding total number of students enrolled.
Breaks in the time series other than those reported in the country specific notes may have occurred in some countries between 2010 and 2014 due to changes in data gathering methodology.
EU average data for 2005 is based on 27 Member States.
Data for the proportion of students learning $0,1,2$ (or more) foreign languages are available in Annexe 3.

## Country-specific notes

Denmark: A break in the time series occurred in 2014. As of 2013/14, ISCED 1 started a year earlier, at the age of 6 , instead of 7 . For this reason, the difference is not considered in the Figure.
Estonia: In schools where Estonian is not the language of schooling, Estonian is counted as a foreign language for statistical purposes.
Malta: A break in the time series occurred in 2010.
Austria: A break in the time series occurred in 2009. Until 2009, indicators were based on estimated data.

## sixty per cent of students learn two foreign languages or more IN LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION

In most of the countries, learning a second language becomes compulsory at the beginning of lower secondary education at the latest (see Figure B1).

Figure C3, shows that 98.6 \% of lower secondary students in the EU learn at least one foreign language. Only in Ireland does the proportion of students not learning any foreign language in lower secondary education exceed $10 \%$. This situation can partly be explained by the fact that learning a foreign language is not compulsory in school education, but all students learn English and Irish, the two official languages.

At EU level, 59.7 \% of lower secondary students learn two or more foreign languages. Moreover, in 11 countries, they represent at least 90 \% of students (Estonia, Greece, Italy, Luxembourg, Malta, Poland, Romania, Finland, Iceland, Liechtenstein and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia). Conversely, in five education systems, less than $20 \%$ of students learn two foreign languages or more. This is the case in the French Community of Belgium, where no provision for a second foreign

PARTICIPATION
language exists at this education level, in Ireland and Hungary, where the learning of a second foreign language is not compulsory, and in Bulgaria and Austria, where learning a second language only becomes compulsory in upper secondary education.

Figure C3: Proportion of students learning foreign languages in lower secondary education, by number of languages (ISCED 2), 2014


Source: Eurydice, on the basis of Eurostat/UOE data [educ_uoe_lang02] (last update: last update: 17/02/2017).

## Explanatory note

The proportion of students learning $0,1,2$ (or more) foreign languages is calculated with respect to all students in all years of lower secondary education. The number of students learning $0,1,2$ (or more) foreign languages is divided by the corresponding total number of students enrolled.
Data are available in Annexe 3.

## Country-specific note

Estonia: In schools where Estonian is not the language of schooling, Estonian is counted as a foreign language for statistical purposes.

## THE PROPORTION OF LOWER SECONDARY STUDENTS LEARNING TWO OR MORE FOREIGN LANGUAGES INCREASED IN SIX COUNTRIES OVER THE DECADE

At EU level, 59.7 \% of lower secondary students were learning two or more foreign languages in 2014. This rose from $46.7 \%$ in 2005. In parallel, the proportion of lower secondary students learning no foreign languages remained stable, below $1.5 \%$. As shown in Figure C4, three main trends are apparent across Europe.

In the first group of 16 countries, the situation remained relatively stable (less than 10 percentage points difference) between the reference years. In six of these countries, at least $90 \%$ of lower secondary students were learning a minimum of two foreign languages in both reference years (in Greece, Luxembourg, Malta, Romania, Finland and Iceland). In the 10 others, there was less than $90 \%$ studying two languages in both reference years (in Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), Bulgaria, Ireland, Spain, France, Lithuania, Netherlands, Austria, Portugal and Sweden).

In a second group of six countries, the proportion of students in lower secondary education learning two or more foreign languages increased by at least 10 percentage points. The increase is below 13 percentage points in Estonia and Latvia. It exceeds 30 percentage points in the Czech Republic, Italy, Slovenia and Slovakia. The latter increases are all related to reforms in the start of a compulsory second language (see Figure B3).

Finally, the proportion of lower secondary students learning two or more foreign languages has decreased by more than $10 \%$ in Denmark.

Figure C4: Trends in the proportion of students learning two or more foreign language(s) in lower secondary education (ISCED 2), 2005, 2014


Increase (10 p.p. or more)

Decrease (10 p.p. or more)
Stable (change below 10 p.p.) with $90 \%$ or more students in both reference years)

Stable (change below 10 p.p.) with less than $90 \%$ of students in both reference years)

Not available

Source: Eurydice, on the basis of Eurostat/UOE data [educ_uoe_lang02] (last update: 17/02/2017).

## Explanatory note

The proportion of students learning two (or more) foreign languages is calculated with respect to all students in all years of lower secondary education. The number of students learning two (or more) foreign languages is divided by the corresponding total number of students enrolled.
Breaks in the time series other than those reported in the country-specific notes may have occurred in some countries between 2010 and 2014 due to changes in data gathering methodology.
EU average data for 2005 is based on 27 Member States.
Data, including for the proportion of students learning 0 or 1 foreign language, are available in Annexe 3.

## Country specific notes

Estonia: In schools where Estonian is not the language of schooling, Estonian is counted as a foreign language for statistical purposes.
Malta: A break in the time series occurred in 2010.
Austria: A break in the time series occurred in 2009. Until 2009, indicators were based on estimated data.

## STUDENTS IN GENERAL UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION ARE MORE LIKELY to Learn languages than those following vocational paths

In upper secondary education, students may either study in general education, usually leading to higher education, or in vocational education leading to more work-oriented studies or directly to the labour market. The educational programmes associated with these pathways are, consequently, often rather different at upper secondary level. For this reason, the situations in general and vocational upper secondary education are presented separately in this indicator and the next. At EU level, almost half of all upper secondary students followed vocational programmes in 2014 (Eurostat, 2017). In the 17 European countries covered in this chapter, less than half of upper secondary students were in vocational education. In Ireland, Cyprus and Malta, the figure is even less than one in four students. Conversely, two in three upper secondary students were enrolled on a vocational programme in the Czech Republic, Croatia, the Netherlands, Austria, Slovenia, Slovakia, Finland and Liechtenstein.


PARTICIPATION

Figure C5: Proportion of students learning foreign languages in upper secondary education, by number of languages (ISCED 3), 2014
a) General upper secondary education


Source: Eurydice, on the basis of Eurostat/UOE data [educ_uoe_lang02] (last update: 17/02/2017).

## Explanatory note

The proportion of students learning $0,1,2$ (or more) foreign languages is calculated with respect to all students in all years of upper secondary education, even where the language learning does not continue until the end of this level. The number of students learning $0,1,2$ (or more) foreign languages is divided by the corresponding number of students enrolled.
Data are available in Annexe 3.

## Country specific notes

Estonia: In schools where Estonian is not the language of schooling, Estonian is counted as a foreign language for statistical purposes.
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia: Data for vocational upper secondary education are included in general upper secondary education.

Figures C5a and C5b indicate that the chance to learn foreign languages depends in many countries on the pathway followed. As previously mentioned, the proportion of students by number of languages learnt is calculated on the basis of the total population of students enrolled at this level of education. In countries where the learning of two foreign languages ends before the end of upper secondary education, the share of students learning less than two foreign languages may therefore be higher. This does not necessarily mean that these students learnt no foreign languages at all or only one foreign language during the whole of their upper secondary education.

At EU level, the proportion of students not learning foreign languages is twice as high in vocational education compared to general education ( $21.0 \%$ and $9.3 \%$ respectively). As already mentioned, the proportion of upper secondary students not learning a foreign language is calculated on the basis of the total population of students enrolled at this level. In general education, two countries have at least $33 \%$ of students at upper secondary level not learning a foreign language in the reference year (the United Kingdom and Norway). The proportion is highest in the United Kingdom ( $51.0 \%$ ). In vocational education, in seven countries, at least $33 \%$ of students are not learning a foreign language (Belgium (French Community), Denmark, Germany, Greece, Spain, Iceland and Norway). Of these, the proportion is highest in Denmark (79.6 \%) and Spain (79.3 \%).

When examining the data on the learning of two or more foreign languages, there are also significant differences between general and vocational education at upper secondary level. At EU level, 51.2 \% of students learn at least two foreign languages in general upper secondary education versus $34.5 \%$ in vocational upper secondary education. In 11 countries, at least $90 \%$ of students learn two or more foreign languages in general upper secondary education (in Belgium (Flemish Community), the Czech Republic, Estonia, France, Croatia, Luxembourg, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia, Finland and Liechtenstein). Only Romania has such a high percentage of students learning two languages in vocational upper secondary education. Conversely, four countries have less than $10 \%$ of students learning two or more foreign languages in general upper secondary education (Ireland, Greece, Portugal and the United Kingdom), compared to nine countries in vocational upper secondary education (Denmark, Germany, Greece, Spain, Hungary, Malta, Portugal, Sweden and Norway).

## IN MOST COUNTRIES, THE PROPORTION OF UPPER SECONDARY STUDENTS LEARNING TWO OR MORE FOREIGN LANGUAGES REMAINED STABLE

Figures C6a and C6b show the changes that occurred between 2005 and 2014 in the proportion of students learning two or more foreign languages in general and vocational upper secondary education.

In general upper secondary education, the proportion of students learning two or more foreign languages decreased by 11 percentage points at EU level. As previously mentioned, the proportion of students by number of languages learnt is calculated on the basis of the total population of students enrolled at this level of education. For the countries where data is available, three different patterns are evident. In the first group of 18 education systems, the situation remained stable (i.e., less than 10 percentage points difference). In nine of these education systems, the proportion of students learning two or more is less than $90 \%$ in both reference years (in Belgium (French Community), Bulgaria, Ireland, Greece, Spain, Italy, Latvia, the United Kingdom and Iceland). In nine education systems, it is above $90 \%$ for at least one reference year (Belgium (Flemish Community), the Czech Republic, France, Croatia, Luxembourg, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia and Finland). In the second group of five countries, the proportion decreased by more than 10 percentage points (in Denmark, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Portugal and Sweden). Finally, in the third group, the proportion of students learning two or more foreign languages increased: in Estonia by 15.7 percentage points, in Malta by 52.9.

In vocational upper secondary education, three trends are apparent. In the first group of 14 education systems, the proportion of students learning at least two foreign languages remained stable (i.e., a maximum difference of 10 percentage points) with a proportion of less than $90 \%$ for both reference years (Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), Bulgaria, the Czech republic, Denmark, Greece, Spain, Croatia, Italy, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Slovenia, Sweden and Iceland). In the second group of three countries, the proportion of these students increased by more than 10 percentage points (in France, Romania and Slovakia). The increase is up to 65.0 percentage points in Romania. Finally, in Estonia and Portugal, the proportion decreased by more than 10 percentage points.

PARTICIPATION

Figure C6: Trends in the proportion of students learning two or more foreign languages in upper secondary education (ISCED 3), 2005, 2014
a) General upper secondary education

b) Vocational upper secondary education


Increase (at least 10 p.p.)
Stable (change below 10 p.p. with $90 \%$ or more in at least one reference year)

Stable (change below 10 p.p.) with
less than $90 \%$ in both reference years

Source: Eurydice, on the basis of Eurostat/UOE data [educ_uoe_lang02] (last update: 17/02/2017).

## Explanatory note

The proportion of students learning two (or more) foreign languages is calculated with respect to all students in all years of upper secondary education, even when the learning does not continue until the end of this level. The number of students learning two (or more) foreign languages is divided by the corresponding number of students enrolled.
Breaks in the time series other than those reported in the country specific notes may have occurred in some countries between 2010 and 2014 due to changes in data gathering methodology.
EU average data for 2005 is based on 27 Member States.
Data, including for the proportion of students learning 0 or 1 foreign language, are available in Annexe 3.

## Country specific notes

Czech Republic: A break in the time series for general education occurred in 2013. Until 2013, indicators were based on estimated data.
Estonia: In schools where Estonian is not the language of schooling, Estonian is counted as a foreign language for statistical purposes.
Malta: A break in the time series occurred in 2010.
Austria: Breaks in the time series occurred in 2009 and 2013. Until 2009, indicators were based on estimated data. In 2013, there was a change in methodology for ISCED 3 due to the use of the 2011 ISCED classification. For this reason, the difference is not considered in the Figure.

In some education systems, the trend is the same in general and vocational upper secondary education. The proportion of students in upper secondary education learning two or more foreign languages remained stable (i.e. less than 10 percentage points difference) in 10 countries, namely in Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Greece, Spain, Croatia, Italy, Luxembourg, Slovenia and Iceland. It decreased by at least 10 percentage points in both types of education in Portugal.
In the three countries where the proportion of students in vocational upper secondary education learning two or more foreign languages increased by more than 10 percentage points (France, Romania and Slovakia), the situation remained stable in general education. In Estonia, it increased in general education but decreased in vocational education. In Malta, it increased in general education but remained stable in vocational education. In Denmark, Lithuania and Sweden, it decreased in general education but remained stable in vocational education.

SECTION I - NUMBER OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES LEARNT BY STUDENTS

## THE AVERAGE NUMBER OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES LEARNT REACHES TWO AT SECONDARY LEVEL IN ONE THIRD OF COUNTRIES

A calculation of the average number of foreign languages learnt by the whole school population at a given education level allows a clear comparison to be made between countries. This information is presented by education level in Figure C7, with upper secondary education including both students in general and vocational education.

Figure C7: Average number of foreign languages learnt per student, primary and secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2014


Source: Eurydice, on the basis of Eurostat/UOE data [educ_uoe_lang03] (last update: 21/12/2016).

## Explanatory note

The average number of foreign languages learnt is calculated with respect to all students in all years of the education level concerned, regardless of whether they are learning one or more foreign languages in all grades.
Data are available in Annexe 3.

## Country specific note

Estonia: In schools where Estonian is not the language of schooling, Estonian is counted as a foreign language for statistical purposes.

The teaching of a second language often starts at the end of primary education or the beginning of lower secondary education (see Figure B1). This explains why the average number of foreign languages learnt in European countries is systematically below 2.0 in primary education, although it usually ranges between 0.5 and 1.2. It is higher in Luxembourg (1.8), where the starting age of the second language is the lowest (at 7 years old). Conversely, it is lower than 0.5 in Belgium (Flemish Community) and Portugal. The situation in the Flemish Community of Belgium and Portugal may be explained by the fact that, in the reference year, learning a first foreign language becomes compulsory at the age of 10 .

PARTICIPATION

In secondary education, the average number of foreign languages learnt is usually between 1.0 and 1.9 in the majority of the countries. It reaches two for at least one of the two education levels only in 11 countries. The first group of six include countries that reach an average of 2.0 languages only for lower secondary education (Estonia, Italy, Malta, the Netherlands, Iceland and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia). In the second group, the average number of foreign languages learnt is at least at 2.0 for both lower and upper secondary education (Luxembourg, Romania, Finland and Liechtenstein). Finally, in the Flemish Community of Belgium, the average reaches 2.0 only in upper secondary education. The average number of languages learnt is below 1.0 for upper secondary education in Germany, Greece, Portugal and Norway.

## PARTICIPATION

## SECTION II - FOREIGN LANGUAGES LEARNT BY STUDENTS

## ENGLISH IS THE MOST STUDIED FOREIGN LANGUAGE

There is a wide variety of languages spoken in Europe. While the European Union with its 28 Member States has 24 official and working languages, there is a manifold increase if all the regional and minority languages officially recognised in European countries are taken into account (see Figure A1). However, only a few of these languages are studied widely in schools as foreign languages - the focus of this section.

Student participation in foreign language learning is strongly influenced by the curriculum requirements in place in individual countries and the predominance of specific languages is, in turn, largely dependent on whether they are compulsory or optional. This type of contextual information on the foreign language curriculum can be found in Section B1.

English is unquestionably the main foreign language learnt in Europe. Figure C8 shows that in almost all European countries, English is the first foreign language or the language learnt by most students during primary and secondary education.

There are very few countries where languages other than English are learnt by a majority of students. French is the most commonly studied foreign language in English-speaking countries, namely in Ireland and across the United Kingdom. In Liechtenstein, French is studied alongside English. In Luxembourg, German is the first foreign language in primary education, while in upper secondary, the most frequently studied language is French. In Belgium, most students study the languages of the other Communities. Therefore, in the Flemish Community, most students study French as their first foreign language and, in the French Community, most students study Dutch (except in upper secondary education, when most students study English). In the German-speaking Community, French is the first foreign language in all German-speaking schools according to official regulations $\left({ }^{1}\right)$.

Figure C8: Foreign languages learnt by most students, primary and secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2014


Source: Eurydice, on the basis of Eurostat/UOE data [educ_uoe_lang01] (last update: 21/12/2016).

## Explanatory note

In most countries the same foreign language is learnt by most students in all the education levels covered (ISCED 1, ISCED 2 and ISCED 3). These countries are shown in the main area of the relevant language circle/oval. Where the foreign language learnt by most students varies according to the level of education, the country is shown in the intersection of the relevant languages.
Data on the proportions of students by language learnt and ISCED level is available in Annexe 3.

[^5]
## Country-specific notes (Figure C8)

Germany: 2013 data for ISCED 2.
Luxembourg: Although the official languages are French, German, and Luxembourgish, for the purpose of education statistics, French and German are counted as foreign languages.
Netherlands: Data for ISCED 1 missing except for English language.
Malta: English is an official language alongside Maltese, but for the purpose of education statistics, it is counted as a foreign language.

The proportions of students learning the most common foreign language vary in European countries and across different education levels (see Annexe 3). 99-100 \% of students enrolled in primary education study the same first foreign language in Spain, Italy, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Malta, Austria, Liechtenstein, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Norway. In contrast, French is the most studied language in Belgium (Flemish Community) but only $27.0 \%$ of students take it. In this Community, foreign language learning is compulsory only for the last two years of primary education (from age 10). Less than half of students study the most common foreign language in Belgium (French Community), Hungary, Portugal and Slovenia. In these countries, many students do not study any foreign languages during the first years of primary school (see Figure B1).

In lower secondary education, in almost all European countries, the vast majority of students (more than $95 \%$ ) study the same foreign language. There are only few exceptions. For example, in Belgium (French Community), 53.7 \% of students learn Dutch, and 44.0 \% of students learn English. The proportion of students learning the predominant foreign language is also lower in Bulgaria, Ireland and Hungary (ranging from $60 \%$ to $90 \%$ ). In these countries, many students opt for other foreign languages (for example, German, Spanish or Russian).

In upper secondary education, the proportion of students learning the predominant language decreases compared to lower secondary education. This is partly because some students, especially those on vocational pathways, do not study any languages (see Figure C5b) and partly because there is a greater variety of foreign languages available to study (see Figures B10 and B11). The numbers of students learning the predominant foreign language range between $50 \%$ and $60 \%$ in Denmark, Germany, Ireland, Iceland and Norway. For example, in Norway, students in general tracks are required to learn English for one year, and students in vocational tracks learn English for two years. Moreover, in some countries, there is no predominant foreign language studied by a majority of students. For example, in the United Kingdom, the most common language - French - is learnt by only 26.0 \% of general secondary education students, while $13.5 \%$ study Spanish and $8.8 \%$ study German.

## MORE THAN 90 \% OF STUDENTS STUDY ENGLISH IN AT LEAST ONE EDUCATION LEVEL IN MOST EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

English is widely studied in all education levels in Europe. Virtually all students study English during the entire length of lower secondary education. At EU level, $97.3 \%$ of students in lower secondary education learn English. The proportion is lower in primary education (79.4 \%) as, in some countries, foreign language learning is not part of the curriculum during the first years of compulsory schooling (see Figure B1). At EU level, the proportion of students learning English in upper secondary education is 85.2 \%. This is mostly due to a lower proportion of vocational education students learning foreign languages. Moreover, in upper secondary education, a greater variety of foreign languages is usually offered in schools (see Figure B11).

Figure C9 highlights the countries where more than $90 \%$ of students study English in any of the three levels of school education (ISCED 1-3). In nine European countries (France, Croatia, Italy, Cyprus,

Malta, Austria, Poland, Liechtenstein and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia), most students (more than $90 \%$ ) learn English from the first grade until their school graduation. Moreover, in three of those countries (Malta, Liechtenstein and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia), all students (100 \%) study English during the entire period of schooling, on every school pathway.

In contrast, in a few countries (Belgium, Bulgaria, Luxembourg and Hungary), the proportions of students learning English do not reach $90 \%$ in any educational level. However, even in these countries, English is learnt by at least two thirds of students in at least one education level.

Figure C9: Countries with a high proportion of students (more than $90 \%$ ) learning English in primary and secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2014


## Explanatory note

Data by ISCED level is available in Annexe 3.

## Country-specific notes

Germany: 2013 data for ISCED 2.
Malta: English is an official language alongside Maltese, but for the purpose of education statistics, it is counted as a foreign language.

## THE SECOND MOST STUDIED FOREIGN LANGUAGE IS FRENCH, WHILE GERMAN AND SPANISH ARE ALSO POPULAR CHOICES

French is the second most learnt foreign language in European countries. At EU level, $33.7 \%$ of students study French in lower secondary education and $23.0 \%$ in general upper secondary education. French is a popular choice for a second foreign language in many central and southern European countries. It is the second most studied foreign language in at least one education level in Germany, Greece, Spain, Italy, Cyprus, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Austria, Portugal, Romania, Liechtenstein and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia. In contrast, French is rarely studied in eastern European countries (except Romania) or in the Nordic countries (see Annexe 3).

German is the third most learnt foreign language in lower secondary education. At EU level, 23.1 \% of lower secondary education students learn German. The numbers reach $18.9 \%$ in general upper secondary education (see Annexe 3). This language is widely studied in central European countries
(the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland and Slovakia) and Balkan countries (Bulgaria, Croatia, Slovenia and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia), as well as in Denmark, Ireland, Luxembourg and the Netherlands. German is not very popular in southern European countries (Spain, Italy, Cyprus and Portugal), nor in Belgium (French Community) or Finland, where less than 10 \% choose German as a foreign language.

Spanish is commonly studied in general upper secondary education. At EU level, 19.1 \% of general upper secondary education students learn Spanish. It is the second most learnt foreign language in lower and upper secondary education in France, Sweden and Norway, as well as in general upper secondary education across the United Kingdom.

Russian is the second most studied foreign language in at least one education level in Bulgaria, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania. In Estonia, due to the large Russian-speaking population, 22.7 \% of students study Estonian as a foreign language in primary education, making it the second most popular foreign language. In Latvia, the numbers of Russian-speaking students learning Latvian is similarly high. However, when collecting statistics on foreign language learning, Latvian is not considered a 'foreign language', but a state language.

English is the second most studied language in those education systems which did not have it as the first foreign language (see Figure C8), namely Belgium (French and Flemish Communities) and Liechtenstein. The exception is Luxembourg, where French and German are learnt by all students, while English is the third most common language in lower secondary and upper secondary education (see Figure B9). In the French Community of Belgium, Dutch is the most studied language in primary and lower secondary education, while English is the second most studied language. The trend is reversed in upper secondary education.

Figure C10: The second most learnt foreign language, primary and secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2014


Source: Eurydice, on the basis of Eurostat/UOE data [educ_uoe_lang01] (last update: 21/12/2016).

## Explanatory note

In most countries, the second most learnt foreign language is the same language in all the education levels covered (ISCED 1, ISCED 2 and ISCED 3). These countries are shown in the main area of the relevant language circle/oval. Where the second most learnt foreign language learnt varies depending on the level of education, the country is shown in the intersection of the relevant languages. The Figure only takes into account languages learnt by more than $10 \%$ of students.
Data by ISCED level is available in Annexe 3.

## Country-specific notes (Figure C10)

Germany: 2013 data for English ISCED 2.
Estonia: In schools where Estonian is not language of schooling, Estonian is counted as a foreign language for statistical purposes.
Luxembourg: Although the official languages are French, German, and Luxembourgish, for the purpose of education statistics, French and German are counted as foreign languages.
Malta: English is an official language alongside Maltese, but for the purpose of education statistics, it is counted as a foreign language.
Netherlands: Data for ISCED 1 missing except for English language.
Finland: Swedish is an official language alongside Finnish, but for the purpose of education statistics, it is counted as a foreign language.

Several less widely spoken languages are studied in some countries due either to historical reasons or geographical proximity. In Finland, where the second state language (Swedish or Finnish depending on the main language of schooling) is mandatory, Swedish is the second most studied foreign language. In lower secondary education, $92.3 \%$ of students learn Swedish, and the proportion is $87.8 \%$ in upper secondary education. In Iceland, Danish is the second compulsory foreign language, and it is learnt by $96.6 \%$ of students in lower secondary education (for more information on compulsory languages see Figure B9). In Malta, 59.8 \% of lower secondary education students learn Italian, although it is not compulsory.

## FOREIGN LANGUAGES OTHER THAN ENGLISH, FRENCH, GERMAN OR SPANISH ARE RARELY STUDIED

Figure C 11 shows the foreign languages other than English, French, German and Spanish learnt by a minimum $10 \%$ of students in primary or general secondary education in European countries. These foreign languages are Danish, Italian, Dutch, Russian and Swedish. For the upper secondary level, this indicator focuses on general education in order to present the most variety. Vocational education students tend to learn fewer foreign languages (see Figure C5).

At EU level, 2.9 \% of general upper secondary education students learn Italian. More than $10 \%$ of students learn Italian in Croatia, Cyprus, Malta, Austria and Slovenia in lower secondary and/or general upper secondary education. Italian is especially popular in Malta and Croatia. In Malta, 59.8 \% of lower secondary students and $41.6 \%$ of general upper secondary students learn Italian. In Croatia, the proportions are $11.6 \%$ and $24.4 \%$ respectively.

At EU level, 2.8 \% of students learn Russian in general upper secondary education. Russian is learnt by more than $10 \%$ of students in at least one education level in Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania and Slovakia. This language is especially popular in the Baltic countries, where $60-70 \%$ of lower secondary students learn Russian.

Some languages are widely studied only in one specific European country. Dutch is widely studied in the French Community of Belgium, Swedish in Finland and Danish in Iceland (see more Figures C8 and C10).

PARTICIPATION

Figure C11: Foreign languages other than English, French, German and Spanish learnt by a minimum 10 \% of students, primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2014


## Explanatory note

The Figure only takes into account languages learnt by more than $10 \%$ of students in at least one of the three ISCED levels concerned (ISCED 1, ISCED 2 and ISCED 3 general).
Each student learning a foreign language is counted once for each language learnt. In other words, students learning more than one language are counted as many times as the number of languages learnt.
Data by ISCED level is available in Annexe 3.

## Country-specific note

Estonia: In schools where Estonian is not the language of schooling, Estonian is counted as a foreign language for statistical purposes. In this context, Estonian is learnt by more than $10 \%$ of students in general education at ISCED 1, 2 and 3 .

## MANY MORE PRIMARY EDUCATION STUDENTS ARE LEARNING ENGLISH COMPARED WITH 10 YEARS AGO

The proportion of students learning English continues to rise. The change has been the most profound for the youngest - primary education - students. At EU level, in 2014, there was an increase of 18.7 percentage points for students learning English in primary education compared with 2005. During the same time period, the proportion of students learning English in lower secondary education increased by 7.4 percentage points, while in general upper secondary education it increased by 2.9 percentage points.

Figure C12a shows the changes in the proportions of students learning English in primary education. The largest increase was observed in the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, where in 2005 only one in every five students was learning English, while in 2014, all students were studying the language. Currently, all children in the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia start learning English in the first grade of primary education, at the age of 6 . The rise in the proportion of students learning English was higher than 33 percentage points in several central European countries (the Czech Republic, Poland, Romania, Slovenia and Slovakia), as well as in Cyprus. In most of the remaining eastern and central European countries (Germany, Croatia, Latvia, Lithuania and Hungary), as well as the Netherlands and Iceland, the increase in the proportion of students learning English was between

10 and 30 percentage points. Most of these countries lowered the starting age of the compulsory learning of the first foreign language (see Figure B2). In Germany, Hungary and the Netherlands, there were no changes in the age at which the compulsory learning of the first language starts. However, in Croatia, the starting age was postponed. In these countries, there may be several explanations for the increase in the proportion of primary students learning English: schools are offering English from an increasingly early age, more schools are offering English, more students are choosing English and/or there have been changes in the student age distribution.

Figure C12: Trends in the proportions of students learning English in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2005, 2014


## Explanatory note

Breaks in the time series other than those reported in the country-specific notes may have occurred in some countries between 2010 and 2014 due to changes in data gathering methodology.
Data by ISCED level is available in Annexe 3.

## Country-specific notes

Denmark: A break in the time series occurred in 2014. As of 2013/14, ISCED 1 started a year earlier, at the age of 6 , instead of previously 7 years old. For this reason, the difference is not considered in the Figure a.
Germany: 2013 data instead of 2014 for English ISCED 2.
Austria: Breaks in the time series occurred in 2009 and 2013. Until 2009, indicators were based on estimated data. In 2013, there was a change in methodology for ISCED 3 due to the use of the 2011 ISCED classification. For this reason, the difference in ISCED 3 is not considered in the Figure $c$.
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia: Data for vocational education at ISCED 3 are included in general education at ISCED 3.

It is also important to highlight that in five European countries very high proportions of primary education students were already studying English in 2005. More than $90 \%$ of students were learning English in both 2005 and 2014 in Spain, Italy, Malta, Austria and Norway. In contrast, in two countries, students do not learn English at all in primary education, these are the Flemish Community of Belgium and Luxembourg.

Figure C12b and Figure C12c respectively, highlight the trends in lower secondary and general upper secondary education. The changes in general secondary education were less profound, partly due to the fact that a high proportion of students were already learning English in 2005. However, in Malta, the proportion of students learning English in general upper secondary education grew from two thirds in 2005 to cover all students in 2014. Similarly, in Slovakia, the share of students learning English in lower secondary education increased from $65.2 \%$ to $95.9 \%$ over the last 10 years. In Italy and Hungary, there was a moderate increase ( $10-15$ percentage points) in the proportion of students learning English in both lower secondary education and general upper secondary education.

In Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Croatia and Poland, the proportion of students learning English increased by 13-25 percentage points in lower secondary education, while in Lithuania and Portugal the proportion grew by approximately 15 percentage points in general upper secondary education.

## THE PROPORTION OF STUDENTS LEARNING FRENCH FELL SLIGHTLY IN SEVERAL COUNTRIES

The proportion of students learning French either remained the same or fell slightly in European countries during the last 10 years. However, the number of countries that specify French as a mandatory foreign language for all students remained the same (see Figure B9), and French is still one of the most common foreign languages offered in European schools (see Figure B11).
Figure C13 shows where the proportion of students learning French changed by more than 5 percentage points between 2005 and 2014 in primary, lower secondary, or general upper secondary education. The change was particularly significant in the Netherlands, where $69.5 \%$ of general upper secondary education students learnt French in 2005, compared with 31.1 \% in 2014. In Portugal, the proportion of lower secondary education students learning French dropped from $88.1 \%$ in 2005 to $64.7 \%$ in 2014. In addition, in Portugal, the proportion of students learning French in general upper secondary education also fell by 16.3 percentage points. In contrast, a considerably higher proportion of lower secondary students are learning French in Italy: during the last 10 years, the share increased from $46.3 \%$ to $67.7 \%$.

In other education systems, the changes were less pronounced. In primary education, in the Flemish Community of Belgium and Romania, the proportion of students learning French decreased by 6.9 and 8.5 percentage points respectively. In the Flemish Community of Belgium, this drop may be partly explained by the 2009 reform, according to which the compulsory starting age for French in Flemish schools in Brussels changed from 8 to 10. In lower secondary education, in addition to Portugal, the popularity of French fell in Bulgaria, Ireland, Greece and Malta. In general upper secondary education, the proportion of students learning French decreased by 6-14 percentage points in the Czech Republic, Germany, Finland, Sweden, the United Kingdom and Iceland.
In two countries, the popularity of the French language shifted from one educational level to another. In Greece, in 2005, primary education students did not learn French, but in lower secondary education 59.4 \% of students learnt French as the second foreign language. Currently, the proportion of students learning French in primary education amounts to $16.1 \%$, while the numbers in lower secondary education fell to $48.5 \%$. In Malta, the popularity of French weakened in lower secondary education, but a 15.6 percentage point increase occurred in general upper secondary education.

Figure C13: Trends in the proportions of students learning French, primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2005, 2014


Increase (more than 5 p.p.) in at least one educational level

Decrease (more than 5 p.p.) in at least one educational level

Stable (equal to or less than
5 p.p. difference)
in ISCED 1, 2 and 3
Not applicable
Not available

Source: Eurydice, on the basis
of Eurostat/UOE data [educ_uoe_lang01] (last update: $21 / 12 / 2016$ ).

## Explanatory note

The Figure shows a change in any education level (ISCED 1, ISCED 2 and/or ISCED 3 general).
The key 'no change' means the difference between 2005 and 2014 is less than 5 percentage points.
Breaks in the time series other than those reported in the country-specific notes may have occurred in some countries between 2010 and 2014 due to changes in data gathering methodology.
EU average data for 2005 is based on EU 27. The Figure shows a change in any of the education levels (ISCED 1, ISCED 2 and ISCED 3 general).
Data by ISCED level is available in Annexe 3.

## Country-specific notes

Austria: Breaks in the time series occurred in 2009 and 2013. Until 2009, indicators were based on estimated data. In 2013, there was a change in methodology for ISCED 3 due to the use of the 2011 ISCED classification. For this reason, the difference in ISCED 3 is not considered in the Figure.
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia: Data for vocational education at ISCED 3 are included in general education at ISCED 3.

## THE PROPORTIONS OF PRIMARY AND LOWER SECONDARY STUDENTS LEARNING GERMAN ARE SIMILAR TO 10 YEARS AGO

At EU level, the proportion of primary and lower education students learning German remained similar in 2014 and 2005. In contrast, in general upper secondary education, the proportion dropped by 11.0 percentage points during the last decade. However, educational authorities in European countries mention German as one of the most common choices of foreign language (see Figure B11).

The decline was especially strong in the Netherlands, where $86.2 \%$ of general upper secondary education students learnt German in 2005, compared with 40.3 \% in 2014. In Denmark and Finland, the popularity of German weakened among lower secondary, as well as general upper secondary students. In these countries, the proportion of general upper secondary students learning German fell by more than 20 percentage points. The proportions of students learning German decreased during the last 10 years in the Baltic countries, as well as in Bulgaria, Hungary, Sweden, the United Kingdom and Iceland.

In several central European countries, the popularity of German shifted from one education level to another. In the Czech Republic, Poland and Slovakia, the proportion of students learning German fell in primary and general upper secondary education. In contrast, the share grew considerably in lower secondary education. In Slovenia, the share of lower secondary education students learning German rose by 20.4 percentage points, but the share declined by 14.8 percentage points in general upper secondary education.

German has become more popular in only two countries - Greece and Croatia. In Greece, the proportion of primary students learning German increased from virtually none to $13.2 \%$. In lower secondary education, the proportion rose from 35.7 \% in 2005 to 46.5 \% in 2014. In Croatia, the share of lower secondary students learning German grew from $32.1 \%$ to $43.8 \%$ during the last 10 years.

Figure C14: Trends in the proportions of students learning German, primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2005, 2014


## Explanatory note

The Figure shows a change in any education level (ISCED 1, ISCED 2 and/or ISCED 3 general).
Breaks in the time series other than those reported in the country-specific notes may have occurred in some countries between 2010 and 2014 due to changes in data gathering methodology.
Data by ISCED level is available in Annexe 3.

## Country-specific note

Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia: Data for vocational education at ISCED 3 are included in general education at ISCED 3.

## SPANISH BECOMES A MORE POPULAR CHOICE FOR THE SECOND FOREIGN LANGUAGE

The popularity of the Spanish language has increased during the last 10 years, although the educational authorities in most European countries put less emphasis on Spanish compared to English, French or German. No European country specifies Spanish as a compulsory foreign language for all students (see Figure B9), and only two countries (Malta and Sweden) require that all lower or upper secondary schools must provide an opportunity to learn Spanish (see Figure B11a).

At EU level, there was a 5.6 percentage point increase in the number of lower secondary students learning Spanish in 2014 compared with 2005. The largest change was in Norway, where the share of lower secondary students learning Spanish has increased from 3.5 \% to 32.0 \% during the last 10 years. In Ireland, Italy and Portugal, the popularity of Spanish increased in both lower and general upper secondary education. In Sweden and Norway, the proportion of students learning Spanish increased in lower secondary education. However, in the majority of countries, the popularity of Spanish grew in general upper secondary education but not in lower secondary education, where it remained stable between 2005 and 2014. This is the case in the Czech Republic, Germany, Cyprus, Slovenia, Slovakia, the United Kingdom and Iceland.

Figure C15: Difference in the proportions of students learning Spanish, general secondary education (ISCED 2-3), 2005, 2014


## Explanatory note

The Figure does not show ISCED 1 as, at this level, Spanish is rarely studied and data for 2005 is not available.
Breaks in the time series other than those reported in the country-specific notes may have occurred in some countries between 2010 and 2014 due to changes in data gathering methodology.

Data by ISCED level is available in Annexe 3.

## Country-specific notes

Austria: Breaks in the time series occurred in 2009 and 2013. Until 2009, indicators were based on estimated data. In 2013, there was a change in methodology for ISCED 3 due to the use of the 2011 ISCED classification. For this reason, the difference in ISCED 3 is not considered in the Figure.
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia: Data for vocational education at ISCED 3 are included in general education at ISCED 3.

## GENERAL AND VOCATIONAL PATHWAYS IN UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION PROVIDE THE SAME FOREIGN LANGUAGES

The general and vocational pathways in upper secondary education often follow rather different educational programmes; therefore, it is worth analysing whether there are differences in the foreign languages studied. At EU level, $47 \%$ of all upper secondary school students followed vocational programmes in 2014 (Eurostat, 2017). The highest proportions ( $70 \%$ or higher) are in the Czech Republic, Croatia, Austria and Finland. On the other hand, less than $30 \%$ of students are registered on vocational programmes in Ireland, Cyprus, Lithuania, Hungary and Malta.

In all the European countries and regions analysed, the most frequently studied foreign language is the same in general and vocational upper secondary education (see Figure C8). The second foreign language (see Figure C10) differs only in two countries. In Bulgaria, German is the second most popular foreign language on general pathways, while Russian is the second most studied foreign language on vocational pathways. In Portugal, Spanish is the second most frequently studied language in general upper secondary education, while French is the second most popular foreign language in vocational education.

Larger differences are apparent between general and vocational education in the proportions of students learning foreign languages. Figure C16 shows the differences in the proportion of students learning English in general and vocational upper secondary education. English is the most popular foreign language, studied at upper secondary level in all non-English speaking European education systems. At EU level, 94.1 \% of students on general pathways study English, while the numbers drop to $75.0 \%$ on vocational pathways. The difference is especially high in Spain, where almost all students ( $97.5 \%$ ) study English in general upper secondary education, but only $20.4 \%$ in vocational education. Similarly, in Denmark the proportion of students learning English on general pathways reaches 82.1 \% compared with only $18.6 \%$ on vocational pathways. The difference is also profound (approximately 50-55 percentage points) in the French Community of Belgium and Germany. In the Baltic countries, as well as in the Flemish Community of Belgium ( ${ }^{2}$ ), Greece, Luxembourg $\left({ }^{3}\right)$, Hungary, the Netherlands and Iceland, the difference between the proportions of students learning English in general and vocational upper secondary education lie between 25 and 42 percentage points.

Similar proportions of students learn English in general and vocational upper secondary education in France, Italy, Malta, Austria, Romania and Sweden. The differences are moderate (between 5 and 13 percentage points) in Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Croatia, Poland, Slovenia, Slovakia and Finland.

In only three European countries (Cyprus, Portugal and Norway), are the proportions of vocational students learning English higher than in general education. The differences are moderate, ranging from 15.7 percentage points in Portugal to 9.3 in Cyprus. In Cyprus, this can be explained by the wider choice of foreign languages available to general education students. For example, in Cyprus, many more general than vocational education students learn French, Spanish, Italian and Russian (the difference ranges ranging between 13.4 and 25.3 percentage points). In Norway, vocational education students learn English for two years, while general education students only for one year. They have the same number of hours. General education students are required to learn other languages than

[^6]English for the first and second year, while students on vocational pathways are not required to learn foreign languages other than English.

Figure C16: Differences in the proportions of students learning English in general and vocational upper secondary education (ISCED 3), 2014


## Explanatory note

The map shows the difference between the proportions of students learning English in general and vocational education at ISCED 3.
Data is available in Annexe 3.

## Country-specific note

Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia: Data for vocational education at ISCED 3 are included in general education at ISCED 3.

## TEACHERS

## SECTION I - QUALIFICATIONS

Teachers have a key role to play in developing students' skills in foreign languages. The first section of this chapter therefore deals with the qualifications they need. The first three indicators show the degree of subject specialisation needed by foreign language teachers in primary and secondary education, as recommended by top-level education authorities. A fourth indicator focuses on initial teacher education, specifying the minimum duration and level of qualification required of specialist and semi-specialist foreign language teachers (see Glossary). The last two indicators of this section look at whether additional qualifications are needed for teachers working in two specific contexts. Firstly, teaching a non-language subject in a foreign language - this type of provision is referred to as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in this report (see also Section B III). Secondly, the qualifications recommended or required for teaching students from migrant backgrounds who do not speak the language of schooling.

## ACROSS EUROPE, GENERALIST AND SPECIALIST TEACHERS SHARE THE RESPONSIBILITY FOR TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN PRIMARY EDUCATION

Figure D1 shows that, in primary education, one teacher often has responsibility for a particular class and teaches lessons in all or most subjects, including foreign languages - defined here as a generalist teacher. In many countries, foreign languages are, however, taught by someone other than the class teacher. This person may either be a specialist or a semi-specialist teacher, depending on the number of subjects which the teacher is qualified to teach. According to the definitions in this report, a specialist teacher is qualified to teach one or two subjects, while a semi-specialist teacher is qualified to teach a group of at least three different subjects. In these definitions, 'foreign languages' is considered as a single subject even when a teacher is qualified to teach several foreign languages. A specialist teacher may therefore be qualified to teach either one or more foreign language(s), or one or more foreign language(s) plus one other subject.

In the majority of the education systems with central recommendations on the degree of specialisation of teachers, generalist teachers teach foreign languages in primary education. In 11 education systems, central recommendations only mention generalist teachers (in the Flemish Community of Belgium, France, Italy, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Malta, the Netherlands, Austria, Switzerland, Iceland and Liechtenstein). In Poland, generalist teachers may only teach foreign languages in the first three years of primary education and are replaced by specialist teachers in the upper grades.

Elsewhere (12 education systems), top-level education authorities recommend that generalist teachers as well as more specialised staff for this level of education teach foreign languages in primary education. In nine of these, both generalist and specialist teachers are involved (in the German-speaking Community of Belgium, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, Slovenia and Serbia). In three others, both generalist and semi-specialist teachers are recommended (in Germany, Sweden and Norway).

In some countries, however, generalist teachers need to justify their mastery of the foreign language. For instance, they may need to have dedicated part of their initial education to foreign language teaching (as, for example, in Estonia, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Slovenia and Serbia) or to prove their proficiency in the target language (as in Germany, Italy, Latvia, Poland and Serbia).

Figure D1: Central recommendations on the degree of subject specialisation needed by foreign language teachers in primary education, 2015/16


## Explanatory note

Only general, mainstream education is covered by the Figure (i.e. special classes with extended teaching of foreign languages are not taken into account).

For a definition of 'generalist teacher'; 'semi-specialist teacher' (of foreign languages) and 'specialist teacher' (of foreign languages), see the Glossary.

In the remaining education systems, the top-level education authorities recommend that foreign language teachers are specialists, semi-specialists or a combination of semi-specialists and specialists. Teachers should be specialists in nine countries (Greece, Spain, Croatia, Portugal, Slovakia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Montenegro, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Turkey), and semi-specialists in Denmark. In the French Community of Belgium and in Hungary, teaching staff should include both types of teacher.

In Estonia, Ireland, Finland and the United Kingdom, there are no recommendations on the degree of subject specialisation for foreign language teachers in primary education. However, in the United Kingdom (Wales and Northern Ireland), foreign language learning only becomes compulsory in secondary education.

## IN SECONDARY EDUCATION, FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS ARE TYPICALLY SUBJECT SPECIALISTS

As shown in Figure D2, the recommendations on the degree of specialisation needed for language teachers in secondary education are different to those at primary level (see Figure D1). In most countries, foreign languages should be taught by specialist teachers.

Although the specialist teacher model predominates at both levels, the situation in lower secondary education is slightly more varied.

In lower secondary education, foreign languages can be taught by generalist teachers in Iceland, Norway and Serbia. In the two latter countries, semi-specialist (in Norway) or specialist teachers (in Serbia) are also recommended. In two countries, foreign languages should be taught by semi-
specialist teachers only (in Denmark and Sweden). Finally, in four countries, both specialist and semispecialist teachers are recommended (in Greece, Hungary, Switzerland and Liechtenstein).

In general upper secondary education, foreign languages should be taught by specialist teachers across the whole of Europe. In Greece and Norway, semi-specialists may also teach foreign languages alongside specialist teachers.

Figure D2: Central recommendations on the degree of subject specialisation needed by foreign language teachers in general secondary education, 2015/16


Source: Eurydice.

## Explanatory note

For a definition of 'generalist teacher'; 'semi-specialist teacher' (of foreign languages) and 'specialist teacher' (of foreign languages), see the Glossary.

In lower and general upper secondary education, there are no central recommendations on the degree of subject specialisation required to teach foreign languages in Belgium (Flemish Community), Estonia and the United Kingdom (Scotland).

## THE MAJORITY OF COUNTRIES OFFER TEACHERS THE OPTION TO SPECIALISE IN ANOTHER SUBJECT ALONGSIDE FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Figures D1 and D2, covering the degree of subject specialisation for those who teach foreign languages, have shown that specialist foreign language teachers are mainly recommended for lower and general upper secondary education, although some countries also recommend that they teach in primary education. Figure D3 focuses on the subjects that specialist foreign language teachers are qualified to teach, regardless of the level of education in which they work.

Countries where foreign language teachers should also be qualified for another subject may have better opportunities for developing provision where some non-language subjects are taught in a language other than the language of schooling. This type of programme, referred to as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in this report, is a way of teaching a foreign language in a more intensive way without dedicating too great a proportion of the total instruction time to it (see also Chapter B, Section III). Additional skills and qualifications for teaching in a CLIL programme may also be needed (see Figure D5).

Figure D3: Subjects that specialist foreign language teachers are qualified to teach according to central recommendations in primary and general secondary education, 2015/16


## Explanatory note

When central recommendations on the subjects that specialist foreign language teachers should be qualified to teach apply to at least one education level, the country is classified under the category 'foreign languages only (one or more)' or 'one or more foreign languages and one other subject' depending on the recommendation.
Central recommendations on the subjects that specialist teachers are qualified to teach may either be expressed within the central recommendations on initial teacher education or in teacher status.

For a definition of 'specialist teacher' (of foreign languages), see the Glossary.

In 16 education systems, central recommendations mention that specialist teachers may be qualified either to teach foreign languages only, or to teach one or more foreign language(s) and one other subject. This is the case in Belgium (French and German-speaking Communities), Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Germany, Ireland, France, Hungary, Malta, Austria, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia, Sweden and Switzerland. In France, where statistical data is available, most of the specialist foreign language teachers are, in practice, qualified to teach a foreign language.

In nine education systems, specialist teachers need to be qualified only to teach foreign languages (in Spain, Italy, Cyprus, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Montenegro, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Turkey).

In 12 education systems, there are no central recommendations on subject combinations, leaving the choice to teacher training institutions and, when both provisions exist, to prospective teachers. This is the case in Croatia, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Finland, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Serbia. In Latvia, Lithuania and Iceland, where statistical data is available, most of the specialist foreign language teachers are, in practice, only qualified to teach foreign languages.

In only two countries (namely Portugal and Greece) do specialist teachers need to be qualified to teach one or more foreign languages and one other subject.

## INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION USUALLY LASTS FOUR OR FIVE YEARS FOR SPECIALIST AND SEMI-SPECIALIST FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS

Figure D4 indicates the minimum level of education and the duration of initial teacher education for specialist and semi-specialist teachers. In this report, initial teacher education is defined as the period of study and training during which prospective teachers attend academic, subject-based courses and undertake professional training (either consecutively or at the same time) to acquire the necessary knowledge and skills to be a teacher. This period ends when prospective teachers are awarded their qualifications as a teacher.

In primary education, specialist and/or semi-specialist teachers of foreign languages need to be qualified at Bachelor's level in two-thirds of the education systems (see Figures D1 and D2 for the degree of specialisation of teachers at the different education levels). In lower secondary education, they need to be qualified at Bachelor's level in around half of the education systems and at Master's level in the other half. At general upper secondary level, a Master's degree is the minimum level of qualification in almost two-thirds of the education systems.

In the majority of the education systems, the minimum level of education is the same for both specialist and semi-specialist foreign language teachers, independently of the level of education in which they work. In 12 countries, both types of foreign language teachers need at least a Master's degree to teach at all three levels of education (in the Czech Republic, Germany, Estonia, France, Croatia, Italy, Portugal, Slovenia, Slovakia, Finland, Sweden and Serbia). In four additional countries, which do not have either specialist or semi-specialist foreign language teachers or foreign language teaching in primary education, a Master's degree is also required for the two levels of secondary education (in Ireland, Luxembourg, Switzerland and Iceland). Conversely, in 10 other countries, the minimum level of qualification for both specialist and semi-specialist teachers of foreign languages is a Bachelor's degree for all three levels of education. This is the case in Bulgaria, Greece, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, the United Kingdom (England), Bosnia and Herzegovina, Montenegro, the former Yugoslav Republic and Turkey. In Cyprus, Malta and the United Kingdom (Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland), which do not have either specialist and semi-specialist foreign language teachers or foreign language teaching in primary education, a Bachelor's degree is also required for the two levels of secondary education. As of 2018/19, primary and secondary teachers in Malta will be qualified at Master's level, with 5 years of initial education.

Two different patterns exist among the eight education systems where the minimum qualification level for specialist and semi-specialist foreign language teachers varies according to the education level. In three of these a Master's degree is required to teach at secondary but not at primary level (in Spain, Hungary and Romania). In the other five, a Masters' degree is required only at general upper secondary level (Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), Denmark, the Netherlands and Norway). In Norway, the minimum qualification level for becoming a specialist foreign language teacher at primary and lower secondary level will also be a Master's degree as of 2017/18. In Austria, the minimum level of qualification required is a Bachelor's degree for primary education and lower secondary education in the Neue Mittelschule (i.e. schools only for lower secondary education). In the latter type of school, foreign language teachers qualified at Bachelor's level work jointly with teachers qualified at Master's level. For lower secondary education in the Allgemeinbildende Höhere Schule (i.e. academically-oriented schools covering both lower and upper secondary education) and in general upper secondary education, a Master's degree is required. Currently, the Bachelor's level qualification is being phased out for both primary and lower secondary education and should fully be replaced by a Master's level qualification for all education levels as of 2020/21.


TEACHERS

Figure D4: Minimum duration and level of initial teacher education of specialist or semi-specialist foreign language teachers in primary and general secondary education, 2015/16


Source: Eurydice.

## Explanatory note

In some education systems, there are no central recommendations on the degree of specialisation or they only mention generalist teachers for one or more education levels (see Figures D1 and D2). If, in practice, specialist and/or semi specialist teachers have been recruited at the education level(s) concerned during the reference year, the minimum duration and education level of initial teacher education of these teachers is represented in the Figure.
See the definition of 'initial teacher education' in the Glossary.

## Country-specific notes (Figure D4)

Belgium (BE fr): For the first year of general ISCED 3, the minimum duration and level of teacher qualification are the same as for ISCED 2.
Belgium (BE de): No teacher education is organised within the Community for ISCED 2 and 3. Most teachers for these education levels are trained in the French Community of Belgium.
Austria: The implementation of the new initial teacher education model at Master's level (5-6 years) started in 2015/16 for prospective ISCED 1 teachers and in 2016/17 for prospective ISCED 2 teachers. Full implementation is expected by 2020/21.
Liechtenstein: No teacher education is organised within the country for ISCED 2 and 3. Most of these teachers are trained in Austria or Switzerland.

The minimum duration of initial teacher education for specialist and semi-specialist teachers of foreign languages usually lasts four or five years in total. It only lasts 3 years in four countries: in Belgium (primary and lower secondary education), Austria (primary and lower secondary education except in Allgemeinbildende Höhere Schule), Poland (all three education levels) and Romania (primary education). In contrast, the minimum duration is six years in Ireland and Italy in lower and general upper secondary education. In Luxembourg, where prospective teachers for lower and general upper secondary education first obtain a Master's degree abroad before following a two-year professional training course in the country, the minimum duration is seven years.

Within a country, variations in the minimum duration of initial teacher education usually correspond to a change in the minimum qualification level required. The minimum duration is higher when a Master's degree is needed, compared to when only a Bachelor's degree is required. However, in some countries, the minimum duration for a qualification at Master's level varies by half a year to one year according to the level of education in which prospective teachers will work. In Germany and Sweden, the minimum duration for the Master's degree is longer in general upper secondary education. In Italy, it is one year longer for general secondary education than for primary education.

## IN THE MAJORITY OF COUNTRIES OFFERING CLIL, ADDITIONAL QUALIFICATIONS ARE NEEDED TO TEACH ON THESE PROGRAMMES

In most countries, specific provisions exist to teach certain curriculum subjects in two different languages. Some subjects are taught in the language of schooling, others in a foreign language. For instance, most subjects are taught in the language of schooling but mathematics, geography and natural sciences are taught in a foreign language. In this report, this type of provision is called Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) Type A (see also Chapter B, Section III for more information on existing CLIL provision).

Ideally, in order to teach a non-language subject in a foreign language, teachers need to have a very good knowledge both of the subject taught and the language in which it is taught. They also need to be familiar with the requirements of CLIL methodology. Some education systems require that foreign language teachers hold a qualification in both foreign languages and a non-language subject (see Figure D3). This is an asset for organising CLIL Type A provision.

Figure D5 shows the requirements set by central level authorities for teachers working in CLIL type A programmes. In 13 education systems, holding the normal teaching qualifications is sufficient, whereas 15 education systems require additional qualifications, certificates or experience.

In the majority of the countries where regulations on specific qualifications for CLIL exist, they usually apply to teachers who are not qualified as foreign language teachers and refer to the knowledge of the target language. Teachers are either required to have an academic degree in the target language alongside the degree in the subject they are intending to teach - or they have to provide evidence that they have sufficient knowledge of the target language. The minimum level of foreign language competence required is often expressed in terms of the Council of Europe's Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. It generally corresponds either to the level B2 ('independent
user with vantage') or to the level C1 ('proficient user with effective operational proficiency'). In addition, central recommendations may also refer to specific language certificates/examinations, which can be used as evidence of sufficient knowledge of the target language (e.g. the State Language Examination in Slovakia).

Figure D5: Qualifications required at central level to work in schools providing CLIL (Type A) instruction in primary and/or general secondary education, 2015/16

$\square$ Normal qualifications of a fully qualified teacher only

Normal qualifications + additional qualifications
$\square$ No type A CLIL provision

Source: Eurydice.

|  | Type of additional qualifications required |
| :---: | :---: |
| BE fr | - Qualifications obtained in the target language; or <br> - Certificate (awarded on the basis of an examination) proving thorough knowledge of the language. |
| BE nl | Certificate showing proficiency at a minimum of CEFR level C1. |
| BG | Certificate showing proficiency at a minimum of CEFR level B2 (applies only to teachers who do not hold an academic degree in the target language). |
| CZ | Knowledge of the target language corresponding to at least CEFR level C1 (applies only to teachers who do not hold an academic degree in the target language). |
| DK | - Bachelor's degree in the target language; or <br> - Cambridge English certificate; or <br> - Proof of written and oral proficiency in the language (e.g. completion of non-language studies at a British or American university). |
| ES | Certificate and/or examination proving thorough knowledge of the target language. The minimum level required is usually CEFR B2, but there are some variations across the Autonomous Communities. The latter are responsible for regulating any additional qualification requirement. <br> Some Autonomous Communities require the linguistic capability certification (habilitación lingüística) which can be obtained as part of the subject qualification or through a certificate issued by the Official Schools of Languages (Escuelas Oficiales de Idiomas) or other accredited institutions (e.g. the Comunidad Valenciana, the Región de Murcia, the Principado de Asturias, Canarias and Cantabria). <br> Other Autonomous Communities require specific training in CLIL methodology (e.g. Cataluña, La Rioja, the Comunidad de Castilla y León, the Comunidad Valenciana, Región de Murcia, Canarias and Extremadura). |
| FR | - Passing a special oral exam testing the ability to use the target foreign language in the context of the subject to be taught. <br> For international sections, teachers also need to speak the two languages of the section as native speakers. |
| IT | - One-year university course in CLIL (60 credits); and <br> - Certificate showing proficiency at a minimum of CEFR level C1. |
| HU | - Full qualifications as a foreign language teacher; and <br> - Full qualifications in a specific non-language subject. |
| PL | - Certificate showing proficiency at a minimum of CEFR level B2 (applies only to teachers who do not hold an academic degree in the target language); or <br> - Certificate equivalent to CEFR level B2 (regulations include a list of equivalent language certificates). |


|  | Type of additional qualifications required |
| :--- | :--- |
| RO | Certificate of attendance at a course/seminar on CLIL methodology. |
| SK | The State Language Examination in the target language (applies only to teachers who do not hold an academic <br> degree in the target language). |
| LI | Certificate showing proficiency at a minimum of CEFR level C2 (applies only to teachers who do not hold an academic <br> degree in the target language). |
| MK | $-\quad$Certificate showing proficiency at a minimum of CEFR level B1 (applies only to teachers who do not hold an <br> academic degree in the target language); and |
| Regular attendance at language training courses. |  |

## Explanatory note

For a definition of 'CLIL type A and B', see the Glossary.

## Country-specific note

Switzerland: Central regulations state that Cantons have to ensure adequate qualifications with regard to foreign languages and CLIL methodology.

Several other countries have indicated that even when there are no formal additional requirements for teaching in CLIL, it is commonly expected that prospective CLIL teachers should provide evidence of their proficiency in the target foreign language.

In a couple of countries, the special requirements go beyond the knowledge of the target foreign language. For instance, in some Autonomous Communities of Spain, teachers need to participate in specific training courses on CLIL methodology. In France, prospective CLIL teachers have to pass an oral examination where candidates must demonstrate their ability to use the target foreign language in the context of the subject to be taught. In Romania, teachers must have attended a course or a seminar on CLIL methodology.

## FEWER THAN 10 EDUCATION SYSTEMS MENTION SPECIFIC QUALIFICATIONS TO TEACH STUDENTS FROM MIGRANT BACKGROUNDS

With the recent influx of migrants, more schools and teachers are responding to the challenge of integrating students into the education system who are from migrant backgrounds and do not speak the language of schooling (see Figures A3 and A4). This also means that more teachers need to be able to work in multi-cultural and multi-lingual settings. This requires specific skills which, in principle, may be acquired during initial teacher education and subsequently developed further through continuing professional development. Evidence shows however (TALIS 2013 survey), that 37.9 \% of lower secondary teachers expressed a moderate to high need for professional development in this area, whereas only 13.3 \% had undertaken training activities in this field in the 12 months prior to the survey ( ${ }^{1}$ ).

[^7]Figure D6: Qualifications required/recommended at central level to teach students from migrant backgrounds who do not speak the language of schooling in primary and/or general secondary education, 2015/16

|  | Type of additional qualifications required/recommended |
| :---: | :---: |
| BE fr | Qualifications in teaching the language of schooling as a foreign language. |
| DK | Qualifications in teaching the language of schooling as a foreign language. |
| FR | For teachers in primary education, qualifications in teaching the language of schooling as a foreign language. |
| IT | - Qualifications in teaching the language of schooling as a foreign language. <br> - Participation in continuing professional development on the intercultural dimension. |
| CY | For teachers in primary education: participation in training on teaching the language of schooling as a foreign language. <br> - For secondary teachers: <br> - Qualifications in Greek philology; and <br> - Experience in teaching the language of schooling as a foreign language; and <br> - Participation in seminars on intercultural education. |
| HU | - Qualifications in teaching the language of schooling as a foreign language; or <br> - Only for teachers of Hungarian language and literature: specific teacher training accreditation for teaching the language of schooling as a foreign language (equivalent to a 90 -hour training). |
| CH | Participation in continuing professional development activities on topics such as teaching the language of schooling as a foreign language. |
| LI | - Qualifications in teaching the language of schooling as a foreign language (60 ECTS); or <br> - Qualifications in remedial teaching (60 ECTS). |
| RS | - Participation in continuing professional development activities on teaching the language of schooling as a foreign language (20 hours); and <br> - Passing a specific examination on the teaching of the schooling language as a foreign language. |

## Explanatory note

This Figure focuses on central recommendations/requirements for teachers teaching students from migrant backgrounds who do not speak the language of schooling. These teachers may be generalist teachers or specialist teachers teaching the language of schooling, foreign languages or any other subject of the curriculum. Teachers with a specific role (e.g. language support teachers, mother tongue tuition teachers) are not included in the Figure.
For a definition of 'Children from migrant backgrounds' and 'language of schooling', see the Glossary.

Top-level education authorities may set specific requirements or recommendations for teachers working with students from migrant backgrounds in order to ensure that these teachers are properly equipped for teaching in multi-cultural or multi-lingual settings and thus provide optimal support to students from migrant backgrounds. However, as shown in Figure D6, teachers working with students from migrant backgrounds only need the normal teacher qualifications with no additional requirements or recommendations in three quarters of countries. Teachers with a specific role (support teachers, mother tongue tuition teachers) are not considered here (more information on the way students from migrant backgrounds are integrated into the education systems is available in Chapter E, Section III).

In two countries, the role of teachers as facilitators in the integration process of students from migrant backgrounds is taken into account and mainstreamed in initial teacher education, as part of the basic compulsory training for all prospective teachers. In Denmark, prospective teachers have to learn how to teach bilingual students in the context of a classroom with linguistic diversity. In Austria, the Centre for Interculturality, Migration and Multilingualism promotes these issues within teacher education on behalf of the Ministry of Education. 'Diversity and gender competencies' is defined as one of the six competencies to be acquired within initial teacher education. It encompasses some compulsory topics such as 'migrant background', 'German as a language of educational discourse' and 'German as a second language'. The Austrian Ministry of Education also recently recommended participation in a course on 'Diversity of languages/Multi-lingualism/Intercultural education' within the framework of continuing professional development.

Only nine education systems have central recommendations or requirements for teachers working with students from migrant backgrounds who do not speak the language of schooling. These usually relate to the teaching of the language of schooling. In seven education systems, specific qualifications on the teaching of the language of schooling as a foreign language are mentioned (in the French Community of Belgium, Denmark, France (primary education only), Italy, Cyprus, Hungary and Liechtenstein). In three education systems, participation in continuing professional development activities on this matter is mentioned (in Cyprus, Switzerland and Serbia).

All these requirements or recommendations relate to the language dimension. The intercultural dimension of teaching is only taken into account by central recommendations in Italy and Cyprus.

Some countries have also developed specific resources to support teachers working with students from migrant backgrounds who do not speak the language of schooling. For instance, the Germanspeaking Community of Belgium and Austria have created web sites specifically dedicated to the teaching of German as a foreign language, providing teaching material and suggestions for the positive handling of cultural and linguistic diversity $\left({ }^{2}\right)$. Ireland provides guidelines on the teaching and assessment of English as a second language in primary education $\left(^{3}\right)$. The Government of Estonia established the Curriculum and Methodology Centre of the Innove Foundation to coordinate lifelong learning development activities and to implement relevant projects. One of the remits of this institution is to offer guidance, methodological advice, teaching materials and training on intercultural learning and the teaching of students who do not speak the language of schooling.

[^8]
## TEACHERS

## SECTION II - TRANSNATIONAL MOBILITY

In its Conclusions of 12 May 2009, the Council of the European Union highlighted the need to gradually expand transnational mobility, notably for teachers, with a 'view to making periods of learning abroad - both within Europe and the wider world - the rule rather than the exception' ( ${ }^{1}$ ). This section deals with the transnational mobility of foreign language teachers. Going abroad is especially important for these teachers as they need to upgrade their language skills and be well acquainted with the culture of the countries where the languages they teach are spoken. Transnational mobility is certainly an important factor in providing teachers with the necessary skills and competencies to develop learners' multi-lingualism.

This section focuses on the transnational mobility of foreign language teachers for professional purposes. One indicator shows whether top-level education authorities recommend that prospective foreign language teachers spend a period of time in the target language country during their initial education. Existing funding schemes organised at central level to support foreign language teacher mobility are also analysed. Several indicators, focusing on lower secondary teachers, provide some statistical data on transnational mobility. These show the proportion of foreign language teachers who have been abroad at least once for professional purposes, the reason for the travel and whether or not they benefitted from financial support. These statistics come from the OECD Teaching and Learning International Survey, TALIS 2013 (see Statistical Databases and Terminology).

The TALIS 2013 survey covers lower secondary teachers. Only 19 of the European education systems covered by this report participated in the part of the survey dedicated to teachers' transnational mobility. In order to simplify the Figures based on TALIS data, the education systems which did not participate in the survey are not featured.

Transnational mobility means that teachers move physically to a country other than the country of residence for work-related/professional purposes, either during initial teacher education (ITE) or as a practising teacher. Personal travel/mobility - such as for holidays abroad for non-professional purposes - is not taken into account. Furthermore, the TALIS 2013 teacher questionnaire restricts this definition to periods of 'a week or more [spent in] educational institutions or schools' and does not take into consideration travels abroad to attend conferences or workshops.

## PROSPECTIVE LANGUAGE TEACHERS ARE RARELY REQUIRED TO SPEND A PERIOD OF TRAINING IN THE TARGET LANGUAGE COUNTRY

Spending a period in the target language country during initial training seems especially important for prospective foreign language teachers. It may considerably improve their proficiency in the language they will teach. It may also provide them with first-hand experience of the culture of the target country. It is therefore interesting to see whether top-level education authorities recommend transnational mobility for prospective foreign language teachers as a way to improve the quality of teaching.

Initial teacher education is defined in this report as the complete period of study and training during which prospective teachers attend academic subject-based courses and undertake professional training - either consecutively or at the same time - to acquire the necessary knowledge and skills to become a teacher. This period ends when prospective teachers obtain their qualifications as teachers.

[^9]In half of the education systems, the top-level education authority does not provide any central recommendations concerning the initial education of prospective foreign language teachers. Training institutions are free to organise this training as they wish.

In the other half, central recommendations exist on the content of initial teacher education for foreign language teachers. They cover various aspects, including the organisation of theoretical courses on the teaching of foreign language(s), in-school foreign language teaching placements or a period spent in the country of the target language.

Figure D7: Existence of central recommendations on ITE content and a period to be spent in the target language country for prospective foreign language teachers, 2015/16


Recommendations exist
AND specify that a period should be spent in the target language

Recommendations exist BUT do not specify that a period should be spent in the target language

Autonomy of ITE institutions

Teacher education abroad

Source: Eurydice.

## Explanatory note

For a definition of 'initial teacher education', see the Glossary.
Where recommendations on the content of initial teacher education exist for at least one type of foreign language teacher (i.e. generalist, specialist or semi-specialist teachers) or one educational level, the country is classified, depending on the situation, either under the category 'Recommendations exist AND specify that a period should be spent in the target language' or the category 'Recommendations exist BUT do not specify that a period should be spent in the target language'.

Where foreign language teachers spend a period of time in a country or region in which the language to be taught (target language) is spoken, this may include time spent in a school (as an assistant), at a university (attending courses) or on work placements. The aim is to give prospective teachers direct contact with the language they will teach and the culture of the country concerned.

## Country-specific notes

Belgium (BE de): The Figure only concerns initial teacher education for ISCED 1 teachers as the Community does not organise ITE for ISCED 2 and 3 teachers.
Ireland: In order to be registered by the Teaching Council (which enables an individual to teach in state-funded schools), prospective foreign language teachers at ISCED 2 and general ISCED 3 must have spent at least three months in the target language country.

As shown in Figure D7, among the countries that provide some recommendations on the content of initial education, only three specifically recommend that prospective foreign language teachers, specialist teachers in particular, should spend a certain period in the target language country before completing their teaching qualification. In France, it is recommended that specialist foreign language teachers spend a period in the target language country, but the duration is not specified. In Austria, a period of one semester abroad is recommended. In the United Kingdom (England, Wales, Northern Ireland), an undergraduate language degree, including a one-year period of study abroad, is required
for entry to a course of postgraduate teacher training. In Scotland, one of the requirements of the professional training is that prospective language teachers spend at least six months in a country where their first foreign language is spoken and three months in a country where their second foreign language is spoken.

In Ireland, training institutions are free to decide on the content of the initial teacher education they offer to foreign language teachers. However, in order to be employed, they need to be registered by the Teaching Council (which enables an individual to teach in state-funded schools). For this, prospective foreign language teachers in lower and general upper secondary education must have spent at least three months in the target language country.

## MORE THAN HALF OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS HAVE BEEN ABROAD FOR PROFESSIONAL PURPOSES

The previous Figure examined the central recommendations on ITE in relation to the transnational mobility of prospective foreign language teachers. It shows that few countries had introduced recommendations in this area. However, the TALIS 2013 survey provides an insight into actual practice and provides data on the proportion of foreign language teachers who have gone abroad for professional purposes.
The TALIS 2013 teacher questionnaire introduced the question on teacher mobility abroad for professional purposes with the following wording: 'Have you ever been abroad for professional purposes in your career as a teacher or during your teacher education/training?' No conclusions can therefore be drawn from the TALIS survey on the frequency of travel abroad by teachers for professional purposes, or how recently it may have occurred.

Figure D8: Proportion of modern foreign language teachers in lower secondary education who have been abroad for professional purposes, 2013


Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2013.
Explanatory note
The values indicated in the Figure are an estimation based on the survey results. See Annexe 3 for the exact data and standard errors of the estimates. For further information on TALIS, see Statistical databases and terminology

On average in the participating countries, more than half of foreign language teachers have been abroad at least once for professional purposes ( $56.9 \%$ ), compared to $19.6 \%$ ( 0.35 ) for other subject teachers. In Spain and Iceland, more than $70 \%$ of foreign language teachers have been abroad for professional purposes. Foreign language teachers obviously need to train and practice the language they teach. They also need to experience close contact with one of the countries where the language they teach is spoken, in order to gain a deeper cultural insight to transmit to their students. For these teachers more than for other subject teachers, transnational mobility seems to be a professional necessity.

However, the other side of the coin is that over $40 \%$ of modern foreign language teachers surveyed in the participating countries have never been abroad for professional purposes, a finding with possible consequences on the quality of teaching. Less than $40 \%$ of foreign language teachers in Croatia, Portugal, Romania and Slovakia have been abroad for professional purposes.

In a limited number of countries, this situation may be partly attributable to the position of the foreign language concerned. For example, in the Flemish Community of Belgium, French is regarded as a foreign language, although it is a state language (see Figure A1). This means that teachers of French in the Flemish Community may practice their language skills within their own country.

## NATIONAL FUNDING SCHEMES FOR THE TRANSNATIONAL MOBILITY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS MAINLY EXIST IN WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

Some countries have central schemes to support the transnational mobility of their foreign language teachers. The objective of these schemes is to support teachers wishing to spend some time abroad for professional purposes. The funding schemes may apply to all teachers, irrespective of the subject they teach, or they may target foreign language teachers specifically.

Figure D9: Funding schemes organised at central level to support the transnational mobility of foreign language teachers in primary and general secondary education, 2015/16


Available for all teachers (primary + secondary education)


Available only for teachers in secondary education

No funding schemes

Source: Eurydice.

## Explanatory note

See the definition of 'transnational mobility' in the Glossary.
The funding schemes may apply to teachers of all subjects or specifically to those teaching foreign languages.
Teachers moving abroad to teach in a national school or on a bi-national education programme are not considered here. International funding schemes, such as the European Programme Erasmus+, are not taken into account.

Funding schemes for teachers' professional transnational mobility exist in a dozen education systems, mainly in Western Europe. These schemes are usually organised as bilateral agreements. They are available for all foreign language teachers, irrespective of the level of education in which they work, except in the Flemish Community of Belgium, Ireland and Italy where only secondary teachers may benefit.

Transnational mobility schemes may support the development of pedagogical, language and/or cultural skills in the context of continuing professional development activities, language assistance and exchange programmes. For instance, in the Flemish Community of Belgium, French teachers may participate in a two-week training course in France, and German teachers in a one-week training course in Germany. In Spain, the Professional Visits (Estancias Profesionales) scheme supports primary and secondary teachers, irrespective of the subject they teach, in spending two weeks abroad for observation in schools. In France, teachers may participate in language, pedagogic and cultural development activities abroad. They may also benefit from different exchange programmes that allow posts to be exchanged with a teacher in another country for a full school year. These include a cooperation programme with Germany, exchanges with North America (especially through the Codofil programme) and worldwide exchanges (through the Jules Verne programme). Teachers in Austria may spend a school year abroad on a language assistance scheme. In Ireland, teachers may visit a French secondary school for two weeks or a German secondary school for a term. In Sweden, the Atlas Conference scheme aims to facilitate teachers' participation in conferences abroad.

Some countries also organise specific programmes for foreign language teachers working in another country as a way to promote the learning of their national language abroad. For instance, the German initiative 'Schools: Partners for the Future' (Schulen: Partner der Zukunft) enables teachers of German abroad to participate in continuing professional development activities and job-shadowing programmes in Germany itself.

Figure D9 shows where schemes exist; but no information is available either on the budgets or on the number of teachers who benefit from them each year. For instance, the proportion of foreign language teachers in lower secondary education going abroad for professional purposes is one of the lowest in the Flemish Community of Belgium (see Figure D8) despite the existence of central schemes to support transnational mobility.

The three Communities of Belgium, with three different languages of schooling (French, Dutch and German), signed an agreement in March 2015 to promote opportunities for foreign language teachers of each Community to teach in one of the two other Communities for a period of at least one year. Although not transnational per se, this trans-community initiative is also worth mentioning. The objective is to provide language courses with native speakers as teachers.

## EU PROGRAMMES PLAY A MAJOR ROLE IN THE TRANSNATIONAL MOBILITY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS

Figure D10 shows the proportion of lower secondary language teachers who reported in the TALIS 2013 survey that they went abroad for professional reasons with the support of either an EU programme (such as the education programme Erasmus+, former Socrates II), or a national or regional programme.

In the participating countries, the proportion of foreign language teachers who benefited from EU funding is on average more than twice the proportion of those who benefited from a national or regional programme. In almost all countries surveyed, the proportion of teachers who benefited from EU funding is higher. It is even more than four times higher in Denmark, the Netherlands, Portugal, Romania, Sweden and Norway. Only in Croatia did a higher proportion of teachers report that they went abroad supported by national or regional funding. However, the fact that Croatia had only recently become eligible to join EU mobility programmes in 2013 may account for the lower impact of EU funding on the transnational mobility of foreign language teachers.

Figure D10: Proportion of modern foreign language teachers in lower secondary education who have been abroad for professional purposes with support from a transnational mobility programme, 2013


Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2013.

## Explanatory note

The values indicated in the Figure are an estimation based on the survey results. See Annexe 3 for the exact data and standard errors of the estimates. For further information on TALIS, see Statistical databases and terminology.

## mORE THAN ONE IN TWO FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS GO ABROAD FOR Language learning and as part of their initial education

In the TALIS 2013 survey, lower secondary teachers were asked to indicate the reasons why they travelled abroad for professional purposes during their career as a teacher or during their teacher education. Teachers could indicate more than one reason for their travel.

In the participating countries, on average, the main reason for going abroad indicated by foreign language teachers was for language learning. Indeed, one of the most effective ways to improve the mastery of the target language is to visit one of the countries in which it is spoken. This particular reason for transnational mobility is therefore very closely work-related. Consequently, travel abroad is much more common for foreign language teachers ( $60.4 \%$ ) than for teachers of other subjects ( 23.6 \%). In Italy, more than 80 \% of foreign language teachers indicated this as their reason for travel. At the other end of the scale, less than $35 \%$ gave the same reason in Cyprus, Latvia, Romania and Iceland.

On average, one in two foreign language teachers in the participating countries have studied abroad as part of their teacher education. Although only a few countries have recommendations on this matter (see Figure D7), it seems that a relatively large share of prospective foreign language teachers consider a stay abroad as an important part of their training. However, there is still room for improvement - one in two foreign language teachers did not avail themselves of the opportunity or were not offered the option to spend part of their initial training abroad. Around $65 \%$ of foreign language teachers in Italy have studied abroad as part of their teacher education, but less than 30 \% have done so in Croatia and Iceland. The proportion of foreign language teachers studying abroad as part of their education is twice as high for foreign language teachers ( $52.0 \%$ ) as for other subject teachers (26.9 \%).

Teaching abroad is not as common among foreign language teachers ( $23.0 \%$ ) as language learning, but it is still slightly more common than for other subject teachers (18.4 \%). More than 35 \% of foreign language teachers in France and Romania have taught abroad. Less than $10 \%$ of foreign language teachers in Croatia have done so.

Figure D11: Proportion of teachers in lower secondary education who have been abroad for professional purposes, by reason for travel, EU level, 2013


Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2013.

## Explanatory note

Reasons for having been abroad are presented in decreasing order according to the proportion of modern foreign language teachers.
Data by country (modern foreign language teachers only) are available in Annexe 3. For further information on TALIS, see Statistical databases and terminology.

Teachers may also play a role in supporting both real and virtual student mobility. Teaching staff may accompany students travelling abroad and they may also establish the basis for future cooperation between schools. For example, by preparing transnational mobility programmes or developing common projects where new technologies will support exchanges between students. The proportion of foreign language teachers who have already accompanied visiting students is $46.3 \%$ on average in the participating countries, slightly more than for other subject teachers ( $42.9 \%$ ). However, the proportion of teachers who have been abroad to establish contact with schools is similar for both foreign language teachers and other subject teachers ( $31.5 \%$ and $32.7 \%$ respectively).

## TEACHING PROCESSES

## SECTION I - INSTRUCTION TIME

This first section provides information on the instruction time dedicated to foreign languages as compulsory subjects during full-time compulsory education. Together with Chapter B, and Section I in particular, it helps in building a comprehensive picture of the position of foreign languages in the curriculum.

The section starts with detailed information on the time dedicated to foreign languages as compulsory subjects by grade and country; it then continues with an analysis of the changes in instruction time that have taken place between 2010/11 and 2015/16. A discussion follows on the relationship between the instruction time dedicated to the first foreign language and the number of years spent teaching it; a comparison is then made between the time spent on the first and the second foreign languages. The fifth and last indicator of this section provides data on the weight given to foreign languages within the curriculum by showing the proportion of instruction time attributed to foreign languages in relation to total instruction time.

## THE START OF SECONDARY EDUCATION MARKS AN INCREASE IN INSTRUCTION TIME FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN MOST COUNTRIES

In most European countries, top-level education authorities issue recommendations on instruction time for the grades in which the teaching of foreign languages as compulsory subjects is provided during full-time compulsory education.

The number of teaching hours is lowest in primary education during the first two years of foreign language teaching in the great majority of countries. It ranges between 30 and 60 hours per year in most countries. Students in Germany and Romania have the lowest number of annual hours (16 and 20 respectively). The figure is by far the highest in Malta (118) followed by a group of three countries which also have a relatively high number of hours - the Czech Republic (88), Slovakia (86) and Hungary (83). In some countries, however, the picture changes considerably over the next few school years: in the French Community of Belgium, Denmark, Greece (EAEP) and Liechtenstein teaching hours double; they treble in Germany and Latvia.

In Luxembourg and, to a lesser extent, in Malta and Belgium (German-speaking Community), learning a foreign language starts very early with very high levels of taught hours. In these countries, the first foreign language students learn rapidly becomes a language of instruction. Hence, they need to acquire high levels of language skills very quickly in order to effectively learn non-language subjects through their first foreign language. In Luxembourg, the second foreign language (French), which is introduced in the second grade, also becomes a language of instruction at secondary level.

Figure E1: Recommended minimum annual instruction time for foreign languages as compulsory subjects, by grade, in full-time compulsory general education, 2015/16


Belgium - Germanspeaking Community


Belgium Flemish Community


Germany *


Greece RC (primary)
and lower secondary


Croatia *


Lithuania


Netherlands
Primary and HAVO


Greece EAEP (primary)
and lower secondary


Italy


Luxembourg


Netherlands
Primary and VMBO


Bulgaria


Estonia


Spain *


Cyprus


Netherlands
Primary and VWO

Full-time compulsory general education (FTCG):

- Primary level
Secondary level
n Grades

| $\otimes$ | No compulsory <br> foreign languages | $\mathbf{X}$Number of hours distributed <br> between various school years | Flexible time |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |$*$| Only one foreign language |
| :--- |
| as a compulsory subject |

[^10]

Source: Eurydice.

## Explanatory note (Figure E1)

The horizontal axis shows the number of hours (in 60 minutes) per school year. The vertical axis shows the grades in full-time compulsory general education.
Countries with an asterisk are those where all students learn only one foreign language as a compulsory subject in fulltime compulsory education (for more information, please see Figure B1 and Annexe 1).
For a definition of 'foreign language', 'language as a compulsory subject', see the Glossary.

## Country-specific notes

Germany: The data represent the weighted average instruction time for foreign languages as compulsory core curriculum subjects, calculated by the Secretariat of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the Länder on the basis of the number of students enrolled in the different types of school.
Ireland: All students study Irish and English, neither of which is viewed as a foreign language.
Greece: There are two types of public primary schools (grades 1-6) in Greece: primary schools implementing the Regular Curriculum ( $47 \%$ of the students) and primary schools implementing the Unified Revised Curriculum (EAEP; $53 \%$ ). In 2016/17, these two types of primary schools will cease to exist and will be replaced by the Single Type of Allday Primary School.
Spain: Data are based on national and regional regulations on curriculum and school calendars (reference year 2015/16). To calculate the weighted averages, statistics were used on the number of students per grade and per Autonomous Community, as reported by the statistics office of the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport (reference year 2013/14).
Hungary: Data only concern the Gimnázium.
Austria: Foreign language learning is compulsory from the beginning of primary education. However, in the first two years, foreign languages are taught through CLIL-type provision. Twenty-seven annual teaching hours are allocated for this purpose. Students can chose from different programmes of study from year 9 to complete compulsory education. This is the grade where the second foreign language as a compulsory subject is introduced. As these programmes could not all be presented, no data for that particular grade were included.
Poland: In grades 1-3, where a generalist teacher provides foreign language instruction, the time for foreign language teaching can be freely allocated. However, where a specialist teacher provides foreign language instruction in grades 13 , the regulations specify a minimum instruction time of 143 hours with flexible allocation between the three years. In grades $7-9$, regulations stipulate a total number of 338 hours for the two foreign languages, leaving the distribution between languages at the discretion of schools.
Slovakia: The data represent instruction time for foreign languages according the New State Educational Programme, which will be fully implemented in 2019/20.
Switzerland: With the exception of a minimum number of lessons for physical education, there is no standard instruction time defined at national level. The intended instruction time is determined by the 26 Cantons at the regional level.
Liechtenstein: Foreign language learning is compulsory from the beginning of primary education. However, in the first year, foreign languages are taught through CLIL-type provision.

In all countries where students study only one foreign language as a compulsory subject during fulltime compulsory education (see Figure B1), the annual number of hours of instruction for the subject increases as students progress through school. The increase is especially marked at the beginning of secondary education; it is particularly significant in Germany, but also in Belgium (French Community).

In countries where students study two foreign languages as compulsory subjects, instruction time for foreign languages increases, and sometimes significantly so, with the introduction of the second language. Instruction time doubles in Denmark, France, Cyprus, Hungary, Portugal, Romania, BosniaHerzegovina, Serbia and Turkey. However, in several countries, a decrease takes place at one point before the end of compulsory education. This decrease is either very small and occurs in the last year of compulsory schooling; or it is more substantial and affects the last two years (Italy) or three years (Greece) of compulsory education. In Portugal, Montenegro and Turkey, the reduction starts in the grade immediately after the one in which it was increased. It then continues decreasing gradually until the end of compulsory education in Portugal and Montenegro.

Students learning two foreign languages in specific grades do not always receive more instruction time than those studying only one foreign language. For example, in grade 9, 121 annual hours are allocated to one foreign language in Belgium (French Community) whereas only 90 hours are allocated for two languages in Greece. Several variables influence the amount of instruction time dedicated to foreign languages as compulsory subjects: the number of languages taught and whether more emphasis is put on the first and/or second language(s), the starting age/grade of foreign language teaching, and the importance of foreign languages in relation to other curriculum subjects.

In the few countries where all students have to learn three foreign languages at some point during fulltime compulsory education, the annual amount of time devoted to teaching languages is the highest. This is the case in Luxembourg, where all students in grade 8 must learn German, French and English. In Liechtenstein, only students attending the Gymnasium must learn three languages.

In half a dozen education systems, schools enjoy some autonomy in deciding on the distribution of instruction time for foreign languages all through compulsory education. In Estonia, Poland, Finland, Iceland and Norway, the recommended instruction time is given for each educational cycle, while in Sweden a global figure is recommended for the whole period of compulsory education. In addition, in Belgium (Flemish Community), the Netherlands and across the United Kingdom, official recommendations on instruction time apply to all curriculum subjects together; consequently, schools have the flexibility to decide how they allocate the time to teaching individual subjects according to their particular circumstances. Furthermore, in a few other countries, instruction time is partly decided by the top-level authorities, partly by the schools themselves for the same grades (the Czech Republic) or for different grades (Lithuania and Luxembourg). Finally, in Switzerland, there is no standard curriculum and no standard instruction time defined at national level. Curricula and intended instruction time are determined by the 26 Cantons at the regional level.

## WHERE CHANGES HAVE OCCURRED BETWEEN 2011 AND 2016, INSTRUCTION TIME HAS INCREASED in Primary education while it has decreased in secondary education

Figure E2 shows the recommended minimum number of hours ( 60 minutes) devoted to the compulsory teaching of foreign languages during a notional year in primary and full-time compulsory general secondary education in 2010/11 and 2015/16. Instruction time per notional year corresponds to the total teaching load in hours divided by the number of years corresponding to the duration of each education level. This calculation eliminates any variations resulting from the differences in the number of grades in each educational level.

Data for 2015/16 show that despite this, the situation still varies a great deal between countries where recommendations exist on instruction time. At primary level, Belgium (French Community) and Hungary are the only countries with less than 30 hours per year ( 20 and 21 hours respectively). At the other end of the spectrum, Luxembourg, Malta and Belgium (German-speaking Community) countries where the first taught foreign language becomes a language of instruction - have the highest number. In addition to the previous three, Greece is the only country with more than 90 hours per year, but students here start learning their second foreign language two years before the end of primary education.

The differences in the starting age of foreign language learning partly account for the variations at primary level. In Belgium (French Community) for example, students start a foreign language as a compulsory subject from grade 5 (grade 3 in Brussels and in the Walloon communes with specific linguistic status), while in many other education systems, this obligation begins between grade 1 and grade 3 (see Figure B1). The difference in starting age, however, does not explain all variations in instruction time. France, Italy, Luxembourg, Romania, Liechtenstein, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Norway and Serbia, all require their students to start learning a foreign language from the beginning of primary education (i.e. from the age of 6). Nevertheless, substantial variations are apparent, particularly between Romania (34 hours per year) and Italy (79 hours). Norway, France and Serbia, however, are fairly similar with 52,54 and 54 hours respectively.

In nearly all countries, students spend more time studying foreign languages in full-time compulsory general secondary education than in primary education. In full-time compulsory general secondary education, students have to study one foreign language in all grades and, in some countries, two languages. Figures B2 and B3 indicate the number of years during which these languages are compulsory. Nearly all the countries registering fewer than 100 hours has only one foreign language as a compulsory subject. The exceptions are Bulgaria where the second language becomes a compulsory subject for all in the last grade of full-time compulsory education, and Greece where students are already required to study two languages for a substantial number of hours before the end of primary level. Conversely, Belgium (French Community), where there is only one foreign language as a compulsory subject, has a relatively high number of hours. Apart from Belgium (Germanspeaking Community), Luxembourg and Malta (see Figure E1), the time allocated to foreign languages is more than 170 hours only in Denmark, France, Liechtenstein (Gymnasium) and Turkey.

Where changes have occurred between 2010/11 and 2015/16, two main trends are apparent. First, an increase in instruction time is clearly visible at primary level in a relatively large number of countries. Second, instruction time decreases at secondary level, also in a substantial number of countries. In some cases, as in Slovakia, changes in policy regarding the second foreign language, which is now taught at a later stage, account for the variations. The opposite tendency is however visible in Turkey where the lengthening of full time compulsory education explains why the second language, which students start learning at age 14, is now part of the scope, and consequently the instruction time devoted to it is counted.

Figure E2: Trends in the recommended minimum number of hours of compulsory foreign language teaching during a notional year in primary and full-time compulsory general secondary education, 2010/11, 2015/16


Full-time compulsory general secondary education


Source: Eurydice.

SECTION I - INSTRUCTION TIME

## Explanatory note (Fiqure E2)

The Figure shows the recommended minimum number of hours ( 60 minutes) devoted to the compulsory teaching of foreign languages in primary and full-time compulsory general secondary education based on national minimum recommendations in the curriculum for each reference year.
To obtain a notional year, the total teaching load in hours for primary and full-time compulsory secondary education has been divided by the number of years corresponding to the duration of each education level.
Flexible time allocation: System by which schools are free to decide how much curriculum time to allocate to compulsory subjects. Central (or top-) level curricula indicate only the subjects that must be taught, without specifying the time to be allocated to them.
For a definition of 'foreign language', 'language as a compulsory subject', see the Glossary.

| Hours | Primary |  | Full-time compulsory general secondary |  | Hours | Primary |  | Full-time compulsory general secondary |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 2010/11 | 2015/16 | 2010/11 | 2015/16 |  | 2010/11 | 2015/16 | 2010/11 | 2015/16 |
| BE fr | 20 | 20 | 121 | 121 | AT - Volkschule | 15 | 15 |  |  |
| BE de | 121 | 102 | 182 | 173 | AT - AHS (Realgymnasium) |  |  | 105 | 105 |
| BE nl | $\bullet$ | $\bullet$ | $\bullet$ | $\bullet$ | AT - Neue Mittelschule (NMS) |  |  | (-) | 105 |
| BG | 41 | 41 | 88 | 88 | PL | 61 | $\bullet$ | 113 | 113 |
| CZ | 53 | 53 | 88 | 132 | PT | 27 | 37 | 105 | 102 |
| DK | 43 | 64 | 90 | 180 | RO | 30 | 34 | 118 | 116 |
| DE-Grundschule | 28 | 37 |  |  | SI | 39 | 39 | 136 | 85 |
| DE-Gymnasium |  |  | 244 | 153 | SK | 21 | 43 | 109 | 100 |
| DE-Hauptschule |  |  | 105 | : | FI | 38 | 38 | 133 | 133 |
| DE - Realschule |  |  | 183 | : | SE | 53 | 53 | 53 | 53 |
| EE | 66 | 66 | 158 | 158 | UK-ENG | $\otimes$ | $\bullet$ | $\bullet$ | $\bullet$ |
| IE | $\otimes$ | $\otimes$ | $\otimes$ | $\otimes$ | UK-WLS/NIR | $\otimes$ | $\otimes$ | $\bullet$ | $\bullet$ |
| EL (RC) | 70 | 66 | 98 | 90 | UK-SCT | $\otimes$ | $\otimes$ | $\otimes$ | $\otimes$ |
| EL (EAEP) | 0 | 96 | 0 | 90 | BA | : | 32 | : | 107 |
| ES | 64 | 85 | 105 | 119 | CH | : | $\bullet$ | : | $\bullet$ |
| FR | 43 | 54 | 176 | 176 | IS | 38 | 44 | 187 | 159 |
| HR | 53 | 53 | 79 | 79 | LI - Primarschule | 41 | 39 |  |  |
| IT | 79 | 79 | 139 | 139 | LI-Gymnasium |  |  | 197 | 194 |
| CY | 23 | 45 | 120 | 105 | LI- Oberschule |  |  | 110 | 104 |
| LV | 54 | 60 | 141 | 139 | LI - Realschule |  |  | 161 | 160 |
| LT | 36 | 36 | 122 | 118 | ME | : | 27 | : | 154 |
| LU | 408 | 407 | 423 | 373 | MK | : | 62 | : | 126 |
| HU | 21 | 21 | 115 | 109 | NO | 52 | 52 | 151 | 74 |
| MT | 127 | 121 | 199 | 179 | RS | : | 54 | : | 107 |
| NL | $\bullet$ | $\bullet$ | $\bullet$ | $\bullet$ | TR | 29 | 36 | 96 | 240 |

- Compulsory subject with flexible time allocation $\otimes$ No compulsory foreign languages : Not available

Source: Eurydice

## Country-specific notes

Germany and Spain: Break in the time series due to methodology change. See Figure E1.
Ireland: All students study Irish and English, neither of which is viewed as a foreign language.
Greece: There are two types of public primary schools (grades 1-6) in Greece: primary schools implementing the Regular Curriculum (RC; $47 \%$ of the students) and primary schools implementing the Unified Revised Curriculum (EAEP; $53 \%$ ). From 2016/17, these two types of primary schools will cease to exist and will be replaced by the Single Type of All-day Primary School.
Hungary: Data only concern the Gimnázium. The change to the number of years corresponding to full-time compulsory general secondary education might explain the slight difference.
Austria: Instruction time for year 9 in AHS is not taken in consideration. Foreign language learning is compulsory at the beginning of primary education. However, in the first two years, foreign languages are taught through CLIL-type provision. Twenty-seven annual teaching hours are allocated for this purpose.

Poland: Due to flexible time allocation for foreign language instruction in grades 1-3 the minimum instruction time for a foreign language during a notional year in primary school (grades 1-6) cannot be established. However, where specialist teachers provide foreign language instruction in grades 1-3, regulations set a minimum instruction time for foreign languages. For a notional year in primary school, this amounts to 60 hours.
Slovenia: Since 2008/09, the compulsory second foreign language was being phased in. In November 2011, the implementation was suspended and, since then, the second foreign language is an extended curriculum non-compulsory subject available for pupils to take from the age of 9 .
Slovakia: The data represent instruction time for foreign languages according the New State Educational Programme, which will be fully implemented in 2019/20.
Sweden: Instruction time is allocated to the whole of full-time compulsory general education.
Switzerland: There is no standard curriculum and no standard instruction time defined at national level. Curricula and intended instruction time are determined by the 26 Cantons at the regional level.
Liechtenstein: Foreign language learning is compulsory for the beginning of primary education. However, in the first year, foreign languages are taught through CLIL-type provision.
Norway: Break in the time series. Students do not have to study two languages simultaneously in compulsory education. They can decide to study two different languages, but one at a time.

## THE COUNTRIES WHERE FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING LASTS LONGEST dO NOT NECESSARILY HAVE THE HIGHEST AMOUNT OF INSTRUCTION TIME

Figure E3 shows the relationship between two factors that greatly affect foreign language teaching at school: the minimum instruction time allocated and the duration in terms of school years that the provision lasts. An overall look at the Figure indicates that there is a positive, albeit quite weak, relationship between the two factors.

However, a more detailed analysis reveals that although some countries teach the first foreign language as a compulsory subject for the same number of years, they differ significantly in terms of the total amount of instruction time allocated to the language. The difference is particularly noticeable in the case of countries with 10 years' provision: in Iceland, instruction time for the first foreign language equals 414 hours while in Spain, this number reaches 987.

Conversely, the countries that allocate a similar total amount of instruction time may do so over quite a different number of years. For example, in Croatia and Romania, 525 and 520 hours respectively are recommended for the first foreign language, and the provision lasts 8 years in Croatia and 11 years in Romania.

Some of the differences may also stem from the fact that not all countries teach the same number of languages as compulsory subjects and, in this Figure, only the teaching of the first foreign language is shown. Indeed, where there is only one compulsory foreign language there may be more curriculum time available for its teaching. For example, in Spain, where there is only one compulsory foreign language, instruction time is 987 hours, spread across 10 years. In contrast, in Iceland, 414 hours are recommended for the first language over 10 years and 368 hours for the second language over 6 years (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015d).

In Belgium (German-speaking Community), Luxembourg and Malta, bearing in mind that the first foreign language becomes a language of instruction, instruction time allocated to this language is the highest across Europe. The official curricula in these three educational systems, prescribe 1342 hours over a period of 12 years in the German-speaking Community, 2004 over 10 years in Luxembourg and 1298 hours over 11 years in Malta.

Figure E3: Relationship between the minimum instruction time recommended for the first compulsory foreign language and the number of years over which this provision is spread during full-time compulsory general education, 2015/16


|  | Number of years | Minimum instruction time |  | Number of years | Minimum instruction time |  | Number of years | Minimum instruction time |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| BE fr | 10 | 849 | LV | 9 | 525 | SE | 9 | 480 |
| BE de | 12 | 1342 | LT | 9 | 599 | UK-ENG | 7 | $\bigcirc$ |
| BE nl | 8 | - | LU | 10 | 2004 | UK-WLS | 3 | $\bigcirc$ |
| BG | 8 | 551 | HU | 7 | 573 | UK-NIR | 3 | $\bigcirc$ |
| CZ | 7 | 617 | MT | 11 | 1298 | UK-SCT | $\otimes$ | $\otimes$ |
| DK | 9 | 630 | NL HAVO | $\bigcirc$ | - | BA | 7 | 375 |
| DE | 10 | 781 | NL VMBO | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | CH | 7 | $\bigcirc$ |
| EE | 9 | 551 | NL VWO | - | - | IS | 10 | 414 |
| IE | $\otimes$ | $\otimes$ | AT1 | 8 | 480 | LI1 | 9 | 527 |
| EL1 | 7 | 430 | AT2 | 8 | 480 | LI2 | 9 | 611 |
| EL2 | 9 | 615 | PL | 9 | $\bigcirc$ | LI3 | 9 | 583 |
| ES | 10 | 987 | PT | 8 | 617 | ME | 6 | 506 |
| FR | 10 | 936 | RO | 11 | 520 | MK | 12 | 843 |
| HR | 8 | 525 | SI | 6 | 492 | NO | 10 | 588 |
| IT | 10 | 891 | SK | 8 | 688 | RS | 8 | 429 |
| CY | 9 | 451 | FI | 7 | 456 | TR | 11 | 912 |

- Compulsory subject with flexible time allocation $\otimes$ No compulsory foreign languages

Source: Eurydice.

## Explanatory note (Fiqure E3)

For more information on countries with 'compulsory subject with flexible time allocation' see Figure E1.
Flexible time allocation: System by which schools are free to decide how much curriculum time to allocate to compulsory subjects. Central (or top-) level curricula indicate only the subjects that must be taught, without specifying the time to be allocated to them.
For a definition of 'foreign language', 'language as a compulsory subject', see the Glossary.

## Country-specific notes

Greece: EL1: Regular Curriculum (RC); EL2: the Unified Revised Curriculum (EAEP).
Hungary: Data only concern Gimnázium.
Austria: AT1: Volksschule + Allgemeinbildende Höhere Schule (AHS - Science branch, Realgymnasium); AT2: Volksschule + Neue Mittelschule (NMS). Students can choose from different programmes of study for year 9 to complete compulsory education. As information for each of these programmes could not be presented, no data for that particular year were included.
Liechtenstein: LI1: primary education + Oberschule; LI2: primary education + Gymnasium; LI3: primary education + Realschule.
For additional country specific information, please see the Country-specific notes under Figures E1 and E2.

## THE FIRST FOREIGN LANGUAGE COMMANDS THE LARGEST SHARE OF INSTRUCTION TIME FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN ALL COUNTRIES

Figure E4 compares the recommended instruction time for teaching the first and the second foreign languages as compulsory subjects per notional year in full-time compulsory general education. Instruction time per notional year corresponds to the total teaching load in hours divided by the number of years in each education level. This calculation eliminates any variations resulting from the differences in the number of grades in each educational level.

In the vast majority of European countries, two foreign languages as compulsory subjects are included in the curriculum during full-time compulsory education (see Figure B6). In all these countries, the total amount of time devoted to the second language in a notional year is always less than the first. This may be explained by the fact that the second foreign language starts later and lasts fewer years than the first.

The second language is introduced more than two years after the first in all but five countries (Greece, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Switzerland and Iceland) (see Figure B1). In Luxembourg and Iceland, there is little difference in the time dedicated to the teaching of each language. In Luxembourg, the first two languages students learn are German and French: these are both national languages and used as languages of instruction in schools. In Iceland, students must study English and Danish as first and second languages (see Figure B12). There are historical, political and educational reasons which might explain why education authorities in Iceland put a near equal emphasis - in terms of instruction time - on the two languages.

However, as shown by Figure E3, the relationship between the minimum instruction time dedicated to foreign languages and the number of years spent teaching them, albeit positive, is quite weak. Therefore, the number of teaching years cannot completely account for the difference in instruction time between languages.

The most significant difference between the time spent on the first two foreign languages can be found in Bulgaria and Slovakia. Differences can also be found in Belgium (German-speaking Community), the Czech Republic, Italy, Cyprus, Hungary, Malta and Turkey. In Bulgaria and Slovakia, the teaching of the second foreign language as a compulsory subject, mostly occurs after the end of full-time compulsory education. In Belgium (German-speaking Community) and Malta, the first foreign language is used later as a language of instruction. The need for students to master this first language quickly and to a high level can therefore account for the considerable difference in the time spent on the two languages.

Figure E4: Minimum recommended instruction time per notional year for teaching the first and second languages as compulsory subjects in full-time compulsory general education, 2015/16


| Hours | First | Second | Hours | First | Second | Hours | First | Second |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| BE fr | 71 | $\otimes$ | CY | 50 | 15 | SE | 53 | $\otimes$ |
| BE de | 112 | 25 | LV | 58 | 28 | UK (1) = UK-ENG/WLS/NIR | $\bullet$ | $\otimes$ |
| BE nl | $\bullet$ | $\bullet$ | LT | 60 | 26 | UK-SCT | $\otimes$ | $\otimes$ |
| BG | 61 | 6 | LU | 200 | 149 |  |  |  |
| CZ | 69 | 20 | HU | 57 | 16 | BA | 42 | 24 |
| DK | 63 | 36 | MT | 118 | 29 | CH | $\bullet$ | $\bullet$ |
| DE | 78 | 29 | NL | $\bullet$ | $\bullet$ | IS | 41 | 37 |
| EE | 61 | 35 | AT Volksschule | 60 | $\otimes$ | LI Gym Primarschule + Gymnasium | 59 | 37 |
| IE | $\otimes$ | $\otimes$ | + AHS / NMS |  |  | LI Obs Primarschule + Oberschule | 68 | $\otimes$ |
| EL - RC | 48 | 26 | PL | - | - | LI Reals Primarschule + Realschule | 65 | 28 |
| EL - EAEP | 68 | 26 | PT | 51 | 18 | ME | 56 | 27 |
| ES | 99 | $\otimes$ | RO | 47 | 32 | MK | 70 | 30 |
| FR | 84 | 32 | SI | 55 | $\otimes$ | NO | 59 | $\otimes$ |
| HR | 66 | $\otimes$ | SK | 69 | 9 | RS | 54 | 27 |
| IT | 89 | 20 | FI | 51 | 19 | TR | 76 | 16 |

Source: Eurydice.

## Explanatory note

Flexible time allocation: System by which schools are free to decide how much curriculum time to allocate to compulsory subjects. Central (or top-) level curricula indicate only the subjects that must be taught, without specifying the time to be allocated to them.
For a definition of 'foreign language', 'language as a compulsory subject', see the Glossary.

## Countries specific notes

France: In grade 10, 198 teaching hours are allocated for both first and second foreign languages and schools are entitled to distribute these between languages to suit their needs. For the purpose of comparison, this taught time has been equally divided between the first and second foreign languages.
Hungary: Data only concern the Gimnázium.
For additional country specific information, please see the Country-specific notes under Figures E1 and E2.

## THE SHARE OF INSTRUCTION TIME ALLOCATED TO FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING IS SIGNIFICANTLY HIGHER IN SECONDARY THAN IN PRIMARY EDUCATION

In nearly all countries, the proportion of time allocated to foreign languages as compulsory subjects in relation to the total instruction time for the compulsory curriculum is higher or much higher in compulsory general secondary education than in primary education. In Greece, Spain, Croatia, Luxembourg and Norway, the variation between the two educational levels is limited to about one percentage point or even less.

Figure E5: Minimum instruction time allocated to foreign languages as compulsory subjects, as a proportion of total instruction time in primary and full-time compulsory general secondary education, 2015/16


| \% | BE fr | BE de | BE nl | BG | CZ | DK | DE | EE | IE | $\begin{aligned} & \text { EL } \\ & \text { RC } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { EL } \\ \text { EAEP } \end{gathered}$ | ES | FR | HR | IT |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Primary education | 2.4 | 11.9 | - | 8.8 | 7.6 | 6.1 | 5.2 | 9.9 | $\otimes$ | 9.1 | 11.4 | 10.8 | 6.3 | 11.1 | 8.9 |
| Full-time compulsory general secondary education | 13.6 | 20.2 | $\bigcirc$ | 11.2 | 14.8 | 15.0 | 16.8 | 19.1 | $\otimes$ | 11.4 | 11.4 | 11.4 | 17.6 | 12.4 | 14.6 |
| \% | CY | LV | LT | LU | HU | MT | NL | AT |  | PL | PT | RO | SI | SK | FI |
| Primary education | 5.7 | 10.1 | 6.5 | 44.0 | 3.1 | 14.9 | $\bigcirc$ | 2.1 |  | $\bigcirc$ | 4.5 | 6.9 | 5.9 | 6.3 | 6.0 |
| Full-time compulsory general secondary education | 12.3 | 17.5 | 16.0 | 44.2 | 13.1 | 22.8 | $\bigcirc$ | $\begin{aligned} & 11.7 \\ & \text { AHS } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 11.7 \\ & \text { NMS } \end{aligned}$ | 13.9 | 12.0 | 14.0 | 11.1 | 11.9 | 15.8 |
| \% | SE | UKENG | UKWLSNIR | $\begin{aligned} & \text { UK- } \\ & \text { SCT } \end{aligned}$ | BA | CH | IS | LI |  |  | ME | MK | NO | RS | TR |
| Primary education | 7.1 | $\bigcirc$ | $\otimes$ | $\otimes$ | 6.0 | - | 6.0 | 5.1 |  |  | 4.6 | 10.4 | 7.0 | 8.8 | 5.0 |
| Full-time compulsory general secondary education | 7.1 | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\otimes$ | 14.2 | $\bigcirc$ | 18.9 | $\begin{aligned} & 20.1 \\ & \text { Gym } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 11.1 \\ & \text { Obs } \end{aligned}$ | $16.8$ <br> Reals | 19.7 | 16.9 | 8.5 | 13.0 | 13.3 |

Source: Eurydice.

## Explanatory note

Flexible time allocation: System by which schools are free to decide how much curriculum time to allocate to compulsory subjects. Central level (or top-level) curricula indicate only the subjects that must be taught, without specifying the time to be allocated to them.
For a definition of 'foreign language', 'language as a compulsory subject', see the Glossary.

## Country-specific notes

Greece: There are two types of public primary schools: primary schools implementing the Regular Curriculum ( $47 \%$ of the students) and primary schools implementing the Unified Revised Curriculum (EAEP; 53 \%). In 2016/17, these two types of primary schools will cease to exist and will be replaced by the Single Type of All-day Primary School.
Hungary: Data refer only to the Gimnázium.
Austria: Allgemeinbildende Höhere Schule (AHS - Science branch, Realgymnasium); Neue Mittelschule (NMS).
Poland: Where foreign language instruction in grades $1-3$ is provided by a specialist teacher, regulations provide a minimum instruction time for foreign languages - the proportion at primary level is $9.5 \%$
Sweden: This Figure shows an artificial distribution of instruction time between primary and full time compulsory general secondary education. Central education authorities define instruction time for the whole of compulsory education. Each education provider determines how to distribute this time across the grades.
Liechtenstein: LI Gym: primary education + Gymnasium; LI Obs: primary education + Oberschule; LI Reals: primary education + Realschule.

For additional country specific information, please see the Country-specific notes under Figures E1 and E2.
Apart from this general trend, the differences between countries are substantial at both levels. These differences may be attributable to structural factors such as the number of years in primary and fulltime compulsory secondary education, or foreign language related policy decisions such as the number of compulsory foreign languages or the starting age for learning foreign languages (see Figures B2 and B3).

In primary education, compulsory foreign language teaching represents between 5 and $10 \%$ of total instruction time in the majority of countries. In a few countries, namely Belgium (French Community), Hungary, Austria, Portugal and Montenegro, the proportion of total instruction time devoted to foreign language teaching is less than $5 \%$. In Austria, in the first two years, foreign languages are taught through CLIL-type provision and is not recorded here. At the other end of the spectrum, foreign language teaching accounts for about $11 \%$ of total instruction time in Belgium (German-speaking Community), Greece (EAEP), Spain and Croatia; 14.9 \% in Malta; and $44 \%$ in Luxembourg.

With respect to full-time compulsory general secondary education, most countries with data can be placed in one of two categories; first, the percentage of time prescribed for foreign languages as compulsory subjects varies between 10 and $15 \%$; second, it fluctuates between 16 and $20 \%$. Four countries stand out: Norway because it dedicates only $8.5 \%$ of total instruction time to the teaching of foreign languages; and the three countries that spend more than $20 \%$ of total instruction time on foreign languages, namely Bulgaria and Malta with $23.4 \%$ and $22.8 \%$ respectively and Luxembourg with $44.2 \%$.

# E <br> <br> TEACHING PROCESSES 

 <br> <br> TEACHING PROCESSES}

SECTION II - EXPECTED LEARNING OUTCOMES

Expected learning outcomes are statements of what students should be able to do after completing a certain school year or education level. These statements are often formulated in order to support excellence in foreign language teaching and learning. Expected learning outcomes identify the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that learners should have after successfully completing a unit of learning. They are often expressed as statements of attainment and are built into assessment frameworks. Assessment is an important part of the teaching process as it enables individual learners' attainment to be positioned in relation to the expected learning outcomes.

This section begins by looking at language learning outcomes in terms of the skills students should acquire and the priorities highlighted by central education authorities. It discusses the emphasis placed on four main communication skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. The second indicator examines the expected minimum attainment levels, which are described using the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). In many countries, student attainment levels are assessed through national tests and in some cases these tests are also aligned to CEFR levels. An analysis of the languages and CEFR levels covered by national tests at secondary level is therefore provided. The section finishes with indicators relating to the certificates awarded on the successful completion of language studies.

## ALL FOUR COMMUNICATION SKILLS ARE CONSIDERED TO BE EQUALLY IMPORTANT AT THE END OF COMPULSORY EDUCATION

One of the central goals of foreign language teaching is the acquisition of communication skills, which are usually defined as the four main skills of listening (listening comprehension), speaking (oral expression), reading (reading comprehension) and writing (written expression). In most European countries, foreign language curricula explicitly mention communication skills.

Figure E6 shows whether countries give priority to any of the four skills at the start and at the end of compulsory learning of the first foreign language. At the end of compulsory foreign language learning, all four skills are considered to be equally important in most European countries. Half of European education systems give equal weight to all four skills at the beginning and at the end of learning the first foreign language. Eight European education systems (Belgium (French Community), France, Croatia, Cyprus, Lithuania, Hungary, Austria and Serbia) place more emphasis on oral communication skills (listening and speaking) at the start of compulsory foreign language learning, but give equal weight to all skills at the end of the process. In addition, Finland and Liechtenstein do not make explicit references to any of the communication skills during the first year(s) of foreign language teaching, but give equal emphasis to all four communication skills at the end. The Netherlands stresses the importance of listening, speaking and reading at the beginning, but regard all four skills as equally important at the end of compulsory foreign language learning.

Only a few countries diverge from this pattern. In most Autonomous Communities in Spain, the focus is placed on oral communication skills both at the beginning and at the end of compulsory foreign language teaching. In most Cantons in Switzerland, listening, speaking and reading skills are emphasised during the entire phase of compulsory education, placing less weight on writing.

Figure E6: Priority given to the four communication skills in teaching the first foreign language, full-time compulsory general education, 2015/16

At the start of compulsory teaching of the first foreign language

At the end of compulsory teaching of the first foreign language

| Explicit priority |  |  |  |  |  |
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$\otimes$ No compulsory foreign languages
Source: Eurydice.
UK (1) $=$ UK-ENG/WLS/NIR

## Explanatory note

The four communication skills: The main communication skills in foreign language teaching: listening (listening comprehension), speaking (oral expression), reading (reading comprehension) and writing (written expression).
Equal importance given to all four communication skills: The official curricula for foreign languages clearly state that, as far as aims are concerned, no priority should be attached to one or more of the four communication skills.
Explicit priority given to one or more communication skills: The official curricula for foreign languages state clearly and explicitly that greater emphasis should be attached to the aims relating to one or more skills during the whole teaching/learning process.
No reference to priorities: The official curricula for foreign languages do not state whether priority should be given to one or more communication skills.

Country-specific notes (Figure E6)<br>Spain: In the Autonomous Communities of Valencia, Castilla y León, Castilla-La Mancha and Cantabria, the regulation establishes equal treatment for all the four skills at the end of compulsory teaching of the first foreign language.<br>Switzerland: In the French- and Italian speaking Cantons, all four major skills are equally important at the start of compulsory teaching of the first foreign language.

Four countries make no specific reference to priorities regarding communication skills in their curricula (the Czech Republic, Germany, Latvia and Norway) either at the beginning or at the end of compulsory foreign language teaching. Luxembourg emphasises all four skills during the first year of foreign language teaching, but does not make an explicit reference to any of the communication skills at the end of compulsory foreign language teaching.

## STUDENTS ARE EXPECTED TO REACH 'INDEPENDENT USER' LEVEL IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES BY THE TIME THEY FINISH SCHOOL

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001) provides a scale that supports the evaluation of the outcomes of foreign language learning in an internationally comparable way. The CEFR describes foreign language proficiency at six levels: A1 and A2 (basic users), B1 and B2 (independent users), C1 and C2 (proficient users). The scales are accompanied by a detailed analysis of communicative contexts, themes, tasks and purposes as well as scaled descriptions of the communication competences. Based on empirical research and widespread consultation, this scheme makes it possible to compare tests and examinations across languages and national boundaries. It also provides a basis for recognising language qualifications, thus facilitating educational and occupational mobility. In February 2002, a European Union Council Resolution recommended the use of the CEFR in setting up systems for the validation of language competences ( ${ }^{1}$ ).

Figure E7 shows the expected minimum attainment levels at the end of lower secondary and at the end of general upper secondary education. Currently, two thirds of European countries use the CEFR to establish the minimum attainment levels in foreign language proficiency at these two points in schooling. The levels of attainment generally cover the first and second foreign languages. In a few countries, the minimum CEFR levels are also defined for the third foreign language.

When comparing the levels of attainment of the first and the second foreign languages at the same reference point, it is generally expected that student attainment is higher for the first foreign language than for the second. At the end of lower secondary education, the minimum level generally varies between A2 ('waystage') and B1 ('threshold') for the first language; and between A1 ('breakthrough') and A2 ('waystage') for the second. At the end of upper secondary education, most European countries define B2 ('vantage') as the minimum level of attainment for the first foreign language and B1 ('threshold') for the second foreign language. None of the European education systems set minimum attainment at advanced or proficient language user levels (C1 or C2).

In some education systems, the expected outcomes for the first and second languages are similar at the same reference point. This is the case in Poland and Romania both at the end of lower and general upper secondary education. Similar attainment levels are expected for the first and second foreign languages at the end of lower secondary education in Cyprus, Austria, Switzerland, Iceland and Montenegro. At the end of general upper secondary education the expected level of attainment is similar for both the first and second foreign languages in Italy, Latvia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Serbia. It is important to note that in some of these education systems different CEFR

[^11]sublevels may be specified for the first and the second foreign languages within the same broad CEFR level. In others, there might be different levels set for different skills.

A comparison of the minimum levels of attainment set for learners of foreign languages at the end of lower secondary and upper secondary education shows, as might be expected, that there is a common tendency for the levels of attainment to be higher at the end of upper secondary than lower secondary. There is a general expectation that students will make further progress with further study. This applies to both the first and the second foreign languages. For the first foreign language, most countries require A2 ('waystage') at the end of lower secondary education and B2 ('vantage') at the end of upper secondary education. The minimum requirement for the second foreign language in most countries jumps from A1-A2 ('breakthrough'-'waystage') at the end of lower secondary education to B1 ('threshold') at the end of upper secondary school.

In a few countries, the required minimum attainment level depends on the length of study. For example, in Poland, in general upper secondary education, the level for the second foreign language is set at B1 ('threshold') for students who continue learning the same foreign language as in lower secondary education while, for students who started a new foreign language, the expected minimum is A2 ('waystage'). Similarly, in Serbia, at the end of general upper secondary education, B1 is required of those students that have continued the same foreign language from primary school, while the level is set at A2 for those who started learning a new foreign language in secondary school. The Austrian curricula differentiate between the foreign languages learnt for six or four years (required level B1) and the foreign language learnt for three years, which may be the third foreign language (required level A2). In Slovenia, in lower secondary education, the minimum attainment level for those who studied the second foreign language for three years is set at A1 ('breakthrough'), while for those that took an elective foreign language for six years, the required minimum is A2.

A few countries have defined the expected requirement for the third foreign language. At the end of lower secondary education, Denmark expects students to reach level A2, while in Iceland the threshold is set at B1, the same as for the first and the second foreign languages. At the end of general upper secondary education, the minimum requirement for the third foreign language is defined in France (A2), Italy (B1), Cyprus (A2), Lithuania (A2), Austria (A2), Romania (A2), Slovenia (A1) and Macedonia (B1). In Austria, the minimum requirement may be set even higher for longer or more intensive courses.

Most countries set the same minimum standards for the four main communications skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing). However, in Estonia, Austria and Finland, different minimum levels of attainment are assigned to specific skills. In Estonia, the level for writing skills in the first foreign language is lower than for listening, speaking and reading at the end of general upper secondary education. In Austria, at lower secondary level, the attainment level for speaking skills in the second foreign language can be lower than for other skills. In Finland, the expected level for productive skills (speaking and writing) is lower than for receptive skills (listening and reading).

Figure E7: Expected minimum level of attainment based on CEFR for the first and second foreign languages at the end of lower secondary education (ISCED 2 ) and general upper secondary education (ISCED 3), 2015/16

End of lower secondary education (ISCED 2)

Basic user


End of general upper secondary education (ISCED 3)

Basic user $\quad \rightarrow \quad$ Proficient user

a First foreign language b
Second foreign language

[^12]
## Explanatory note (Figure E7)

The Figure shows the recommended minimum attainment levels for those countries whose assessment systems are linked to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001). The CEFR is a framework for language learning, teaching and assessment, developed by the Council of Europe. Its main aim is to facilitate transparency and comparability in the provision of language education and qualifications. The CEFR describes the competences necessary for communicating in a foreign language, the related knowledge and skills as well as the different contexts for communication. The CEFR defines six levels of proficiency A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2 (where A corresponds to basic user, B to independent user and C to proficient user), enabling the progress of foreign language learners and users to be measured.
When different minimum levels of attainment are assigned to specific skills, the lowest level required is shown. Intensive programmes of study for foreign languages and CEFR sublevels are not shown in the Figure.

## Country-specific notes

Estonia: At the end of general upper secondary education, for the first foreign language, level B2 is required for listening, speaking and reading skills.
Spain: End of compulsory education (first year of upper secondary education) is shown instead of end of lower secondary education.
Latvia: Figure indicates recommended levels.
Hungary: Data only concern Gimnázium.
Austria: Although the attainment level A2 is shown at the end of ISCED 2 for both first and second foreign languages, achievements in the first foreign language partially include competences from B1 while part of speaking skills (interaction skills) in the second language should reach the minimum level, A1 (the minimum attainment level for speaking is set at A2). At the end of ISCED 3 general, the required attainment levels for the 2nd and 3rd foreign languages depend on the years of learning. The Figure indicates the minimum compulsory length of study for the 2 nd foreign language ( 4 years). Where students study for 6 years, the required minimum level for reading is B2.
Finland: Target attainment level is 'good', not 'minimum'. At the end of general upper secondary education, for the second foreign language, level B1 is required for listening and reading skills.
Switzerland: In the Italian-speaking Canton, the expected minimum level of attainment for the first foreign language is B1 at the end of lower secondary education (ISCED 2).
Serbia: Curricula specify the general level of attainment. However, it is stated that the levels of attainment for the four skills may vary, requiring that the receptive skills (listening and reading) should be at the expected level, while production skills (speaking and writing) may be one level lower.

Finally, reforms are taking place in some countries which impact on the expected minimum levels of attainment in foreign languages. Denmark, which is currently using CEFR in lower secondary education only, will officially begin to use these levels of attainment in general upper secondary education. Ireland is revising the language syllabus for lower secondary education, and it will be broadly aligned to levels A1-A2 of the CEFR. In Slovakia, since the new State Educational Programme shortened the length of study of the second foreign language as a compulsory subject (see Figure B3), the minimum level of attainment will be lowered from level B2 to level A1. In Switzerland, the 'Strategy for the coordination of foreign language teaching at upper-secondary level' (adopted in October 2013 by all Cantons) aims to introduce minimum levels of attainment based on CEFR levels for general upper secondary education. Currently, some Cantons already define the minimum level regarding the first foreign language at C 1 for listening and reading skills and at B2 for speaking and writing.

## IN LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION, Cefr levels a2 and b1 are usually the highest levels tested

Figure E8 provides information on national tests in languages in lower secondary education. More specifically, it focuses on the countries whose national tests are aligned to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) and gives more detail on the levels of competence tested. The CEFR defines six levels of proficiency A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2 (where A corresponds to a 'basic user', B to an 'independent user' and $C$ to a 'proficient user'), enabling the progress of foreign language learners to be measured (see the Glossary).

In lower secondary education, 19 countries have developed national tests related to CEFR levels. In these countries, all existing tests are linked to the CEFR scale except in Luxembourg where the 'Standardised Test' (testing reading skills of students in grade 9 with a view to monitoring the education system) is not linked to CEFR levels. The 'National Tests' shown in Figure E8, administered in grade 8 or 9 (depending on the language tested), are however related to CEFR levels.

Figure E8: CEFR levels covered by national tests, lower secondary education, 2015/16

|  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Basic } \\ & \text { user } \end{aligned}$ |  | Independent user |  | Proficient user |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Test Name (in English) | A1 | A2 | B1 | B2 | C1 | C2 |
| CZ | Sample survey on pupils' results in the 4th and 8th grade of basic schools and pupils in the 2nd year of upper secondary vocational schools |  | - |  |  |  |  |
| DE | Comparison Tests/Learning Assessments (VERA) | $\bigcirc$ | $\bullet$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | O |  |
| DE | National Assessment Study on Languages | - | - | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | 0 |  |
| EE | Basic School Final Examination |  |  | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |  |
| ES | Grade 8 National Tests (Comunidad Valenciana, Extremadura, Comunidad de Madrid, Región de Murcia, Navarra and the País Vasco) |  | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |
|  | CEDRE Assessment (Grade 9 sample-based subject evaluations) | $\bigcirc$ | - | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |  |
| FR | CEDRE Assessment (Grade 9 sample-based subject evaluations) | - | - |  |  |  |  |
| LT | Foreign Language Standardised Test |  | - | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |  |
| LU | National Tests in English |  | - | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |  |
| HU | Foreign Language Assessment (6th grade) | - |  |  |  |  |  |
| Hu | Foreign Language Assessment (8th grade) |  | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |  |  |
| NL | National Examination VMBO | - | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |
| AT | Assessment of National Education Standards |  | - | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |  |
| PL | End of Lower Secondary Education Language Examination |  | - |  |  |  |  |
| R0 | National Evaluation: test in the language and communication curriculum area | - |  |  |  |  |  |
| SI | National Assessment of Knowledge |  | - |  |  |  |  |
| SE | National Test |  |  | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |  |
| IS | Icelandic National Examinations - English | - | - | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |
| LI | Defined Content Standards Tests | - | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |  |
| ME | Third Cycle Assessment of Knowledge |  | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |  |  |
| MK | External Foreign Language Test for ISCED 2 | - | - |  |  |  |  |
| TR | Transition from Basic to Secondary Education Examination |  |  | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |  |

## Explanatory note

The symbol indicates which of the six CEFR levels are covered by the test.
National tests assessing students' language competencies for admission to CLIL type of schools are not part of the scope. This Figure does not provide information on the range of macro skills (reading, listening, speaking and writing) tested.
Where a test covers more than one CEFR level, the Figure does not indicate on which level(s), if any, the test mainly focuses. Where the level of test varies between skills or student population tested, this information is provided in the Country-specific notes
If for a given grade, several tests assess students in different languages at the same CEFR level(s), only one test is indicated.
For a definition of 'national tests' and 'CEFR', see the Glossary.

## Country-specific notes

Belgium (BEfr): The national test at the end of the first cycle of secondary education (CE1D) assesses student competencies in languages. It will soon be firmly aligned to the CEFR scale, testing level A2.
France: The two tests target the first and the second foreign languages respectively.
Netherlands: CEFR levels vary depending on the languages tested and educational programmes followed by students.
The great majority of national tests have items at more than one proficiency level; the range of levels tested varies from A1 to C1. These tests can be divided into four groups according to the range of levels covered. The first group comprises tests at A2 and below: it includes the CEDRE sampled assessment in France, testing students' competences in the second foreign language and the External Foreign Language Test for ISCED 2 in the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia. The second category groups together the tests that assess students at level B1 and below. This is the group with the largest number of national tests; it includes tests administered in France (CEDRE sampled assessment for the first foreign language students learn), Lithuania, Luxembourg, Austria, and Liechtenstein. Tests at level B2 and below constitute the third category, which includes national tests in Spain and the Netherlands. Finally, the last group includes tests in Germany and Iceland where national tests cover all levels up to C 1 and C 2 respectively.

A minority of tests linked to the CEFR cover one level only. The purpose of these tests is not to assess students' attainment levels but to determine whether they have achieved a specific level of competence. The levels tested are usually A1, A2 or B1, but A2 is much more common. In Poland, the End of Lower Secondary Education Language Examination comprises two separate tests: Basic aligned to level A2, and Extended - aligned to level A2+. Estonia, Sweden and Turkey stand out with a higher level (B1). In Sweden, only the lowest pass grade of the test, (E) on an A to E scale, corresponds to level B1: higher grades are not explicitly linked to the CEFR scale.

There are thus significant differences between countries in their use of CEFR levels in their testing regimes both within the same ISCED level and within similar grades. This is because, as Figure B1 clearly shows, unlike mathematics or reading and writing for example, students start learning foreign languages at different grades in Europe. Other considerations, such as differences in the linguistic context of each country, also play a part in helping to explain the differences in curriculum objectives and, ultimately, variations in the levels of proficiency tested.

## IN GENERAL UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION, CEFR LEVELS B1 AND B2 ARE USUALLY THE HIGHEST LEVELS TESTED

In general upper secondary education, 22 countries have at least one national test related to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). This is slightly more than at lower secondary level (see Figure E8). However, four countries (Germany, Luxembourg, Iceland and Liechtenstein) that have national tests linked to the CEFR scale at lower secondary level do not have them at general upper secondary level.

The highest CEFR levels covered in most countries' national tests are levels B1 and B2. Only, five countries (Spain, France, Latvia, the Netherlands ('National Examination VWO') and Poland) have test items covering level C 1 . In three of these countries only the higher levels are tested: in France levels B2 and C1; and in Latvia and Poland levels B1, B2 and C1. In Poland, the Matriculation Language Examination offers three separate tests at three levels: Basic - linked to B1, Extended - linked to B2 and Bilingual - linked to C1. Nine countries have national tests for students only at level B1 or B2.

Around one third of countries (France, Croatia, Italy, Cyprus, Hungary, Austria and Finland) have national tests specifically targeting the first, the second or even the third languages learnt by students. In these countries, the levels of competency covered by the tests vary (varies) according to the language's position in the curriculum. As might be expected, the first language learnt is tested to a higher level than those learnt for fewer years at a later stage. In France, Cyprus and Austria, national tests up to level A2 only apply to the 3rd foreign language learnt by students.

Figure E9: CEFR levels covered by national tests, general upper secondary education, 2015/16

|  |  | Basic user |  | Independent user |  | Proficient user |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Test name (in English) | A1 | A2 | B1 | B2 | C1 | C2 |
| BE de | Certificate in French Language Studies B1-B2 (DELF-test) |  |  | - | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |
| CZ | School Leaving Examination (common part) |  |  | - |  |  |  |
| EE | External School Leaving (State) Examination |  |  | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |
| ES | Grade 10 National Tests (Canarias, Cantabria, Cataluña, Extremadura and Comunidad de Madrid) |  | - | - | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |  |
| FR | General and Technological Baccalaureate (first foreign language) |  |  |  | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |  |
|  | General and Technological Baccalaureate (second foreign language) |  |  | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |
|  | General and Technological Baccalaureate (third foreign language) |  | - |  |  |  |  |
| HR | State Matriculation Exam (first foreign language) |  |  | - | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |
|  | State Matriculation Exam (second foreign language) |  | - | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |  |
| IT | National Examinations: Second Written Paper (first and second foreign languages) |  |  |  | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |
|  | National Examinations: Second Written Paper (third foreign language) |  |  | - |  |  |  |
| CY | Pancyprian Exams in English (first foreign language) |  |  |  | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |
|  | Pancyprian Exams in French (second foreign language) |  |  | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |  |
|  | Pancyprian Exams (third foreign language) |  | - |  |  |  |  |
| LV | Centralised Secondary School leaving Examination in Foreign Languages |  |  | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |  |
| LT | State Matriculation Examination in Foreign Languages |  |  | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |
| HU | Upper Secondary School Leaving Examination (first foreign language) |  |  | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |
|  | Upper Secondary School Leaving Examination (second foreign language) |  | - | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |  |
| NL | National Examination HAVO |  | - | - | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |
|  | National Examination VWO |  | - | - | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |  |
| AT | Academic Secondary Schools (AHS) Standardised and Competenceoriented Matriculation Examination (first foreign language) |  |  |  | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |
|  | Academic Secondary Schools (AHS) Standardised and Competenceoriented Matriculation Examination (second foreign language) |  | - | - | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |
|  | Academic Secondary Schools (AHS) Standardised and Competenceoriented Matriculation Examination (third foreign language) |  | - |  |  |  |  |
| PL | Matriculation Language Examination (Basic, Extended, Bilingual level) |  |  | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |  |
| RO | The National Baccalaureate Examination: Test C Assessment of Language Skills in a Foreign Language | - | - | - | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |
| SI | General Matura Examination |  |  |  | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |
| SK | School Leaving Examination: External and Internal Written Parts |  |  |  | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |
| FI | Matriculation Examination |  |  | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |
|  | Matriculation Examination |  |  | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |  |
|  | Matriculation Examination |  | - | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |  |
| SE | National test | - | - | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |
| ME | Matriculation Examination |  |  |  | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |
| MK | External Foreign Language Test for ISCED 3 | - | - | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |
| TR | Undergraduate Placement Examination 5 |  |  |  | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |

Source: Eurydice.

## Explanatory note (Figure E9)

The symbol indicates which of the six CEFR levels are covered by the test.
Please see the explanatory note of Figure E8 for information on the definitions and the scope of this Figure.

## Country-specific notes

Estonia: State examinations in French, German and Russian as foreign languages have been replaced by the following international examinations: French: DELF B1 and B2; German: Goethe-Zertifikat B1 or B2; Deutches Sprachdiplom I/ B2 and C1; Deutchprüfung der Allgemeinen deutchen Hochschulreife (B2 and C1); Russian: Tecm по русскому языку как иностранному B1 or Tecт по русскому языку как иностранному B2.
France: Students on the literary pathway of the Baccalaureate are tested to level C1 for the first language, and to level B2 for the second language, if they choose to study one of these languages to an advanced level.
Hungary: Students may take the School Leaving Examination in languages at an intermediate or advanced level. The data shown concern the intermediate level.
Slovenia: The Figure concerns the English language; examinations for other languages are currently being aligned to the CEFR.
Finland: Students must study the second national language and at least one language at an advanced level. Beside these requirements, they can choose both the language(s) and the (short or long/advanced) syllabus. The relative flexibility of the system accounts for the different matriculation examinations and the CEFR levels they cover.

## most countries have national tests in a relatively wide range of LANGUAGES AT THE END OF UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION

At the end of lower secondary education, only a minority of countries have national tests leading to a certificate. In the majority of countries with such tests, they are for a limited number of languages. In many cases, students can be tested in English, German and French plus one or two additional languages such as Spanish, Russian or Italian. These languages constitute the six most commonly tested languages.

At this level of education, however, some countries test a more restricted range of languages. In Slovenia, national tests are available for German and English only. In Luxembourg, Iceland and Norway, they are limited to English. In Belgium (French Community), Dutch, which is the language most commonly learnt (see Figure C8), is one of the three languages tested alongside English and German. Conversely, in Malta, the Netherlands and Poland, existing national tests are available for more languages and include less commonly studied languages. In Malta, students can be tested in Arabic and Chinese; in the Netherlands, Turkish, Arabic and Frisian are also available as languages for national tests at the end of lower secondary education; and finally, in Poland, Ukrainian is added to the list of the six most commonly tested languages.

The picture is markedly different at the end of upper secondary education. The vast majority of countries have national tests leading to a certificate. Most countries have tests in more languages than the six most tested. France, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) and Norway have developed national tests in a very large number of languages (44, 22 and 41 respectively). These languages are not only European languages, but also world languages spoken by communities of immigrants settled in these countries. In France and Norway, they are also minority and/or regional languages. For instance, in France, students can take a test in Basque, Breton, Berber and Vietnamese. Norway has developed national tests in Lule-Sami, Northern-Sami, Oromo and Panjabi to name but a few. Finally, in the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), national tests are available, for example, in Bengali, Urdu and Persian.

Figure E10: Languages tested through national tests which lead to a certificate at the end of lower secondary and upper general secondary education, 2015/16


Source: Eurydice.

## Explanatory note

Only national tests leading to the award of a certificate are taken into consideration.
Where the languages tested differ according to education pathways, this differentiation is not reported but all languages are included.

## THE CEFR IS USED IN SEVEN COUNTRIES TO REPORT STUDENT ATTAINMENT ON THE CERTIFICATE OF UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION

In all countries, except in Belgium (German-speaking Community), the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Turkey, students receive a certificate at the end of secondary education. This certificate includes a foreign language element in all countries apart from Belgium (Flemish Community).

Certificates acknowledge students' foreign language learning in mainly two ways. First, they may indicate input related elements such as information on the number of years of study and/or the instruction time received; second, they may specify output related elements such as assessment results and/or attainment levels.

In all countries, except Belgium (French Community) and Italy, the certificate indicates the assessment results and/or provides information on the attainment levels achieved by students. The attainment scale defined by the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) is used in seven countries (Estonia, France, Latvia, Lithuania, Austria, Romania and Slovakia). Eight countries report on student achievement using another scale to communicate attainment levels (Denmark, Greece, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Hungary, Sweden and the United Kingdom (Scotland). Latvia and Lithuania refer to both the CEFR scale and their own scale on the certificate.

Figure E11: Information on foreign language study on certificates awarded to students at the end of general upper secondary education, 2015/16

## Reference to the language(s) students have learnt



## Reference to INPUT related information



## Reference to OUTPUT related information



No certificate/ no language element on the certificate


Source: Eurydice.

## Explanatory note

For a definition of 'certificate', see the Glossary.
This Figure focuses on the certificates obtained by students taking foreign languages at upper secondary education.
For information on the attainment levels required or expected at the end of upper secondary education, please see Figure E7.

## Country-specific notes

Belgium (BE de): Students get a specific language certificate for the first foreign language if they reach level B2 and for the second language if they reach level B1.
Spain: In addition to the end of upper secondary education certificate, students are provided with an academic record stating the languages learnt and the grades obtained.
Slovenia: Certificates of the European foreign language proficiency based on CEFR will be issued retrospectively to all candidates who completed the general or vocational Matura for English in 2014 or later (and for other languages in 2015 or later).

Only a minority of countries specify the number of years students have learnt the language concerned and/or the amount of instruction time they have received. Most of those giving details on the taught time also indicate the number of years spent studying the language(s) (Bulgaria, Italy, Austria and Norway).

Belgium (French Community) is the only country with a language element on the general secondary education certificate that is limited to stating only the language(s) studied.

## TEACHING PROCESSES

## SECTION III - LANGUAGE SUPPORT MEASURES FOR NEWLY ARRIVED MIGRANT STUDENTS

The reception, teaching and integration of newly arrived migrant students has become a more challenging task in recent years in an increasing number of European education systems. Schools in many European countries are receiving growing numbers of students whose skills in the language of schooling are not sufficient for them to access the curriculum. These students may also have considerable gaps in their schooling and many have undergone traumatic experiences or even suffered violence.

The European Handbook on Integration (European Communities, 2010, p. 160) states: 'Basic knowledge of the host society's language, history, and institutions is indispensable to integration; enabling immigrants to acquire this basic knowledge is essential...'. This section focuses on the integration policies related to language learning. The term language of schooling is used to define a language that is used to teach the curriculum and, more broadly, for communication inside the school as well as outside the school to stakeholders such as parents, education authorities, etc. Typically, the language of schooling is an official state language (see Figure A1).

A set of educational support policies is needed in order to facilitate the integration of newly arrived students in schools: linguistic support, academic support, outreach and cooperation as well as intercultural education (European Union, 2013). Newly arrived migrant students have very diverse life experiences and cultures as well as very varied levels of schooling and knowledge, therefore it is difficult to establish organisational structures and support measures that fit every situation. Specific approaches, tailored to the individual's needs within a broader set of available support measures are usually advocated (European Union, 2013). Moreover, in countries with comprehensive educational support systems, language learning policies fall under broader educational measures aimed at supporting all underachieving students.

Newly arrived migrant students are defined as children and young adults, born outside their current country of residence to parents also born outside the host country and who are of school age or below (according to the national regulations for compulsory education) and subsequently enter formal education in their host country (European Union, 2013). These students may have a different legal status in their host country (asylum-seeker, temporary or permanent resident, national passport holder), but they are permitted to access formal education in schools. The education provided within detention centres for asylum-seekers is excluded from the analysis in this section.

This section starts by discussing the central recommendations/regulations on the assessment of young people's skills in the language of schooling when they enrol in the education system in the host country. It further describes the various forms of language support available to these students in schools. It is important to note that the guidance and financial support provided by central authorities normally allows schools a lot of autonomy to adapt their provision to meet the needs of their students within the framework of the school environment. The backgrounds and needs of newly arrived migrant students may vary profoundly, from young people with no formal schooling to those that have previously attended high quality schools or young people with no knowledge of any foreign language to those that are fluent in several. Moreover, schools' experience of dealing with newly arrived migrants also differs. Some schools have considerable experience in integrating immigrant and language-minority students, while some receive only a few newcomers with different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. In turn, the framework within which schools operate also varies. Some countries
have vast experience of migration and have well-established practices for dealing with linguistic and cultural diversity, while in other countries immigration is still low and educational support systems for migrants are still in the process of being developed.

## THE LEVEL OF THE LANGUAGE OF SCHOOLING OF NEWLY ARRIVED MIGRANT STUDENTS IS ASSESSED IN ONE THIRD OF EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

Determining the appropriate types of support is one of the first steps to be taken when newly arrived migrant students enter the education system. An assessment of their knowledge and language skills is instrumental in identifying their learning needs. Figure E12 shows which countries have recommendations/regulations on the testing of newly arrived migrant students in the language of schooling. Sometimes the measures indicated in the Figure fall under broader regulations not linked to students' backgrounds. For example, in some countries, newly arrived migrant students undergo the same assessment/testing regime as other students entering primary or secondary school, while in others they may be subject to the same procedures as other students changing schools.

Generally, schools determine their own procedures for the reception of newly arrived migrant students. Often, they are tested informally so that they can be placed in groups with other students with similar needs (e.g. French Community of Belgium). Some countries provide tools for assessing students' ability in the language of schooling even though there are no specific recommendations or regulations regarding testing (e.g. Slovenia).

However, in order to guide schools and guarantee similar approaches, approximately one third of European countries provide central recommendations/regulations on testing students in the language of schooling. Often, this testing is only one aspect of a broader psycho-pedagogical assessment. Most of these countries advise the same approaches for all education levels, while in a few education systems, the recommendations/regulations vary according to the education level (chequered pattern in the key of Figure E12).

The language skills of all newly arrived students are tested in Latvia, Sweden and Norway. In Latvia, a commission of three teachers assesses the student's Latvian language skills and their knowledge of other subjects. Based on the outcome of the assessment and the student's age, a decision is made on the grade the student will be placed in and any other support measures needed. In Sweden, central regulations require that schools carry out a comprehensive assessment of every newly arrived migrant child of compulsory school age. This includes an assessment of their knowledge and skills in the various school subjects so that a decision can be made about the school year in which the child should be placed. Language skills are part of this assessment which measures proficiency not only in the language of schooling (Swedish), but also in the child's mother tongue and any other languages the child might speak. The aim is to develop the most appropriate individual study plan for the child. In upper secondary education, however, central authorities only stipulate that language skills should be assessed, leaving any other assessment for the school to determine. In Norway, municipalities assess newly arrived migrants' skills in Norwegian in order to decide whether to provide 'adapted language education'.

Belgium (Flemish Community), Croatia and Austria assess the proficiency in the language of schooling of all students at specific stages. If a newly arrived migrant student enters the education system at this particular stage, he or she will be tested as well. In Belgium (Flemish Community), since September 2014, all students have been assessed in their knowledge of Dutch when entering primary and secondary education. Schools are free to choose the appropriate assessment tools and are expected to use the screening results to adapt their teaching of Dutch to meet students' needs. In

Croatia, all students, including all newly arrived migrants in primary education, undergo testing in the language of schooling. In Austria, the German language proficiency assessment (Sprachstandsfeststellung) identifies the potential language support needs of all children attending early childhood education and care institutions. The test is administered to children 15 months prior to starting primary school. The German language skills of all students are also assessed at the time of enrolment in primary school (determination of readiness for schooling). Moreover, all students starting on the business vocational education pathways take the test 'Diagnose-Check Deutsch' which assesses students' skills in the language of schooling.

Figure E12: Testing the language of schooling of newly arrived migrant students, in pre-primary, primary and secondary education, 2015/16


## Explanatory note

This Figure shows central recommendations/regulations on the testing of newly arrived migrant students in the language of schooling. Specific policies directed at migrant students as well as general policies covering the testing of the language of schooling of other students are shown, provided they include newly arrived migrant students. Some measures fall under broader assessment procedures (including assessment of other skills and/or needs). A chequered pattern on the key indicates different approaches in different education levels and is specified in the country-specific notes.
For definitions of 'newly arrived migrant students' and 'language of schooling', see the Glossary.

## Country-specific notes

Belgium (BE nl): All students, including all newly arrived migrant students, undergo tests in the language of schooling when entering primary and secondary school. Some might be tested when entering pre-primary education.
Estonia: No testing, but interviews with students and their parents are conducted to learn as much as possible about students' language skills, knowledge of other subjects, health, interests, etc. in order to determine the most appropriate individual study plan and support measures.
Greece: Testing the language of schooling is not allowed at ISCED 0.
Croatia: All students, including newly arrived migrant students are tested at ISCED 1, but only some students are tested at ISCED 2 and 3, to determine the need for additional tuition in Croatian.
Cyprus: In ISCED 0 and ISCED 1 students are enrolled in classes according to their age. Testing of the language of schooling is not allowed.
Austria: Proficiency in the language of schooling is tested for all students in ISCED 0 (15 months before starting primary school), in ISCED 1 at the time of enrolment in primary school (determination of readiness for schooling), and all students entering ISCED 3 VET.
Switzerland: Regulations vary between the Cantons.

Some newly arrived migrant students are tested in Spain, France, Luxembourg, Malta, Portugal and Switzerland. In Spain, however, no general testing of newly arrived students is recommended either at state or Autonomous Community level. Nevertheless, in some Autonomous Communities (La Rioja, Asturias and Cantabria), a test in one of the languages of schooling is administered to children from migrant backgrounds. This testing may be carried out as part of a broader psycho-pedagogical assessment by the educational counselling services.

Often, the testing depends on the language profile of the student. For example, in Portugal, all newly arrived migrant students whose mother tongue is not Portuguese are tested. In addition to a placement test, a socio-linguistic profile of the student is developed. In Switzerland, students from another linguistic region of Switzerland as well as students from migrant backgrounds are tested to ascertain their proficiency in the language of schooling.

A few education systems recommend different approaches for testing children at different education levels. In Greece, testing is explicitly not allowed in pre-primary education, but all newly arrived students are tested in other education levels in order to determine the appropriate preparatory classes and learning support measures. In Cyprus, pupils under age 12 are enrolled in a class according to their age. In secondary education, newly arrived students take a test and are placed either in a separate class with intensive language instruction or in mainstream classes (see Figure E13).

## PREPARATORY CLASSES FOR INTENSIVE LANGUAGE LEARNING ARE USUALLY LIMITED TO 1-2 YEARS

One of the measures taken to support newly arrived migrant students is the provision of separate classes. This report defines these classes as 'preparatory classes', where newly arrived migrant students are given intensive language teaching and an adapted curriculum for other subjects with the intention of preparing them to move quickly into mainstream classes. They attend the classes for the entire school day for a limited period rather than being integrated directly into mainstream classes with other students. Depending on the country, the classes may be called 'introductory', 'transition' or 'reception' classes. However, students attending intensive language training preparatory classes may join mainstream classes in some subjects that do not require a high level of competency in the language of schooling, for example art or physical training, as well as school trips or events. Some education systems may organise bilingual preparatory classes (see Figure E14).

In Europe, schools have a lot of autonomy in how they support the integration of newly arrived migrant students and in the measures they take. However, central education authorities may issue some general guidelines or regulations defining how long and under which circumstances certain measures can be applied. Figure E13 shows that in almost half of European countries, education authorities allow for intensive training in the language of schooling for newly arrived migrants in preparatory classes. Normally, when the newly arrived student enters a preparatory class in a local school, more emphasis is initially put on the language of schooling and, as the student's knowledge of the language improves, other school subjects are gradually introduced. Some education authorities explicitly state the proportion of teaching time to be devoted to other school subjects. For example, Belgium (French Community) specifies that in the preparatory classes, at least 15 hours per week should be devoted to the language of schooling (together with history and geography), and no less than 8 hours to mathematics and science teaching. In some countries, central education authorities recommend including an introduction to the host country's culture/history in preparatory classes.

As schools are free to adopt the measures that fit the individual needs of the newly arrived migrants, different types of preparatory classes exist. For example, in Germany, there are different types of class in different Länder. These include, but are not limited to, preparatory classes for children and young people from migrant backgrounds who have no knowledge of German (Vorbereitungskurse, Vorkurse Deutsch or Deutschförderkurse) and special classes which combine instruction in the core subjects with intensive study of the German language (Sprachlernklassen, Deutschförderklassen or Übergangsklassen).

Figure E13: Preparatory classes for newly arrived students, primary and lower secondary education, 2015/16


## Explanatory note

Schools in countries that have preparatory classes may place some newly arrived migrant students directly into mainstream classes. Schools in countries where no preparatory classes are permitted place all newly arrived migrant students directly in mainstream education classes. Additional language learning support may be available in both cases.

## Country-specific notes

Germany: Regulations vary between the Länder.
France: Since 2012, students have been placed directly into mainstream classes with additional support. Preparatory classes are organised only for those newly arrived migrant students who have not received any schooling prior to their arrival.
Luxembourg: Separate classes not allowed in ISCED 0.
Poland: Since September 2016, Polish regulations allow students to be placed in preparatory classes for up to one year if they are experiencing problems in adapting to the Polish education system or if their level of the language of schooling does not allow them to participate in mainstream classes.
Switzerland: Regulations vary between the Cantons.
In several countries, central authorities define the maximum time that a newly arrived student can spend in separate preparatory classes for intensive language learning. The specified maximum is most commonly limited to one or two years. In Belgium, France, Lithuania, Luxembourg and Liechtenstein, the maximum is set at one year or one school year; in Denmark (children under age 14), Cyprus and Norway, it is two years. The maximum time is longer in some countries, in Latvia it is three years, and in Greece, four years. In some countries, the maximum length must be adhered to in order to avoid students becoming segregated from their peers, in others a student may stay in the preparatory class for longer if needed. For example, in Belgium (French Community), a newly arrived migrant student may attend a preparatory class (Dispositif d'accueil et de scolarisation des élèves
primo-arrivants) from one week to one year, which can be prolonged for maximum six months. Similarly, in Belgium (Flemish Community), the duration of 'reception education' in mainstream secondary education depends on the pupil's individual learning path and can be prolonged for a second year. In contrast, in Denmark, a pupil must be gradually integrated into the mainstream class, with full integration after two years. Greece has two levels of 'Reception Class' (Taxeis Ypodoxis) - I and II - in which students are placed according to their proficiency in Greek. 'Reception Class I' accommodates students who have basic or no knowledge of Greek and lasts for one year. 'Reception Class II' is for students with an average level of Greek and lasts a maximum of three years. In the Netherlands, the maximum duration varies according to the education level: preparatory classes are limited to one year in primary education and to two years in secondary education, after which students are integrated into mainstream classes. In Norway, newly arrived migrant students may study in specially organised groups, classes or schools for up to two years. A decision may only be made for one year at a time.

In general, preparatory classes with intensive training in the language of schooling for newly arrived migrants are available mostly in Central and Northern European countries, as well as in Greece, Cyprus and Malta. However, most European countries, including many Southern European countries, do not separate newly arrived migrants into preparatory classes, but place them directly into mainstream classrooms, in a school year appropriate to their age. Where this occurs, additional language support measures are provided (see Figure E14). Balkan countries that have few newly arrived migrants entering the education system provide no central recommendations on whether newly arrived migrants should be placed in preparatory classes or directly into mainstream classes. There are also no recommendations or regulations on these issues across the United Kingdom, nor in Iceland, where schools choose how best to support migrants in acquiring the language of schooling.

## additional classes in the language of schooling are provided FOR MIGRANT STUDENTS IN ALMOST ALL EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

Whether or not students are placed in preparatory classes first, all newly arrived migrant students sooner or later transfer to mainstream classes. Effective language support measures are therefore essential in order to provide continued learning and support for the integration of these students.

Figure E14 shows a selection of the language learning support measures available to newly arrived migrant students in mainstream education. Normally, similar types of support and the same variety of measures are available in both the countries that have preparatory classes and those where all migrant students are placed directly into mainstream classes according to their age. Language support in mainstream education is usually available to migrant students if they still need help whether or not they have attended preparatory classes; however, it may be provided less frequently or less intensively for these students. In addition, language support may be available to non-migrant students that speak a language other than the language of schooling at home.

Almost all countries provide additional classes in the language of schooling. Most commonly, newly arrived migrant students attend these classes instead of other subjects during school hours. For example, in Belgium (Flemish Community), schools can implement flexible learning pathways for individual pupils, which can be used to create an alternative timetable with extra Dutch lessons replacing other parts of the programme. In France, during the first year, newly arrived migrant students attend intensive French lessons for a minimum of nine hours per week in primary education, and 12 hours per week in secondary education $\left({ }^{1}\right)$. The timetables are developed and individualised so

[^13]students can follow, wherever possible, the education offered in the mainstream class. However, each individual's timetable must be the same as that of their peers in terms of total hours. In Austria, students who do not have sufficient knowledge of German to follow mainstream classes attend language support courses (Sprachförderkurse/Sprachstartgruppen) for 11 lessons of 50 minutes a week integrated. This support measure can be continued for two years. Afterwards, if a student still needs special tuition in German as a second language (besonderer Förderunterricht in Deutsch), a maximum of six lessons of 50 minutes per week may be offered (in a different classroom or through team-teaching in the same classroom) or after school in separate small groups.

In some countries, the allocated weekly hours for additional classes are much lower. For example, in Hungary, children with foreign citizenship study 'Hungarian language and literature' together with their Hungarian classmates for at least half of the time, and in the remaining time they take part in specific lessons of Hungarian as a foreign language. They have to learn Hungarian as a foreign language for at least two hours per week for as long as necessary. In Slovenia, lessons in the Slovenian language and culture in basic schools are normally available for one lesson ( 45 minutes) per week, or 35 lessons per year (which can be concentrated at the beginning) in the first year and in the second year, half of that number. In Finland, schools may apply for government subsidies for an additional three lessons of 45 minutes per week in the language of instruction (Finnish or Swedish), but are free to offer more.

Figure E14: Language learning support measures for migrant students in mainstream education, primary and lower secondary education, 2015/16


## Explanatory note

Only measures recommended/required by central education authorities or measures financially supported by central education authorities are shown. For example, mother tongue courses organised by embassies or other institutions set up by the country of origin of migrants are not considered.
For definitions of 'newly arrived migrant students' and 'language of schooling', see the Glossary.

## Country-specific notes

Belgium (BE nl): The measures only concern ISCED 2, schools have autonomy in ISCED 1.
Germany: Regulations vary between the Länder.
Estonia and Latvia: The central regulations do not specify whether the additional classes in the language of schooling should be organised during or outside the school hours.
Cyprus: Additional classes outside school hours can be organised only for ISCED 2.

In some countries, additional classes in the language of schooling are provided after normal school hours. For example, in Greece, after-school 'Tutorial Courses' (Frontistiriaka Tmimata) in secondary education are available for newly arrived migrant students who have been placed directly into mainstream classes, or have participated in 'Reception Classes' (Taxeis Ypodoxis), but continue to have difficulties with the language in the mainstream class. In Poland, additional classes in the language of schooling are organised outside the mainstream timetable. The school principal has the freedom to redesign the timetable to add up to five additional lessons of 45 minutes per week, including a minimum of two lessons in the language of schooling.

In some cases, when the numbers of migrant students are low, additional classes in the language of schooling may be offered in another school. This is currently the case in the Czech Republic.

Some countries provide individualised teaching or an individualised curriculum to facilitate the integration of newly arrived migrant students. For example, in Estonia, Basic Schools and Upper Secondary Schools Act provides migrant students with flexible options to study according to an individualised curriculum, while at the same time ensuring maximum integration with other students. In Italy, the class council may develop a Personalised Teaching Plan addressing the needs of individual or groups of migrant students within a class. These plans indicate all the measures to be put in place to facilitate inclusion and specify among other things the duration of additional classes in the language of schooling. In Portugal, students that according to the placement test (see Figure E12) reach only CEFR levels A1-B1 ('breakthrough'-'waystage') in Portuguese, follow the curriculum of Portuguese as Second Language instead of the mainstream curriculum for Portuguese (see more on CEFR in Council of Europe, 2001). In Serbia, an individual education plan is prepared for each newly arrived migrant student. In Norway, students attending primary or secondary school who have a mother tongue other than Norwegian or Sami have the right to 'adapted education' in Norwegian until they are sufficiently proficient in Norwegian to follow the normal school curriculum.

Some countries adapt assessment standards for newly arrived students. Slovakian central education authorities recommend that during the first school year in mainstream classes, newly arrived migrant students should be assessed on their knowledge in a given subject disregarding their command of the language. Similarly, in Slovenia, the methods, frequency and criteria for assessing newly arrived migrant students may be adjusted for two school years.

Teaching assistants may provide in-class support to help develop migrant students' language skills as well as aid their access to the curriculum. Often, bi-lingual teaching assistants speak the language of migrant students and can help to translate important words used in the classroom. They might also provide individual or small group additional support - either within or after school hours. Moreover, assistants that share the migration experience may work as mediators helping to reduce cultural and linguistic barriers. They can help to foster relations between pupils, their parents, and the school, as parents often do not speak the language of schooling. According to central regulations in several countries, schools may hire assistants to help newly arrived migrants or the authorities may allocate assistants to schools depending on the number of students in need of support. This is the case in Belgium (German-speaking Community), the Czech Republic, Denmark, Greece, Luxembourg, Austria, Poland, Finland and Sweden. In some other countries, schools may hire teaching assistants for language support under arrangements for school autonomy, but this is not explicitly stated by central authorities.

Several countries provide mother tongue tuition or bi-lingual subject teaching (mother tongue and language of schooling). Countries that support mother tongue tuition consider that fluency in the mother tongue increases the ability to learn and master the language of schooling and has a positive impact on the learner's cognitive skills in general. Mother tongue competency is also seen as an
instrument to recognise diverse linguistic capital and the value of cultural heritage (European Commission, 2016). In Austria, 2-6 weekly lessons (50 minutes) in the mother tongue following a set curriculum can be offered as an elective or optional subject. In Finland, schools may apply for government subsidies for two additional lessons of 45 minutes per week for mother tongue tuition. In Norway, pupils attending primary and secondary school who have a mother tongue other than Norwegian or Sami are entitled to mother tongue instruction, bilingual subject teaching, or both. The mother tongue instruction may be provided at a school other than that normally attended by the student. When mother tongue instruction and bilingual subject teaching cannot be provided by appropriate teaching staff, the municipality must, wherever possible, provide for other instruction adapted to the students' abilities.

As Figure E14 shows, most countries provide one or two types of language support for migrant students. The most common model of language support is through additional classes and individualised teaching. This combination is available in 15 European education systems. In several education systems, additional classes and assistant in class are available. According to Figure E14, additional classes in the language of schooling is the only measure available for migrant students in eight education systems.
Central education authorities in Finland and Sweden enable schools to provide the widest possible range of language support for migrant students. In Finland, they provide resources for schools not only to offer additional classes in the language of schooling within and outside school hours but also mother tongue tuition, support from teaching assistants as well as individualised teaching. In Sweden, the available measures include additional classes in the language of schooling within and outside school hours as well as mother tongue tuition, bilingual subject teaching, as well support from teaching assistants. The Czech Republic, Denmark, Greece, Austria, Slovenia and Turkey also provide a wide range of language support measures for migrant students.

## GLOSSARY

## I. DEFINITIONS

CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages): Framework for language learning, teaching and assessment developed by the Council of Europe. Its main aim is to facilitate transparency and comparability in the provision of language education and qualifications. The CEFR provides a comprehensive description of the competences necessary for communication in a foreign language, the related knowledge and skills as well as the different contexts for communication. The CEFR defines six levels of proficiency from 'basic user' to 'proficient user': A1 ('breakthrough'), A2 ('waystage'), B1 ('threshold'), B2 ('vantage'), C1 ('effective operational proficiency') and C2 ('mastery'). It enables the progress of foreign language learners and users to be measured (Council of Europe, 2001).

Certificate: Official proof of a qualification awarded to a student following completion of a particular stage or a full course of education or training. The award of certificates may be based on various forms of assessment; a final examination is not necessarily a prerequisite.

Children from migrant backgrounds: Children who attend school in a country other than their country of origin, or the country of origin of both their parents. These terms of reference encompass several legally distinct situations, including those of refugees, asylum seekers, children of migrant workers, children of third country nationals with long-term residency status, children of workers from third countries who are not long-term residents, children who are irregularly resident and children of immigrant origin who do not necessarily benefit from legal provisions relating specifically to education. This definition does not take account of linguistic minorities that have been settled in countries for over two generations.

Classical language: An ancient language such as Latin or classical Greek which is no longer spoken in any country and is therefore taught for purposes other than 'communication'. The teaching objectives may be to acquire a deeper knowledge of the roots of a modern language which emerged from the classical language in question, to read and understand original texts in ancient literature, and to become familiar with the civilisation which used the language. In some curricula, it is regarded as a - foreign language.

CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning): A general term to designate different types of bilingual or immersion education. Two types of CLIL have been defined based on the status of the languages used to teach non-language subjects (subjects other than languages and their literature/culture):

CLIL type A: Provision where some non-language subjects are taught through a language designated in the central curriculum as a foreign language. The number of non-language subjects taught through the foreign language may vary according to schools and countries. In some schools (case 1), all non-language subjects are taught through the foreign language. In others (case 2), some nonlanguage subjects are taught through the foreign language and others through the main language of schooling in the country. In this latter case, two languages are thus used to teach the non-language subjects of the curriculum.

CLIL type B: Provision where some non-language subjects are taught through a regional and/or minority language or a non-territorial language or a state language (in countries with more than one state language), and a second language, which may be any other language. Unlike CLIL type A (case 1), in CLIL type B schools, the non-language subjects are always taught through two languages. In a very few schools, in addition to these two languages, a third is used to teach non-language
subjects. The three languages include a minority and/or regional language, a state language and a foreign language.

Educational pathway: In some countries, students must choose a specialist area of study from a range of options at secondary level; for example, in some countries, they must choose between literary or scientific studies. In other countries, students must choose between different types of school, such as, for example, Gymnasium, Realschule, etc. in Germany. This concept only applies to mainstream schools. It does not attempt to describe very specific educational provision such as CLIL, experimental schools, music schools, etc.

Foreign language: A language described as such in the curriculum laid down by the central (or toplevel) education authorities. In some countries, foreign languages may be referred to as modern languages or the second or third language. The description used is based on an education-related definition, unrelated to the political status of a language. Thus certain languages regarded as regional or minority languages from a political perspective may be included in the curriculum as foreign languages. In the same way, certain classical languages may be considered as foreign languages in certain curricula. In some curricula, the wording 'modern languages' is used to clearly distinguish these languages from classical languages; in others, 'second or third language' is used as opposed to the 'first language', which may be used to describe the language of schooling in countries with more than one state language.

Four communication skills: The main communication skills in foreign language teaching: listening (listening comprehension), speaking (oral expression), reading (reading comprehension) and writing (written expression).

Generalist teacher: A teacher (usually at primary level) who is qualified to teach all (or almost all) subjects in the curriculum, including foreign languages. Such teachers may provide foreign language teaching irrespective of whether or not they have received training in the field.

Immigrant student: A student whose both parents were born abroad (OECD PISA definition).
Initial teacher education: Period of study and training during which prospective teachers attend academic subject-based courses and undertake professional training (either concurrently or consecutively) to acquire the necessary knowledge and skills to be a teacher. This period ends when prospective teachers are awarded their qualifications as teachers.

Inward teacher mobility: - Transnational mobility (co)funded by the central level (top-level) education authorities of the host country with a view to promoting the teaching of the host country language abroad. See also outward teacher mobility.

Language as a compulsory subject: Any language designated as a compulsory subject in the curriculum laid down by the central level (top-level) education authorities. The expression may be used to refer to situations where all students on a specific programme or in a specific grade must learn a language, or in the particular context of specific curricula for different educational pathways. Where students are not free to choose their language(s) of study, the language concerned is said to be a specific mandatory language.

Language as a core curriculum option: In some countries, the centrally determined curriculum requires schools to offer at least one foreign language as part of a set of optional subjects - as an entitlement. Students must choose at least one subject (which does not have to be a language) from this set of subjects.

Language of schooling: Language(s) that is (are) used to teach the curriculum and, more broadly, for communication inside the school as well as outside the school to stakeholders such as parents, education authorities, etc.

National test: Standardised tests/examinations set by central/top level public authorities and carried out under their responsibility. Standardised tests/examinations are any form of test that (a) requires all test takers to answer the same questions (or questions selected from a common bank of questions) and (b) is scored in a standard or consistent way. International tests or surveys such as SurveyLang are not within the scope, nor are tests designed at school level, even if they have been developed on the basis of a centrally designed framework of reference (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015c).

Newly arrived migrant students: Children and young adults, born outside their current country of residence to parents also born outside the host country who are of school age or below (according to the national regulations for compulsory education) and subsequently enter formal education in their host country (European Union, 2013).

Non-territorial language: A language used by nationals of the state which differs from the language or languages used by the rest of the state's population, but which, although traditionally used within the territory of the state, cannot be identified with a particular area thereof. (Definition based on the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages (Council of Europe, 1992)). For example, Romany is a non-territorial language.

Official language: A language used for legal and public administration purposes within a specified area of any given state. The official status can be limited to part of the state or extend over its entire territory. All state languages are official languages but not all languages with official language status are necessarily state languages (for example, Danish, with the status of official language in Germany, is a regional or minority language and not a state language).
Outward teacher mobility: Transnational mobility (co)funded by the central level (top-level) education authorities of the country where the teacher is employed. See also inward teacher mobility.

Phasing in: A process by which new legislation is gradually implemented so that those affected have time to adjust and prepare to meet its requirements.
Preparatory classes: Separate classes for newly arrived migrant students where they are given intensive language teaching and an adapted curriculum for other subjects with the intention of preparing them to move quickly into mainstream classes. They attend the classes for the entire school day for a limited period rather than being integrated directly into mainstream classes with other students. Depending on the country, the classes may be called 'introductory', 'transition' or 'reception' classes.

Regional or minority language: A language that is '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; it is different from the state language(s) of that state' (Council of Europe, 1992). As a general rule, these are languages of populations that have their ethnic roots in the areas concerned or have been settled in the regions concerned for generations. Minority/regional languages can have the status of an official language, but by definition this status will be limited to the area in which they are spoken.

Semi-specialist teacher: A teacher qualified to teach a group of at least three different subjects (foreign languages being one of them). For a semi-specialist foreign language teacher, this would include one or more foreign languages and at least two other subjects.

Specialist teacher: A teacher qualified to teach one or two different subjects (foreign languages being one of them). For a specialist language teacher, this would include either foreign languages only, or one or more foreign language(s) and one other subject.

Specific mandatory foreign language: A particular foreign language that all students are required to study (irrespective of their - educational pathway or type of school). The central (or top-level) education authorities decide which specific language must be studied.

State language: Any language with official status throughout an entire country. Any state language is an official language.

Students' notional age: In the school system, the normal age of students in a particular grade or level of education when early or late entry, grade repetition or other interruptions to schooling are not taken into account.

Top-level education authorities: The highest level of authority with responsibility for education in a given country, usually located at national (state) level. However, for Belgium, Germany, Spain and the United Kingdom, the Communautés, Länder, Comunidades Autónomas and the devolved administrations respectively are wholly responsible or share responsibilities with the state level for all or most areas relating to education. Therefore, these administrations are considered as the top level authority for the areas where they hold the responsibility, while for those areas for which they share the responsibility with the national (state) level, both are considered to be top level authorities.

Transnational mobility: Moving to a country other than the country of residence for workrelated/professional purposes. Journeys abroad to attend a conference or a workshop, to prepare a PhD or to work abroad in a school of the education system of origin are not included within the scope of the definition. Personal mobility - such as travels abroad during holidays for non-professional purposes - is also excluded.

## II. ISCED CLASSIFICATION

The International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) has been developed to facilitate comparisons of education statistics and indicators across countries on the basis of uniform and internationally agreed definitions. The coverage of ISCED extends to all organised and sustained learning opportunities for children, young people and adults, including those with special educational needs, irrespective of the institutions or organisations providing them or the form in which they are delivered. The first statistical data collection based on the new classification (ISCED 2011) took place in 2014 (text and definitions adopted from UNESCO, 1997, UNESCO/OECD/Eurostat, 2013 and UNESCO/UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2011).

## ISCED 0: Pre-primary education

Programmes at level 0 (pre-primary), defined as the initial stage of organised instruction, are designed primarily to introduce very young children to a school-type environment, i.e. to provide a bridge between the home and a school-based atmosphere. Upon completion of these programmes, children continue their education at level 1 (primary education).

Pre-primary education is school-based or centre-based and is designed for children aged at least 3 years.

## ISCED 1: Primary education

Primary education provides learning and educational activities typically designed to provide students with fundamental skills in reading, writing and mathematics (i.e. literacy and numeracy). It establishes a sound foundation for learning, a solid understanding of core areas of knowledge and fosters personal development, thus preparing students for lower secondary education. It provides basic learning with little specialisation, if any.

This level begins between 5 and 7 years of age, is compulsory in all countries and generally lasts from four to six years.

## ISCED 2: Lower secondary education

Programmes at ISCED level 2, or lower secondary education, typically build upon the fundamental teaching and learning processes which begin at ISCED level 1. Usually, the educational aim is to lay the foundation for lifelong learning and personal development that prepares students for further educational opportunities. Programmes at this level are usually organised around a more subjectoriented curriculum, introducing theoretical concepts across a broad range of subjects.

This level typically begins around the age of 11 or 12 and usually ends at age 15 or 16 , often coinciding with the end of compulsory education.

## ISCED 3: Upper secondary education

Programmes at ISCED level 3, or upper secondary education, are typically designed to complete secondary education in preparation for tertiary or higher education, or to provide skills relevant to employment, or both. Programmes at this level offer students more subject-based, specialist and indepth programmes than in lower secondary education (ISCED 2). They are more differentiated, with an increased range of options and streams available.

This level generally begins at the end of compulsory education. The entry age is typically age 15 or 16. Entry qualifications (e.g. completion of compulsory education) or other minimum requirements are usually needed. The duration of ISCED level 3 varies from two to five years.

## ISCED 4: Post-secondary non-tertiary education

Post-secondary non-tertiary programmes build on secondary education to provide learning and educational activities to prepare students for entry into the labour market and/or tertiary education. It typically targets students who have completed upper secondary (ISCED level 3) but who want to improve their skills and increase the opportunities available to them. Programmes are often not significantly more advanced than those at upper secondary level as they typically serve to broaden rather than deepen knowledge, skills and competencies. They are therefore pitched below the higher level of complexity characteristic of tertiary education.

## ISCED 5: Short-cycle tertiary education

Programmes at ISCED level 5 are short-cycle tertiary education, and are often designed to provide participants with professional knowledge, skills and competencies. Typically, they are practice-based and occupation-specific, preparing students to enter the labour market. However, these programmes may also provide a pathway to other tertiary education programmes.
Academic tertiary education programmes below the level of a Bachelor's programme or equivalent are also classified as ISCED level 5.

## ISCED 6: Bachelor's or equivalent level

Programmes at ISCED level 6 are at Bachelor's or equivalent level, which are often designed to provide participants with intermediate academic and/or professional knowledge, skills and competencies, leading to a first degree or equivalent qualification. Programmes at this level are typically theory-based but may include practical elements; they are informed by state of the art research and/or best professional practice. ISCED 6 programmes are traditionally offered by universities and equivalent tertiary educational institutions.

## ISCED 7: Master's or equivalent level

Programmes at ISCED level 7 are at Master's or equivalent level, and are often designed to provide participants with advanced academic and/or professional knowledge, skills and competencies, leading to a second degree or equivalent qualification. Programmes at this level may have a substantial research component but do not lead to the award of a doctoral qualification. Typically, programmes at this level are theory-based but may include practical components and are informed by state of the art research and/or best professional practice. They are traditionally offered by universities and other tertiary educational institutions.

## ISCED 8: Doctoral or equivalent level

Programmes at ISCED level 8 are at doctoral or equivalent level, and are designed primarily to lead to an advanced research qualification. Programmes at this ISCED level are devoted to advanced study and original research and are typically offered only by research-oriented tertiary educational institutions such as universities. Doctoral programmes exist in both academic and professional fields.

For more information on the ISCED classification, see http://uis.unesco.org/sites/default/files/documen ts/international-standard-classification-of-education-isced-2011-en.pdf [accessed March 2017].

## STATISTICAL DATABASES AND TERMINOLOGY

## The PISA 2015 international database

The PISA (Programme for International Student Assessment) is an international survey conducted under the auspices of the OECD to measure the performance levels of 15-year-old students in reading literacy, numeracy and scientific literacy. The survey is based on representative samples of 15-yearold students, who may either be in lower secondary or upper secondary education (ISCED 2 or 3), depending on the structure of the system. Besides measuring performance, the PISA international survey includes questionnaires to identify variables in the school and family context, which may shed light on their findings. All indicators cover both public schools and private schools, whether grant-aided or otherwise.

PISA surveys are conducted every three years. The first survey took place in 2000; the following rounds were conducted in 2003, 2006, 2009, 2012 and 2015.

Among the countries participating in the Eurydice Network, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Liechtenstein and Serbia have not taken part in the collection of data for PISA 2015.

The sampling procedure involved selecting schools and then students. It sought to offer each student the same probability of being selected irrespective of the size or location of the school he or she attended. For this purpose, schools were weighted prior to sampling in such a way that the probability that they would be selected was inversely proportional to their size.

Where data is taken to apply to the entire population of countries, it is essential to comply with certain strict requirements such as standard error analysis (measurement of sampling-related errors), as a result of which a perceptible difference between two items of data may be considered insignificant in statistical terms.

The PISA 2015 database is available at http://www.oecd.org/pisa/data/
The PISA 2015 questionnaires are available at https://nces.ed.gov/surveys/pisa/questionnaire.asp

## The TALIS 2013 database

TALIS (Teaching and Learning International Survey) is an international survey conducted under the auspices of the OECD that focuses on the working conditions of teachers and the learning environment in schools. The main topics covered are school leadership; teacher training; appraisal and feedback to teachers; teachers' pedagogical beliefs, attitudes and teaching practices; teachers' reported feeling of self-efficacy; their job satisfaction and the climate in the schools and classrooms in which they work; and lastly, teacher transnational mobility.

The survey mainly focuses on teachers in lower secondary education (ISCED 2). It is based on teacher questionnaires and school heads questionnaires. All indicators cover both public schools and private schools, whether grant-aided or otherwise.

The first edition of this survey was conducted in 2008 and the second in 2013. The OECD is currently preparing TALIS 2018.

Twenty-two countries of the Eurydice Network participated in the TALIS 2013 survey. However, only 19 collected data on the part of the teacher questionnaire related to teacher mobility, which is used in this report.

The sampling procedure involved selecting 200 schools per country and 20 teachers teaching at lower secondary level (ISCED 2).

Where data is taken to apply to the entire population of countries, it is essential to comply with certain strict requirements such as standard error analysis (measurement of sampling-related errors), as a result of which a perceptible difference between two items of data may be considered insignificant in statistical terms.

TALIS 2013 data is based on self-reporting and therefore consists of subjective information rather than observed practice. In addition, links between items tabled by statistical analysis does not imply causality between them. Moreover, being an international survey, cultural and linguistic issues may influence respondents' behaviour. Further information on the interpretation of the TALIS 2013 results is available in OECD report (OECD 2014, p. 29).

The TALIS 2013 database is available at http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?datasetcode=talis $2013 \% 20$
The TALIS 2013 questionnaires are available at http://www.oecd.org/edu/school/Questionnaires\ TALIS\ 2013.pdf

## Statistical terms

Standard errors: PISA 2015 and TALIS 2013 surveys, just like any other large-scale education surveys (OECD/PISA; IEA/PIRLS; IEA/TIMSS, etc.), only look at a representative sample of the target populations. Generally, an infinite number of possible samples exist for any given population. It follows that from one sample to another, estimates made for a population parameter (an average, a percentage, a correlation, etc.) can vary. The standard error associated with any estimation of a population parameter quantifies this sampling uncertainty. Based on this estimated parameter and its respective standard error, it is possible to construct the confidence interval that reflects by how much the value calculated from a sample may vary. Accordingly, supposing an estimated average of 50 and a standard error of 5 , the confidence interval, with a type 1 error of $5 \%$, is equal to [50-(1.96 $\times 5$ ); $50+(1.96 \times 5)$ ], i.e. approximately [40; 60]. Therefore, it may be said that there are only 5 chances out of 100 of being wrong if the population's average is said to be in this interval.

All the standard errors recorded in this report were calculated using resampling methods and following the methodology of various technical documents of the PISA and TALIS surveys.

The standard errors of the statistical tables are listed in Annexe 3.
Statistical significance: Refers to $95 \%$ confidence level. For example, a significant difference means that the difference is statistically significant from zero at $95 \%$ confidence level.

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# ANNEXE 1: COUNTRY DESCRIPTIONS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE PROVISION IN PRE-PRIMARY, PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION (2015/16) 

## Introduction

The purpose of these descriptions is to bring together in a single narrative pieces of information scattered throughout several indicators; more precisely, they summarise information in Section I of Chapter B and Figure B9 (of Section II). The descriptions are only concerned with foreign languages as either compulsory subjects or core curriculum options (see under 'language' in the Glossary) within the basic curriculum established by the top-level education authorities. Consequently, as their scope is limited, they do not seek to draw a comprehensive picture of foreign language provision in each country

These descriptions focus on general education. Only one short paragraph, at the end of the description, is dedicated to the provision of foreign languages as compulsory subjects for all students in Vocational Education and Training (VET). More specifically, it describes the number of years all VET students will have learnt one and, in some cases, two languages simultaneously as compulsory subjects during their entire school career, by the time they finish school. In other words, it does not specify the number of languages they study while specifically in VET. In addition, this short description does not provide specific information on the numerous individual tracks in VET.

Given the complexity of VET and the large number of pathways in some countries, only the programmes providing direct access to tertiary education (ISCED-P code '354') are considered. In addition, within this defined scope, the information is based on the most representative programmes, excluding those delivered in institutions dedicated to very specific fields (e.g. fine arts and performing arts). Adult education programmes, programmes falling under special needs education, or pathways with a very small number of students are also excluded. Within this scope, when vocational programmes are of different duration, the shortest one is considered to indicate the age of students at completion. For more details on the ISCED classification, please see the International Standard Classification of Education ISCED 2011 (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2012).

When the number of foreign languages learnt as compulsory subjects differs according to educational pathways or types of school, the highest number is mentioned in the text. This applies to secondary education in many countries where different educational pathways or types of school exist.

Students' ages correspond to students' notional age, i.e. students' age in the school system when late or early entry, grade retention or other interruptions to schooling are not taken into account. For information on the links between students' notional age and the structure of education, please refer to Eurydice's national structures at this address: https://webgate.ec.europa.eu/fpfis/mwikis/eurydice/imag es/0/05/192EN.pdf

Each country description usually starts with the age at which a foreign language starts being compulsory for all, which varies a lot between countries, and finishes with the age at which secondary education ends, which, in most cases, varies between 18 and 20 , depending on the country.

Finally, information is organised in a similar way in all country descriptions; common terminology is also used to facilitate understanding and comparison. Specific terms are defined in the Glossary.

## Belgium (BE fr)

All students start learning a foreign language as a compulsory subject from the age of 10, except in Brussels and in the Walloon communes with specific linguistic status where it starts at age 8. In Brussels, this language must be Dutch. This obligation lasts until students are 18 years old in general education. From the age of 14, all general education students may choose to learn a second foreign language, as all schools have to offer it as a core curriculum option.

Following the full implementation of the 2013 decree, when they finish school, all VET students will have learnt one foreign language as a compulsory subject for eight years in the Walloon region and ten years in Brussels and the Walloon communes with specific linguistic status.

## Belgium (BE de)

All students attending pre-primary education start learning French as a compulsory subject from the age of 3 . For the French-speaking minority residents in the German-speaking region, attending schools where French is the language of instruction, German is a compulsory language. English, compulsory for all, is introduced when students are 13. Students in general education have to learn these two languages until they are 18 years old. In secondary education, the highest number of foreign languages that students have to learn is not defined by official regulations, but is dependent on the selected pathway.

When they finish school, all VET students will have learnt one language as a compulsory subject for 15 years. The obligation for all VET students to learn two languages simultaneously will have lasted for one year.

## Belgium (BE nl)

All students start learning French as a compulsory subject from the age of 10. English, as a compulsory subject, is introduced when students are 13. Students in general education have to learn these two languages until they are 18 years old. In secondary education, the highest number of foreign languages that students have to learn is not defined by official regulations and depends on the selected pathway.

When they finish school, all VET students will have learnt one language as a compulsory subject for eight years. The obligation for all VET students to learn two languages simultaneously will have lasted for one year.

## Bulgaria

All students start learning a foreign language as a compulsory subject from the age of 8 . A second foreign language, compulsory for all, is introduced when students are 15. The obligation to learn two languages lasts until students are 19 years old in general education. It stops at the age of 17 for those in VET.

## Czech Republic

All students start learning a foreign language as a compulsory subject from the age of 8 . They must start learning a second foreign language between the ages of 11 and 13, no later than 13 years old. From that age, all students have to learn a second foreign language. Those in general education must all study two languages until they are 19 years old.

When they finish school, all VET students will have learnt one language for the same number of years as their counterparts in general education. The obligation for all VET students (by the time they finish school) to learn two foreign languages simultaneously will have lasted for two years.

## Denmark

All students start learning English as a compulsory subject from the age of 7. From the age of 11, all students have to learn a second foreign language. They must study at least two foreign languages, including English, until the age of 16. In addition, between the ages of 13 and 16, all students can choose to study a third foreign language. General education students must all study at least one foreign language until they are 19. In some educational pathways, they have to carry on studying two languages after the age of 16 until they are 19.

When they finish school all VET students will have learnt English as a compulsory subject for nine years. The obligation for all VET students to learn two foreign languages simultaneously will have lasted for five years.

## Germany

All students must learn a foreign language from the age of 8 . In six Länder, the starting age of the first foreign language as a compulsory subject is 6 . In the majority of Länder, this language must be English and, as a rule, it is either English or French. In the Gymnasium, all students have two foreign languages as compulsory subjects from age 12 to 16 . In the majority of Länder, this obligation starts from the age of 11 .

When they finish school, all VET students will have learnt one foreign language as a compulsory subject for eight years or ten years if they study in Länder where the first foreign language is obligatory from the age of 6 .

## Estonia

All students must start learning a foreign language as a compulsory subject between the ages of 7 and 9; the exact age is determined by schools themselves. A second foreign language, compulsory for all, is introduced when students are 10, 11 or 12, depending on the school. For students in general education, the obligation to learn two languages lasts until they are 19 years old.

When they finish school, all VET students will have learnt one language as a compulsory subject for the same number of years as those in general education. The obligation for all VET students to learn two languages simultaneously will have lasted for four years.

## Ireland

Foreign language learning is not compulsory. All students are taught the state languages: English and Irish. Central education authorities do not determine the entire content of the minimum education provision that schools must offer at secondary level. Therefore, all schools for students aged between 12 and 18 have some flexibility to design the school element of the core curriculum. Consequently, some schools may decide to put more emphasis on foreign languages.

## Greece

In 2015/16, all students started learning English as a compulsory subject from the age of 8 . Since 2016/17, the starting age is 6 for all students. A second foreign language, compulsory for all, is introduced when students are 10. The obligation to learn two languages lasts until students are 15 years old. At 15, one foreign language remains compulsory for all students until they reach 18. In addition, all students aged 17 can study a second language as a core curriculum option.

When they finish school, all VET students will have learnt two foreign languages as compulsory subjects for the same number of years as general education students.

## Spain

All students must start learning a foreign language as a compulsory subject from the age of 6 . In four Autonomous Communities (Cantabria, Castilla-La Mancha, Castilla y León, and Communidad Valenciana), the starting age of the first foreign language as a compulsory subject is 3 ; in two Autonomous Communities (Principado de Asturias and Canarias), it is 4. In some Autonomous Communities (Castilla-La Mancha, Communidad Valenciana, Principado de Asturias, Canarias, and La Rioja), this language must be English.

Between the ages of 12 and 18, all general education students may choose to learn a second foreign language, as all schools have to offer at least one foreign language as a core curriculum option. In some autonomous Communities, such as the Región de Murcia and the Canarias, this option is available from the age of 10 or 11 . Only in these two regions as well as in Cantabria and Galicia, the curriculum provides a second foreign language as a compulsory subject: it is compulsory from the age of 12 in Cantabria and Galicia and 10 in the Región de Murcia and the Canarias.

In addition, in the Autonomous Communities where there is a co-official language, all students must learn that language

When they finish school, all VET students will have learnt one language as a compulsory subject for at least 10 years or more, notably in the Autonomous Communities where students start learning the first language as a compulsory subject before the age of 6 .

## France

All students start learning a foreign language as a compulsory subject from the age of 6. A second foreign language, compulsory for all, is introduced when students are 13 . Since 2016/17, students must learn this second language from the age of 12 . The obligation to learn two languages lasts until students reach 18. At age 15, all students in general education have the opportunity to study a third language as a core curriculum option.

When they finish school, from 2016/17, all VET students will have learnt one foreign language for 12 years and two foreign languages for three years.

## Croatia

All students start learning a foreign language as a compulsory subject from the age of 7. This obligation lasts until students reach 19. In addition, all students between the ages of 10 and 15 may choose to learn an additional language as all schools have to offer one as a core curriculum option. At 15, students may choose educational pathways/types of school where they study two foreign languages as compulsory subjects until they reach 19.

When they finish school, all VET students will have learnt one foreign language for 12 years.

## Italy

All students start learning English as a compulsory subject from the age of 6 . From the age of 11 to 14, they all learn two languages as compulsory subjects. From 14 to 19 , there is only one foreign language compulsory for all students; however, they may choose educational pathways/types of school where they have to study up to three foreign languages until they are 19.

When they finish school, all VET students will have learnt one foreign language for 13 years and two foreign languages simultaneously for 3 years.

## Cyprus

According to the reform introduced in September 2015, all students attending pre-primary education start learning English as a compulsory subject from the age of 3 until they reach 18. French, as a compulsory subject for all, is introduced when students are 12. The obligation to learn French lasts until students are 16 ( 15 for VET students). The reform will be fully implemented by the end of the 2017/18 school year.

Also, according to this reform, students aged 16 to 18 in general education can choose a second foreign language as an option or take additional lessons in English. In 2015/16, though, all general education students, aged 15 to 18 still had to study two languages.

When they finish school, all VET students will have learnt English as a compulsory subject for 15 years and simultaneously English and French as compulsory subjects for three years.

## Latvia

All students start learning a foreign language as a compulsory subject from the age of 7. A second foreign language, compulsory for all, is introduced when students are 12. For general education students, the obligation to learn two languages lasts until they are 19 years old. Students in some educational pathways have to study three languages between 16 and 19.

When they finish school, all VET students will have learnt a foreign language as a compulsory subject for 13 years and simultaneously two languages as compulsory subjects for 4 years.

## Lithuania

All students start learning a foreign language as a compulsory subject from the age of 8 . A second foreign language, compulsory for all, is introduced when students are 12. The obligation to learn two languages lasts until students are 17 years old. After 17, one language only is compulsory until they reach 19. However, general education students may continue to learn two as all schools have to offer a second language as a core curriculum option to all students of these ages.

When they finish school, all VET students will have learnt one foreign language as a compulsory subject for 11 years and two foreign languages as compulsory subjects simultaneously for 5 years.

## Luxembourg

All students start learning German as a compulsory subject from the age of 6. At 7, all students start learning French as a compulsory subject. English becomes a compulsory language for all when students are 13. The obligation to learn all three languages lasts until students are 19. At 14, students choosing some pathways/types of school study a fourth foreign language as a compulsory subject until they are 19.

When they finish school, all VET students will have learnt one language as a compulsory subject for 12 years and a second one for 11 years.

## Hungary

All students start learning a foreign language as a compulsory subject from the age of 9 . This obligation lasts until students are 18. From age 10 to 18, students choosing some education pathways/types of school learn a second foreign language as a compulsory subject.

There is no VET programme within the defined scope.

## Malta

All students start learning English as a compulsory subject from the age of 5. A second foreign language, compulsory for all, is introduced when students are 11. This obligation to learn two
languages (one of which must be English) lasts until students reach 16. In addition, from the age of 13 , students on some educational pathways have to learn a third foreign language until they are 16.

After 16, all schools must offer at least seven languages as core curriculum options. Students undertaking the matriculation certificate exam must study at least one of these languages.

There is no VET programme within the defined scope.

## The Netherlands

All students have to start learning English between the ages of 6 and 12. In practice, most schools make it compulsory for all students from the age of 10 . From the age of 12 , all students start learning a second foreign language. For all students in general education, the obligation to learn two foreign languages simultaneously lasts until they reach the end of secondary education. Students in some educational pathways have to learn a third language from the age of 12 .

There is no national curriculum for post-16 VET programs.

## Austria

All students start learning a foreign language as a compulsory subject from the age of 6 . From the age of 12 , students may choose educational pathways/types of school where they have to study two foreign languages and where, from age 14, they have to study three until the age of 18 . From the age of 14 until they reach 18, all students in general education must study two foreign languages. In addition, a foreign language as core curriculum option must be offered to all general education students between 15 and 18 years of age.

When they finish school, all VET students will have learnt one foreign language as a compulsory subject for 11 years.

## Poland

In 2015/16, all students start learning a foreign language as a compulsory subject in obligatory preprimary education from the age of 5. A second compulsory foreign language is introduced when students are 12. The obligation to learn two languages lasts until the end of upper secondary education (general education students are 18 and VET students are 19). Since 2016/17, following changes in the starting age of compulsory education, all students learn one foreign language from age 6 , and two from age 13 until the end of upper secondary education (general education students are 19 and VET students are 20). In addition, from the school year 2017/18, foreign language learning will be obligatory for children receiving pre-school education.

In 2015/16, when they finish school, all VET students will have, in theory, learnt one foreign language as a compulsory subject for 14 years and two languages simultaneously for 7 years.

## Portugal

The reform making English a compulsory subject for all students aged 8 was fully implemented in 2015/16; since 2016/17, it also applies to students aged 9. From age 12, they all have to learn a second foreign language until they reach age 15 . From 15 to 17 , only one foreign language (which can be English, the second language students have learnt or a third language) remains compulsory for all students. From age 17 to 18, all general education students may choose to learn a foreign language as all schools have to offer it as a core curriculum option.

When they finish school, all VET students will have learnt one foreign language for 9 years. The obligation for all VET students to learn two foreign languages simultaneously will have lasted for 3 years.

## Romania

All students start learning a foreign language as a compulsory subject from the age of 6 . A second foreign language, compulsory for all, is introduced when students are 11. The obligation to learn two languages simultaneously lasts until students are 19 years old.

When they finish school, all VET students will have learnt one foreign language as a compulsory subject for 13 years and two languages simultaneously for 8 years.

## Slovenia

According to the reform fully implemented in 2016/17, all students start learning a foreign language as a compulsory subject from the age of 7 . The extended curriculum provides all students with the opportunity to learn a second foreign language from the age of 9 until they reach 15 . In addition, from the age of 12 , all students have the opportunity to learn another language as a core curriculum option until the age of 15 . From that age, all general education students must study two foreign languages until they reach 19. Some educational pathways have three languages as compulsory subjects.

When they finish school, all VET students will have learnt one foreign language as a compulsory subject for 12 years.

## Slovakia

All students start learning English as a compulsory subject from the age of 8. A reform introduced in September 2015 has changed the starting age of the second foreign language as a compulsory subject: before the reform, it was 11; after the reform, which will be fully implemented in 2019/20, it will be 15. Instead, all students will have the opportunity to learn this second language as a core curriculum option from the age of 12.

When they finish school, all VET students will have learnt one foreign language as a compulsory subject for 11 years.

## Finland

All students start learning a foreign language as a compulsory subject from the ages of 7,8 or 9 , depending on the choice of individual schools. A second foreign language, compulsory for all, is introduced when students are 13. The obligation to learn two languages lasts until students are 19 years old. One of these two languages must be the second state language (Swedish or Finnish depending on students' choice). In addition, all schools must provide two additional languages as core curriculum options for general education students aged 16 to 19.

When they finish school, all VET students will have learnt one foreign language as a compulsory subject for 12, 11, 10 years depending on when they started, and two languages simultaneously for 6 years.

## Sweden

All students must start learning English between 7 and 10. Schools can choose when they begin teaching it. However, all students usually start learning it when they are 7. In addition, all students have the opportunity to learn a second language as all schools must offer two languages as core curriculum options. Again, schools can decide when they introduce them. In practice, students start learning a second language around 12. From 16 to 19, one foreign language is compulsory for all, but all schools must provide three languages as options in addition to English. During these years, students may choose educational pathways/types of school where they study two foreign languages as compulsory subjects.

When they finish school, all VET students will have learnt one foreign language as a compulsory subject for the same number of years as their counterparts in general education.

## United Kingdom - England,

All students start learning a foreign language as a compulsory subject from the age of 7 . From the age of 14, learning a language is no longer compulsory for students. However, all schools must offer students aged 14 to 16 at least one language as an optional subject. Academies do not have to follow the National Curriculum, but most make a similar offer.

There is no compulsory common core curriculum for students aged 16-18.
When they finish school, all students in VET programmes will have learnt one foreign language as a compulsory subject for the same number of years as their counterparts in general education.

## United Kingdom - Wales

All students start learning a foreign language as a compulsory subject from the age of 11. From the age of 14 , learning a language is no longer compulsory for students. The local curriculum offer from which students (aged 14 to 16) choose a number of exam subjects is set out as 'learning pathways'. 'Languages, with arts, media and culture' forms one 'learning domain'. Pupils must be offered subjects in each of the five existing learning domains.

In addition, all students must learn Welsh from the age of 5 until they reach 16.
There is no compulsory common core curriculum for students aged 16-18.
When they finish school, all students in VET programmes will have learnt one foreign language as a compulsory subject for the same number of years as their counterparts in general education.

## United Kingdom - Northern Ireland

All students start learning a foreign language as a compulsory subject from the age of 11 . From the age of 14 , learning a language is no longer compulsory for students. From age 14 to 16 , all students have the opportunity to learn a foreign language as all schools must provide at least one course in an official language of the European Union (other than English, and Irish in Irish-speaking schools).

There is no compulsory common core curriculum for students aged 16-18.
When they finish school, all students in VET programmes will have learnt one foreign language as a compulsory subject for the same number of years as their counterparts in general education.

## United Kingdom - Scotland

There is no statutory curriculum in Scotland. Scottish local authorities have the autonomy to devise their own curricular models based around the central tenets of the Curriculum for Excellence, within which the study of at least one modern language is an entitlement for all pupils.

The Scottish government is currently promoting a language policy model aimed at ensuring that young people learn two languages in addition to their mother tongue. It is expected that pupils aged 5 will begin learning one foreign language and start a second one at the age of 9 . The learning of these two languages should be an entitlement for all students until they reach 15. Full implementation of this policy is scheduled to be complete by 2021.

When they finish school, all students in VET programmes will have learnt one foreign language as a compulsory subject for the same number of years as their counterparts in general education.

## Bosnia and Herzegovina

All students start learning a foreign language as a compulsory subject from the age of 8 . At the age of 11, they all start learning a second language as a compulsory subject. All students must learn two languages until they are 15 and one language until they are 19. At 15, students may choose educational pathways where learning two languages remains compulsory until they reach 19 years of age.

When they finish school, all VET students will have learnt one foreign language as a compulsory subject for 11 years and two languages simultaneously for 4 years.

## Switzerland

All students start learning a foreign language as a compulsory subject from the age of 8 . At the age of 10 , they all start learning a second language as a compulsory subject. All students in general education must learn two languages until they reach 18. Students cannot choose the languages they study: depending on the Cantons they live in, they have to study two of the following languages: German, French, English, Italian or Romansh. From 14, students may choose educational pathways where they have to study three languages.

From the age of 12, all students in general education have the opportunity to study a third language as all schools have to provide a third national language as an option. All students aged 15-18 may choose to study additional foreign languages, as all schools have to provide three foreign languages as options in addition to the two languages provided as compulsory subjects.

When they finish school, all VET students will have learnt one foreign language as a compulsory subject for 7 years and two foreign languages simultaneously for 5 years,

## Iceland

All students start learning English as a compulsory subject from the age of 9 . At 10, all students start learning Danish as a second compulsory language. Students may choose Swedish or Norwegian instead of Danish, subject to certain conditions. A third language, compulsory for all, is introduced when students are 17. The obligation for all to learn three languages simultaneously only lasts one year. Students may, however, choose educational pathways which require them to start learning the third foreign language from the age of 16. Furthermore, some educational pathways require students to study up to four foreign languages from the age of 17. After the age of 18, only one language is compulsory for all students until they reach 20 years of age.

There is no VET programme as defined by the scope of this report.

## Liechtenstein

All students start learning English as a compulsory subject from the age of 6. From 15 to 18, all students in general education have to study at least English and French. Depending on the educational pathway/type of school they chose, students might learn more foreign languages as compulsory subjects. This is the case of students aged 11, who may chose pathways/types of education where they have to study both English and French (in the Gymnasium and Realschule); or can study these two languages (in the Oberschule). From the age of 14 until they reach 18, students may choose pathways/types of school where they study up to four foreign languages as compulsory subjects.

The school-based part of the VET programmes is provided in Switzerland.

## Montenegro

All students start learning a foreign language as a compulsory subject from the age of 9 . At the age of 12, they must start learning a second foreign language. All students in general education continue learning two languages simultaneously until they reach 19.

When they finish school, all VET students will have learnt one foreign language as a compulsory subject for 10 years and two languages simultaneously for 3 years, i.e. between 12 and 15 .

## Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia

All students start learning English as a compulsory subject from the age of 6 . At the age of 11, they must start learning a second foreign language. All students continue learning two languages simultaneously until they reach 19.

When they finish school, all VET students will have learnt one foreign language as a compulsory subject for 13 years and two languages simultaneously for 7 years.

## Norway

All students start learning English as a compulsory subject from the age of 6 . From 13 to 16, all students may choose to learn a second foreign language as this second language must be offered as a core curriculum option by all schools to all students of these ages. From 16, all students must study simultaneously two languages until they reach 17. General education students aged 17 must study one foreign language. From 17 until 19, only students in some educational pathways have to study two languages.

There is no VET programme as defined by the scope of this report.

## Serbia

All students start learning a foreign language as a compulsory subject from the age of 6 . At the age of 10, they all must start learning a second foreign language. All students in general education continue learning two languages simultaneously until they reach 18.

When they finish school, all VET students will have learnt one foreign language as a compulsory subject for 12 years and two languages simultaneously for 4 years, i.e. between 10 and 14 .

## Turkey

All students start learning a foreign language as a compulsory subject from the age of 7. This obligation lasts until students reach 18. At 14, all students in general education must study two languages until they reach 18.

When they finish school, all VET students will have learnt one foreign language as a compulsory subject for 11 years.

ANNEXE 2: CLIL IN PRIMARY AND GENERAL SECONDARY EDUCATION

|  | Instruction through different languages and the ISCED levels concerned |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Language status | Languages | ISCED Level |
| BE fr | 1 state language + 1 foreign language | French + English | 1-3 |
|  | 1 state language + 1 other state language | French + Dutch; German | 1-3 |
| BE de | 1 state language +1 other state language | German + French | 1-3 |
| BE nl | 1 state language +1 foreign language | Dutch + English | 2-3 |
|  | 1 state language +1 other state language | Dutch + French; German | 2-3 |
| BG | 1 state language + 1 foreign language | Bulgarian + English; French; German; Italian; Russian; Spanish | 3 |
| CZ | 1 state language +1 foreign language | Czech + English; German | 1-3 |
|  |  | Czech + French; Italian; Spanish | 2-3 |
|  | 1 state language + <br> 1 regional/minority language with official language status | Czech + Polish | 1-3 |
| DK | 1 state language +1 foreign language | Danish + English | 1-3 |
| DE | 1 state language +1 foreign language | German + Chinese; Czech; Dutch; English; French; Greek; Italian; Polish; Portuguese; Romanian; Spanish; Turkish | (:) |
|  | 1 state language + <br> 1 regional/minority language with official language status | German + Danish; Sorbian | (:) |
| EE | 1 state language + 1 foreign language | Estonian + German | 2-3 |
|  |  | Estonian + English | 3 |
|  | 1 state language + <br> 1 regional/minority language without official language status | Estonian + Russian | 1-3 |
|  | 1 regional/minority language without official language status +1 foreign language | Russian + English | 1 |
| IE | 1 state language +1 other state language | English + Irish | 1-3 |
| EL | (-) | (-) | $(-)$ |
| ES | 1 state language +1 foreign language | Spanish + English; French; German; Italian; Portuguese | 1-3 |
|  | 1 state language + <br> 1 regional/minority language with official language status | Spanish + Basque; Catalan; Galician; Occitan; Valencian | 1-3 |
|  | 1 state language +1 regional/minority language with official language status +1 foreign language | ```Spanish + Basque + English; French Spanish + Catalan + English; French Spanish + Galician + English; French; Italian; Portuguese Spanish + Valencian + English; French; Italian; Portuguese``` | 1-3 |
|  |  | Spanish + Catalan + Portuguese | 2-3 |
| HR | 1 state language + <br> 1 regional/minority language with official language status | Croatian + Hungarian | 1-2 |
|  |  | Croatian + Czech | 3 |
| FR | 1 state language + 1 foreign language | French + Arabic; Chinese; Danish; Dutch; English; German; Italian; Japanese; Polish; Portuguese; Russian; Spanish; Swedish | 1-3 |
|  |  | French + Vietnamese | 2-3 |
|  | 1 state language + <br> 1 regional/minority language without official language status | French + Alsatian; Basque; Breton; Catalan; Corsican; Creole; Gallo; Melanesian; Mosellan; Occitan-Langue d'Oc; Polynesian languages | 1-3 |
| IT | 1 state language + 1 foreign language | Italian + English; French; German; Spanish | 3 |
|  | 1 state language + <br> 1 regional/minority language with official language status | Italian + French; Friulian; German; Ladin; Slovenian | 1-3 |
| CY | 1 state language +1 foreign language | Greek + English | 1 |

Key Data on Teaching Languages at School in Europe - 2017

|  | Instruction through different languages and the ISCED levels concerned |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Language status | Languages | ISCED Level |
| LV | 1 state language +1 foreign language | Latvian + English; German | 3 |
|  | 1 state language + <br> 1 regional/minority language without official language status | Latvian + Polish; Russian; Ukrainian | 1-3 |
|  |  | Latvian + Belarusian | 1-2 |
|  |  | Latvian + Estonian | 1 |
| LT | 1 state language + 1 foreign language | Lithuanian + English; French; German | 1-3 |
|  | 1 state language + 1 regional/minority language without official language status | Lithuanian + Belarusian; Polish; Russian | 1-3 |
| LU | 1 state language +1 other state language | Luxembourgish + German; French | 1-3 |
| HU | 1 state language +1 foreign language | Hungarian + English; German | 1-3 |
|  |  | Hungarian + Chinese | 1-2 |
|  |  | Hungarian + French; Italian; Russian; Slovak; Spanish | 3 |
|  | 1 state language + 1 regional/minority language with official language status | Hungarian + Boyash; Bulgarian; Croatian; German; Greek; Polish; Romanian; Romany; Serbian; Slovak; Slovenian | 1-3 |
|  |  | Hungarian + Rusyn | 2-3 |
| MT | 1 state language + 1 other state language | Maltese + English | 1-3 |
| NL | 1 state language +1 foreign language | Dutch + English | 1-3 |
|  |  | Dutch + German | 2-3 |
| AT | 1 state language +1 foreign language | German + Arab; Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian (BKS); English | 1-3 |
|  |  | German + Spanish | 1-2 |
|  |  | German + French | 1 |
|  |  | German + Chinese; Polish | 2 |
|  | 1 state language + <br> 1 regional/minority language with official language status | German + Croatian; Hungarian; Slovenian | 1-3 |
|  |  | German + Czech; Slovak | 1-2 |
| PL | 1 state language +1 foreign language | Polish + English; French; German; Italian; Spanish | 2-3 |
|  |  | Polish + Russian | 2 |
|  | 1 state language + 1 regional/minority language with official language status | Polish + Ukrainian | 1-3 |
|  |  | Polish + German | 1-2 |
| PT | 1 state language + 1 foreign language | Portuguese + French | 2-3 |
|  |  | Portuguese + English | 1 |
| RO | 1 state language +1 foreign language | Romanian + English; French; German; Spanish | 3 |
| SI | 1 state language + <br> 1 regional/minority language with official language status | Slovenian + Hungarian | 1-3 |
| SK | 1 state language +1 foreign language | Slovak + English; French | 1-3 |
|  |  | Slovak + German; Italian; Russian; Spanish | 2-3 |
|  | 1 state language + <br> 1 regional/minority language with official language status | Slovak + German; Romany | 1-2 |
|  |  | Slovak + Rusyn | 1 |
|  |  | Slovak + Ukrainian | 2 |
| Fl | 1 state language +1 foreign language | Finnish + English; French; German; Russian | 1-3 |
|  | 1 state language + 1 other state language | Finnish + Swedish | 1-2 |
|  | 1 state language + <br> 1 non-territorial language with official language status | Finnish + Sami | 1-3 |

Instruction through different languages and the ISCED levels concerned

|  | Language status | Languages | ISCED Level |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| SE | 1 state language + 1 foreign language | Swedish + English | 1-3 |
|  | 1 state language + 1 regional/minority language with official language status | Swedish + Finnish | 1-3 |
|  | 1 state language + <br> 1 non-territorial language with official language status | Swedish + Sami | 1-3 |
| UK-ENG | 1 state language + 1 foreign language | English + Chinese; French; Italian; Spanish | 1-3 |
| UK-WLS | 1 state language + 1 regional/minority language with official language status | English + Welsh | 1-3 |
| UK-NIR | 1 state language + <br> 1 regional/minority language without official language status | English + Irish | 1-3 |
| UK-SCT | 1 state language + 1 regional/minority language with official language status | English + Scottish Gaelic | 1-3 |
| BA | (-) | (-) | $(-)$ |
| CH | 1 state language + 1 foreign language | German + English; French | 3 |
|  | 1 state language + 1 other state language | French + German <br> German + French <br> Italian + German <br> Romansh + German | 1-3 |
|  |  | French + Italian <br> German + Italian <br> German + Romansh | 3 |
| IS | (-) | (-) | $(-)$ |
| LI | 1 state language + 1 foreign language | German + English | 1+3 |
| ME | (-) | (-) | $(-)$ |
| MK | 1 state language + 1 foreign language | македонски + English; French | 3 |
|  | 1 regional/minority language with official language status + 1 foreign language | Albanian + French | 3 |
| NO | 1 state language +1 foreign language | Norwegian + English | 2-3 |
|  |  | Norwegian + French; German | 3 |
| RS | 1 state language +1 foreign language | Serbian + English; German; Russian | 1-3 |
|  |  | Serbian + French | 2-3 |
|  |  | Serbian + Italian | 3 |
| TR | (-) | (-) | $(-)$ |

## Explanatory note

See the explanatory note to Figure B14.
Within a country, a single target language may be part of different CLIL programmes (operating with different curricula). In Italy for example, German may be taught as a foreign language or as a regional/minority language.

## ANNEXE 3: DETAILED STATISTICAL DATA

Proportion of 15-year old students who mainly speak a different language at home to the language of schooling, 2003, 2015 (Data for Figure A2)

|  | EU | BE fr | BE de | BE nl | BG | CZ | DK | DE | EE | IE | EL | ES | FR | HR | IT | CY | LV | LT | LU |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| \% | 9.0 | 17.7 | 17.9 | 15.5 | 8.8 | 4.7 | 7.7 | 11.8 | 5.8 | 7.3 | 5.8 | 18.7 | 8.5 | 3.1 | 5.9 | 20.2 | 10.1 | 5.4 | 84.5 |
| S.E. | 0.18 | 1.39 | 2.03 | 1.20 | 0.93 | 0.32 | 0.35 | 0.77 | 0.59 | 0.68 | 0.61 | 0.98 | 0.64 | 0.35 | 0.42 | 0.32 | 0.89 | 0.46 | 0.43 |
| $\triangle$ | 3.0 | 10.5 | -0.5 | -7.4 | (:) | 3.8 | 3.8 | 4.1 | (:) | 4.8 | 2.6 | 2.9 | 1.8 | (:) | 3.9 | (:) | 1.7 | (:) | -8.0 |
| S.E. | 0.27 | 1.56 | 2.49 | 1.75 |  | 0.38 | 0.59 | 0.96 |  | 0.86 | 0.72 | 1.76 | 0.98 |  | 0.48 |  | 1.42 |  | 0.59 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | UK | UK- |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | HU | MT | NL | AT | PL | PT | RO | SI | SK | FI | SE | (1) | SCT | CH | IS | ME | MK | NO | TR |
| \% | 2.3 | 87.7 | 7.2 | 18.8 | 1.1 | 2.8 | 2.7 | 7.6 | 8.8 | 6.0 | 15.7 | 9.3 | 4.5 | 26.1 | 5.6 | 3.1 | 5.8 | 9.1 | 7.2 |
| S.E. | 0.23 | 0.51 | 0.61 | 0.95 | 0.16 | 0.28 | 0.28 | 0.47 | 0.64 | 0.52 | 1.07 | 0.73 | 0.48 | 1.19 | 0.37 | 0.24 | 0.35 | 0.59 | 1.03 |
| $\Delta$ | 1.7 | (:) | -7.4 | 9.8 | $\otimes$ | 1.4 | (:) | (:) | 4.9 | 3.1 | 8.2 | 4.6 | 2.4 | 14.0 | 4.0 | (:) | (:) | 3.9 | 5.4 |
| S.E. | 0.26 |  | 1.42 | 1.20 |  | 0.35 |  |  | 1.00 | 0.57 | 1.28 | 0.98 | 0.61 | 1.38 | 0.43 |  |  | 0.80 | 1.26 |

$\Delta$ Difference from $2003 \otimes$ Insufficient sample (fewer than 30 students)
Source: Eurydice, on the basis of PISA 2015 and 2003.
UK (1) = UK-ENG/WLS/NIR

## Explanatory note

Data calculated on the basis of questions 'International Language at Home' (ST022Q01TA) in PISA 2015 and 'Language at home' (ST16Q01(31)) in PISA 2003. The category 'Language of test' (1) is used as a proxy for speaking the same language at home as at school.
When considering differences between 2003 and 2015, values that are significantly ( $\mathrm{p}<.05$ ) different from zero are indicated in bold.
For further information on PISA, see Statistical Databases and Terminology.
Proportion of immigrant and non-immigrant 15-year-old students by language spoken at home, 2015
(Data for Figure A3)

| \% | EU | BE fr | BE de | BE nl | BG | CZ | DK | DE | EE | IE | EL | ES | FR | HR | IT | CY | LV | LT | LU |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| A | 5.5 | 10.6 | $\otimes$ | 8.4 | $\otimes$ | 2.2 | 5.4 | 9.2 | 1.4 | 7.1 | 3.8 | 5.8 | 5.4 | $\otimes$ | 4.6 | 6.0 | 1.3 | $\otimes$ | 39.8 |
| S.E. | 0.16 | 1.18 |  | 0.67 |  | 0.25 | 0.31 | 0.68 | 0.23 | 0.68 | 0.38 | 0.61 | 0.45 |  | 0.40 | 0.25 | 0.18 |  | 0.67 |
| B | 5.6 | 11.6 | 14.1 | 5.6 | 0.5 | 1.2 | 5.3 | 7.7 | 8.6 | 7.3 | 6.9 | 5.3 | 7.7 | 9.9 | 3.4 | 5.3 | 3.7 | 1.3 | 12.2 |
| S.E. | 0.16 | 0.95 | 1.70 | 0.58 | 0.09 | 0.18 | 0.38 | 0.45 | 0.43 | 0.46 | 0.53 | 0.39 | 0.64 | 0.58 | 0.28 | 0.31 | 0.35 | 0.12 | 0.36 |
| C | 3.4 | 6.9 | 9.9 | 6.6 | 7.9 | 2.4 | 2.2 | 2.4 | 4.4 | $\otimes$ | 1.8 | 12.7 | 2.9 | 2.1 | 1.3 | 14.0 | 8.8 | 4.8 | 44.9 |
| S.E. | 0.09 | 0.51 | 1.72 | 0.82 | 0.90 | 0.22 | 0.24 | 0.24 | 0.46 |  | 0.45 | 0.78 | 0.32 | 0.27 | 0.17 | 0.31 | 0.83 | 0.46 | 0.63 |
| D | 85.5 | 70.8 | 68.3 | 79.4 | 91.0 | 94.2 | 87.1 | 80.7 | 85.6 | 85.4 | 87.4 | 76.3 | 83.9 | 87.1 | 90.7 | 74.8 | 86.1 | 93.5 | 3.2 |
| S.E. | 0.26 | 1.84 | 2.37 | 1.34 | 0.93 | 0.40 | 0.56 | 1.02 | 0.71 | 0.97 | 0.90 | 1.06 | 1.10 | 0.66 | 0.54 | 0.44 | 0.95 | 0.45 | 0.24 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | UK | UK- |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| \% | HU | MT | NL | AT | PL | PT | RO | SI | SK | FI | SE | (1) | SCT | CH | IS | ME | MK | NO | TR |
| A | $\otimes$ | 3.0 | 5.1 | 15.1 | $\otimes$ | 1.9 | $\otimes$ | 5.7 | $\otimes$ | 3.1 | 11.8 | 7.7 | 3.5 | 20.2 | 3.4 | $\otimes$ | $\otimes$ | 7.1 | $\otimes$ |
| S.E. |  | 0.28 | 0.48 | 0.91 |  | 0.22 |  | 0.44 |  | 0.40 | 0.81 | 0.70 | 0.46 | 0.95 | 0.31 |  |  | 0.54 |  |
| B | 2.2 | 1.9 | 5.6 | 5.2 | $\otimes$ | 5.5 | $\otimes$ | 2.1 | $\otimes$ | $\otimes$ | 5.5 | 10.0 | 2.1 | 10.8 | $\otimes$ | 4.9 | 1.5 | 5.0 | $\otimes$ |
| S.E. | 0.23 | 0.23 | 0.61 | 0.39 |  | 0.32 |  | 0.23 |  |  | 0.49 | 0.68 | 0.29 | 0.55 |  | 0.26 | 0.20 | 0.55 |  |
| C | 1.8 | 84.4 | 1.7 | 3.6 | $\otimes$ | $\otimes$ | 2.7 | 1.7 | 7.7 | 2.8 | 3.6 | 1.4 | $\otimes$ | 5.5 | 2.1 | 2.2 | 4.9 | 1.8 | 6.8 |
| S.E. | 0.22 | 0.52 | 0.22 | 0.25 |  |  | 0.28 | 0.15 | 0.59 | 0.31 | 0.52 | 0.15 |  | 0.56 | 0.29 | 0.24 | 0.32 | 0.19 | 1.01 |
| D | 95.5 | 10.6 | 87.6 | 76.1 | 98.8 | 91.8 | 96.9 | 90.5 | 91.1 | 93.2 | 79.1 | 80.9 | 93.4 | 63.4 | 93.8 | 92.2 | 93.1 | 86.2 | 92.4 |
| S.E. | 0.33 | 0.49 | 1.05 | 1.16 | 0.17 | 0.42 | 0.31 | 0.50 | 0.62 | 0.54 | 1.39 | 1.05 | 0.49 | 1.35 | 0.39 | 0.33 | 0.39 | 1.00 | 1.01 |

A Immigrant students not speaking the language of test at home

B Immigrant students speaking the language of test at home

C Non-immigrant students not speaking the language of test at home

D Non-immigrant students speaking the language of test at home
$\otimes$ Insufficient sample (fewer than 30 students or 5 schools with valid data or too much missing data)
Source: Eurydice, on the basis of PISA 2015.
UK (1) = UK-ENG/WLS/NIR

## Explanatory note

Data calculated on the basis of question 'International Language at Home' (ST022Q01TA). The category 'Language of test' (1) is used as a proxy for speaking the same language at home as at school.
'Index Immigration status' (IMMIG) categories 'Second-Generation' (2) and 'First-Generation' (1) are merged to form a category 'Immigrant students'.
For further information on PISA, see Statistical Databases and Terminology.
Proportion of 15-year-old students attending schools where more than $25 \%$ of students do not speak the language of schooling at home (Data for Figure A4)

|  | EU | BE fr | BE de | BE nl | BG | CZ | DK | DE | EE | IE | EL | ES | FR | HR | IT | CY | LV | LT | LU |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\%$ | 9.7 | 20.6 | $\otimes$ | 18.1 | 11.2 | 1.6 | 4.4 | 15.1 | 4.7 | 3.6 | 5.0 | 27.3 | 9.1 | $\otimes$ | 2.3 | 18.9 | 10.0 | 5.6 | 97.2 |
| S.E. | 0.51 | 3.78 |  | 2.75 | 2.05 | 0.58 | 0.66 | 2.13 | 1.36 | 1.49 | 1.89 | 1.70 | 1.79 |  | 0.87 | 0.10 | 1.60 | 1.03 | 0.04 |


|  | HU | MT | NL | AT | PL | PT | RO | SI | SK | FI | SE | UK <br> (1) | $\begin{aligned} & \text { UK- } \\ & \text { SCT } \end{aligned}$ | CH | IS | ME | MK | NO | TR |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| \% | $\otimes$ | 100.0 | 5.7 | 23.3 | $\otimes$ | $\otimes$ | 0.0 | 4.7 | 10.7 | 4.1 | 18.6 | 8.8 | $\otimes$ | 44.3 | $\otimes$ | $\otimes$ | $\otimes$ | 5.4 | 8.6 |
| S.E. |  | 0.00 | 1.40 | 1.79 |  |  | 0.00 | 0.49 | 1.28 | 0.99 | 2.55 | 2.25 |  | 3.43 |  |  |  | 1.51 | 1.94 |

$\otimes \quad$ Insufficient sample (fewer than 30 students or 5 schools with valid data)
Source: Eurydice, on the basis of PISA 2015.
UK (1) = UK-ENG/WLS/NIR

## Explanatory note

Data calculated on the basis of question 'International Language at Home' (ST022Q01TA). The category 'Language of test' (1) is used as a proxy for speaking the same language at home as at school.
'Index Immigration status' (IMMIG) categories 'Second-Generation' (2) and 'First-Generation' (1) are merged to form a category 'Immigrant students'.
For further information on PISA, see Statistical Databases and Terminology.
Trends in the proportion of students learning foreign languages in primary education, by number of languages (ISCED 1), 2005, 2014 (Data for Figures C1a and C2)

| \% |  | EU | BE fr | BE nl | BG | CZ | DK | DE | EE | IE | EL | ES | FR | HR | IT | CY | LV | LT |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\geq 2 \mathrm{FL}$ | 2014 | 4.6 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 1.3 | 0.8 | $(-)$ | 1.2 | 32.6 | (-) | 28.7 | 5.8 | 1.7 | 18.7 | 2.3 | 8.1 | 14.7 | 0.3 |
|  | 2005 | 2.7 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.6 | 2.3 | (:) | (:) | 26.2 | 0.0 | (:) | 4.3 | (:) | (:) | 1.8 | (:) | 1.2 | 0.1 |
| 1 FL | 2014 | 79.2 | 49.8 | 26.8 | 81.5 | 72.2 | 57.0 | 65.2 | 45.2 | (-) | 52.5 | 93.7 | 97.2 | 81.1 | 97.6 | 91.9 | 59.3 | 73.6 |
|  | 2005 | 64.6 | 56.2 | 33.9 | 65.9 | 44.2 | (:) | (:) | 53.3 | 4.6 | (:) | 87.1 | (:) | (:) | 98.0 | (:) | 55.8 | 60.3 |
| 0 FL | 2014 | 16.3 | 50.2 | 73.0 | 17.2 | 27.0 | 43.0 | 33.6 | 22.2 | (-) | 18.8 | 0.5 | 1.0 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 26.0 | 26.1 |
|  | 2005 | 32.5 | 43.8 | 66.1 | 33.5 | 53.5 | (:) | (:) | 20.5 | 95.4 | (:) | 8.6 | (:) | (:) | 0.2 | 44.4 | 42.9 | 39.6 |
| \% |  | LU | HU | MT | NL | AT | PL | PT | RO | SI | SK | FI | SE | UK | IS | LI | MK | NO |
| $\geq 2 \mathrm{FL}$ | 2014 | 83.5 | 1.4 | 3.3 | (:) | 2.1 | 11.0 | 0.4 | 1.4 | 0.5 | 5.5 | 13.3 | 9.5 | (:) | 17.6 | 0.0 | 0.7 | (-) |
|  | 2005 | 82.9 | (:) | 0.0 | 0.0 | 4.1 | (:) | 0.0 | 0.7 | 0.0 | 2.2 | 14.1 | 13.5 | 0.0 | 16.2 | (:) | (:) | (:) |
| 1 FL | 2014 | 16.5 | 57.7 | 96.7 | 62.1 | 97.8 | 86.8 | 35.8 | 81.8 | 47.9 | 80.1 | 55.3 | 77.3 | (:) | 55.2 | 100.0 | 99.3 | 100.0 |
|  | 2005 | 17.1 | (:) | 100.0 | 33.3 | 93.7 | (:) | 34.7 | 57.5 | 11.9 | 47.3 | 56.9 | 67.1 | 40.1 | 30.8 | (:) | (:) | 100.0 |
| 0 FL | 2014 | (-) | 40.9 | 0.0 | (:) | 0.1 | 2.3 | 63.8 | 16.7 | 51.6 | 14.4 | 31.4 | 13.2 | (:) | 27.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | (-) |
|  | 2005 | 0.0 | (:) | 0.0 | 66.7 | 2.2 | (:) | 65.3 | 41.8 | 88.1 | 50.5 | 28.9 | 19.4 | 59.9 | 53.0 | (:) | (:) | 0.0 |

Source: Eurydice, on the basis of Eurostat/UOE data [educ_uoe_lang02] (last update: 17/02/2017).

## Explanatory note

Breaks in the time series other than those reported in the Country-specific notes (see Chapter C) may have occurred in some countries between 2010 and 2014 due to changes in data gathering methodology.
EU average data for 2005 is based on 27 Member States.
Proportion of students learning at least one foreign language in primary education, by age (ISCED 1), 2014 (Data for Figure C1b)

| \% | BE fr | BE nl | CZ | DE | EE | ES | CY | LT | LU | HU | MT | AT | PT | RO | SI | FI | IS | LI | NO |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 7 years | 16.8 | 2.8 | 41.2 | 34.0 | 31.9 | 99.4 | 100.0 | 7.2 | 92.8 | 41.5 | 100.0 | 99.8 | 0.0 | 81.2 | 0.6 | 6.8 | 36.3 | 100.0 | 100. |
| 8 years | 35.9 | 5.7 | 69.3 | 67.3 | 44.2 | 99.5 | 100.0 | 96.0 | 99.8 | 47.2 | 100.0 | 99.9 | 0.0 | 52.3 | 1.0 | 12.0 | 57.6 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| 9 years | 40.1 | 7.7 | 96.1 | 91.1 | 87.5 | 99.5 | 100.0 | 98.6 | 100.0 | 64.8 | 99.7 | 99.9 | 0.7 | 93.9 | 100.0 | 99.2 | 89.3 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| 10 years | 88.6 | 66.8 | 97.6 | 89.9 | 99.4 | 99.6 | 100.0 | 98.6 | 100.0 | 92.4 | 99.7 | 100.0 | 84.2 | 98.5 | 100.0 | 99.2 | 98.6 | 100.0 | 100.0 |

Source: Eurydice, on the basis of Eurostat/UOE data (last update: September 2016).

## Explanatory note

Participation in the data collection by age is on a voluntary basis. For this reason, fewer education systems are covered.
Figures slightly higher than 100.0 \% have been cut to $100.0 \%$.
See also the country-specific note in Chapter C.

Trends in the proportion of students learning foreign languages in lower secondary education, by number of languages (ISCED 2), 2005, 2014 (Data for Figures C3 and C4)

|  | \% | EU | BE fr | BE nl | BG | CZ | DK | DE | EE | IE | EL | ES | FR | HR | IT | CY | LV | LT |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\geq 2 \mathrm{FL}$ | 2014 | 59.7 | 0.0 | 50.3 | 17.0 | 57.3 | 82.8 | 39.1 | 96.3 | 7.9 | 94.0 | 45.7 | 55.3 | 55.2 | 98.4 | 88.9 | 72.3 | 80.1 |
|  | 2005 | 46.7 | 0.7 | 48.1 | 23.4 | 5.8 | 99.4 | (:) | 83.4 | 12.0 | 94.3 | 40.5 | 49.2 | (:) | 43.9 | (:) | 60.7 | 77.5 |
| 1 FL | 2014 | 38.9 | 99.3 | 49.6 | 82.8 | 40.8 | 17.2 | 58.1 | 2.9 | 81.8 | 6.0 | 54.3 | 44.4 | 44.6 | 1.6 | 11.0 | 25.9 | 17.3 |
|  | 2005 | 52.0 | 99.2 | 47.5 | 74.7 | 91.5 | 0.6 | (:) | 16.5 | 75.6 | 5.5 | 58.6 | 50.5 | (:) | 56.1 | (:) | 37.6 | 21.2 |
| 0 FL | 2014 | 1.4 | 0.7 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 1.9 | $(-)$ | 2.8 | 0.8 | 10.3 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 1.7 | 2.6 |
|  | 2005 | 1.2 | 0.2 | 4.3 | 1.9 | 2.7 | 0.0 | (:) | 0.1 | 12.3 | 0.2 | 0.9 | 0.3 | (:) | 0.0 | 0.0 | 1.7 | 1.4 |
|  | \% | LU | HU | MT | NL | AT | PL | PT | RO | SI | SK | FI | SE | UK | IS | LI | MK | NO |
| $\geq 2 \mathrm{FL}$ | 2014 | 100.0 | 6.3 | 94.3 | 74.3 | 9.5 | 93.7 | 85.4 | 95.6 | 56.3 | 80.6 | 98.5 | 77.9 | (:) | 97.6 | 100.0 | 98.1 | 71.2 |
|  | 2005 | 100.0 | (:) | 95.1 | 79.2 | 9.3 | (:) | 88.8 | 95.0 | 24.9 | 12.6 | 97.4 | 72.1 | 0.0 | 98.7 | (:) | (:) | (:) |
| 1 FL | 2014 | $(-)$ | 90.2 | 5.7 | 22.8 | 90.5 | 4.7 | 11.7 | 4.2 | 43.7 | 17.4 | 1.0 | 22.1 | (:) | 1.6 | 0.0 | 1.9 | 28.8 |
|  | 2005 | 0.0 | (:) | 4.9 | 20.8 | 90.4 | (:) | 10.5 | 3.7 | 73.3 | 86.4 | 2.0 | 27.9 | 99.6 | 0.6 | (:) | (:) | (:) |
| 0 FL | 2014 | (-) | 3.5 | 0.0 | 2.9 | 0.1 | 1.7 | 2.9 | 0.2 | 0.0 | 2.0 | 0.5 | 0.0 | (:) | 0.8 | 0.0 | 0.0 | $(-)$ |
|  | 2005 | 0.0 | (:) | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.3 | (:) | 0.7 | 1.4 | 1.8 | 1.0 | 0.6 | 0.0 | 0.4 | 0.7 | (:) | (:) | 0.0 |

Source: Eurydice, on the basis of Eurostat/UOE data [educ_uoe_lang02] (last update: 17/02/2017).

## Explanatory note

Breaks in the time series other than those reported in the Country-specific notes (see Chapter C) may have occurred in some countries between 2010 and 2014 due to changes in data gathering methodology.
EU average data for 2005 is based on 27 Member States.

Trends in the proportion of students learning foreign languages in general upper secondary education, by number of languages (ISCED 3), 2005, 2014 (Data for Figures C5a and C6a)

| \% |  | EU | BE fr | BE nl | BG | CZ | DK | DE | EE | IE | EL | ES | FR | HR | IT | CY | LV | LT |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\geq 2 \mathrm{FL}$ | 2014 | 51.2 | 78.3 | 99.8 | 74.1 | 93.8 | 46.0 | 63.7 | 96.6 | 6.5 | 2.4 | 26.0 | 98.6 | 93.7 | 22.7 | 80.0 | 80.9 | 40.6 |
|  | 2005 | 62.2 | 79.1 | 99.0 | 76.9 | 100.0 | 67.3 | (:) | 80.9 | 8.9 | 6.7 | 28.1 | 89.6 | 90.6 | 20.8 | (:) | 74.1 | 55.0 |
| 1 FL | 2014 | 39.6 | 21.7 | 0.0 | 25.6 | 1.4 | 42.2 | 36.1 | 2.9 | 80.9 | 96.9 | 71.6 | 1.3 | 6.3 | 74.9 | 18.0 | 18.8 | 58.3 |
|  | 2005 | 33.3 | 20.9 | 0.0 | 21.4 | 0.0 | 28.5 | (:) | 19.1 | 72.8 | 92.2 | 68.5 | 10.3 | 9.4 | 65.9 | (:) | 24.9 | 44.1 |
| 0 FL | 2014 | 9.3 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.3 | 4.8 | 11.9 | 0.3 | 0.5 | 12.6 | 0.8 | 2.4 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 2.4 | 2.0 | 0.3 | 1.0 |
|  | 2005 | 4.6 | 0.0 | 1.0 | 1.7 | 0.0 | 4.2 | (:) | 0.0 | 18.3 | 1.1 | 3.3 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 13.3 | 0.0 | 1.0 | 0.9 |
| \% |  | LU | HU | MT | NL | AT | PL | PT | RO | SI | SK | FI | SE | UK | IS | LI | MK | NO |
| $\geq 2 \mathrm{FL}$ | 2014 | 100.0 | 48.0 | 66.9 | 69.5 | 66.4 | 68.7 | 6.6 | 99.1 | 96.1 | 98.8 | 99.2 | 80.4 | 5.4 | 59.7 | 96.8 | 52.7 | 35.1 |
|  | 2005 | 100.0 | (:) | 14.0 | 100.0 | (:) | (:) | 17.1 | 91.8 | 95.0 | 99.3 | 99.7 | 92.6 | 6.6 | 67.8 | (:) | (:) | (:) |
| 1 FL | 2014 | (-) | 51.3 | 33.1 | 30.5 | 33.2 | 28.4 | 63.4 | 0.9 | 2.0 | 1.2 | 0.8 | 19.6 | 43.6 | 27.2 | 3.2 | 47.3 | 31.0 |
|  | 2005 | 0.0 | (:) | 67.2 | 0.0 | (:) | (:) | 38.0 | 8.2 | 3.0 | 0.7 | 0.3 | 7.3 | 53.5 | 21.9 | (:) | (:) | (:) |
| 0 FL | 2014 | $(-)$ | 0.7 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.4 | 2.9 | 30.0 | 0.0 | 1.9 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 51.0 | 13.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 33.9 |
|  | 2005 | 0.0 | (:) | 18.7 | 0.0 | (:) | (:) | 44.9 | 0.0 | 1.9 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 40.0 | 10.4 | (:) | (:) | (:) |

Source: Eurydice, on the basis of Eurostat/UOE data [educ_uoe_lang02] (last update: 17/02/2017).

## Explanatory note

Breaks in the time series other than those reported in the Country-specific notes (see Chapter C) may have occurred in some countries between 2010 and 2014 due to changes in data gathering methodology.
EU average data for 2005 is based on 27 Member States.

Trends in the proportion of students learning foreign languages in vocational upper secondary education, by number of languages (ISCED 3), 2005, 2014 (Data for Figures C5b and C6b)

| \% |  | EU | BE fr | BE nl | BG | CZ | DK | DE | EE | IE | EL | ES | FR | HR | IT | CY | LV | LT |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\geq 2 \mathrm{FL}$ | 2014 | 34.5 | 16.2 | 67.2 | 47.3 | 33.6 | 5.4 | 0.9 | 52.5 | (:) | 0.1 | 0.1 | 29.8 | 28.6 | 47.1 | 11.8 | 47.4 | 13.2 |
|  | 2005 | 32.9 | 21.0 | 69.2 | 46.4 | 27.6 | 0.0 | (:) | 83.9 | 2.2 | 1.4 | 3.6 | 10.3 | 20.3 | 39.6 | (:) | (:) | 14.6 |
| 1 FL | 2014 | 44.5 | 39.1 | 30.2 | 47.7 | 61.0 | 15.0 | 33.6 | 15.4 | (:) | 55.1 | 20.6 | 68.5 | 66.3 | 50.6 | 87.9 | 45.1 | 61.8 |
|  | 2005 | 59.0 | 37.8 | 17.6 | 21.9 | 67.5 | 94.0 | (:) | 16.1 | 90.9 | 78.8 | 96.4 | 87.9 | 77.6 | 55.7 | (:) | (:) | 64.1 |
| 0 FL | 2014 | 21.0 | 44.7 | 2.5 | 5.0 | 5.4 | 79.6 | 65.5 | 32.2 | (:) | 44.9 | 79.3 | 1.7 | 5.1 | 2.4 | 0.3 | 7.5 | 24.9 |
|  | 2005 | 7.4 | 41.2 | 13.2 | 31.7 | 4.8 | 6.0 | (:) | 0.0 | 6.9 | 19.7 | 0.0 | 1.7 | 2.1 | 4.6 | 0.0 | (:) | 21.3 |


|  | \% | LU | HU | MT | NL | AT | PL | PT | RO | SI | SK | FI | SE | UK | IS | LI | MK | NO |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\geq 2 \mathrm{FL}$ | 2014 | 71.1 | 0.7 | 0.0 | 13.0 | 21.9 | 67.9 | 8.4 | 95.5 | 30.8 | 59.2 | 88.1 | 5.6 | $(-)$ | 13.4 | (-) | (:) | 0.1 |
|  | 2005 | 62.0 | (:) | 0.0 | (:) | (:) | (:) | 28.7 | 30.5 | 36.6 | 31.6 | (:) | 11.2 | $(-)$ | 23.3 | (-) | (:) | (:) |
| 1 FL | 2014 | 28.9 | 73.6 | 100.0 | 62.1 | 76.8 | 27.4 | 74.8 | 4.0 | 63.9 | 40.7 | 8.4 | 94.3 | $(-)$ | 26.8 | (-) | (:) | 54.6 |
|  | 2005 | 27.4 | (:) | 1.4 | (:) | (:) | (:) | 36.5 | 62.0 | 58.5 | 67.9 | (:) | 87.5 | $(-)$ | 23.4 | (-) | (:) | (:) |
| 0 FL | 2014 | (-) | 25.7 | 0.0 | 24.8 | 1.3 | 4.7 | 16.8 | 0.4 | 5.4 | 0.2 | 3.5 | 0.1 | $(-)$ | 59.8 | (-) | (:) | 45.2 |
|  | 2005 | 10.6 | (:) | 98.6 | (:) | (:) | (:) | 34.8 | 7.6 | 4.8 | 0.5 | (:) | 1.3 | $(-)$ | 53.3 | (-) | (:) | (:) |

Source: Eurydice, on the basis of Eurostat/UOE data [educ_uoe_lang02] (last update: 17/02/2017).

## Explanatory note

Breaks in the time series other than those reported in the Country-specific notes (see Chapter C) may have occurred in some countries between 2010 and 2014 due to changes in data gathering methodology.
EU average data for 2005 is based on 27 Member States.

Average number of foreign languages learnt per student, primary and secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2014 (Data for Figure C7)



Source: Eurydice, on the basis of Eurostat/UOE data [educ_uoe_lang03] (last update: 21/12/2016).

## Explanatory note

See also the Country-specific notes in Chapter C.

Foreign languages learnt by most students and proportion of students by language learnt, primary and secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2014 (Data for Figure C8)

| \% | EU | BE fr | BE nl | BG | CZ | DK | DE | EE | IE | EL | ES | FR | HR | IT | CY | LV | LT |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ISCED 1 | EN | NL | FR | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | (-) | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN |
|  | 79.4 | 37.2 | 27.0 | 73.9 | 72.3 | 57.0 | 62.3 | 70.1 | (-) | 80.7 | 99.1 | 92.7 | 91.2 | 99.0 | 99.8 | 72.0 | 73.0 |
| ISCED 2 | EN | NL | FR | EN | EN | EN | (EN) | EN | FR | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN |
|  | 97.3 | 53.7 | 99.9 | 87.2 | 97.1 | 100.0 | (97.8) | 97.3 | 60.0 | 98.1 | 100.0 | 98.6 | 97.6 | 100.0 | 99.9 | 96.8 | 97.4 |
| ISCED 3 | EN | EN | FR | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | FR* | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN |
|  | 85.2 | 67.3 | 93.4 | 85.3 | 89.1 | 55.3 | 62.9 | 86.5 | 58.0* | 81.3 | 80.0 | 98.4 | 90.5 | 98.0 | 91.6 | 87.7 | 88.0 |
| \% | LU | HU | MT | NL | AT | PL | PT | RO | SI | SK | FI | SE | UK | IS | LI | MK | NO |
| ISCED 1 | DE | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | (:) | EN | EN | EN | EN |
|  | 100.0 | 40.3 | 100.0 | 62.1 | 99.6 | 94.8 | 35.9 | 69.3 | 47.0 | 82.1 | 66.0 | 86.8 | (:) | 73.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| ISCED 2 | DE FR | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | (:) | EN | FR EN | EN | EN |
|  | 100.0 | 69.3 | 100.0 | 95.2 | 99.8 | 97.1 | 95.4 | 99.4 | 99.7 | 95.9 | 99.4 | 100.0 | (:) | 99.2 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| ISCED 3 | FR | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | EN | FR* | EN | EN | EN | EN |
|  | 85.6 | 73.1 | 100.0 | 73.7 | 98.9 | 90.7 | 72.4 | 99.2 | 93.7 | 92.2 | 97.1 | 99.9 | 26.0* | 59.7 | 100.0 | 99.2 | 49.9 |

Source: Eurydice, on the basis of Eurostat/UOE data [educ_uoe_lang01] (last update: 21/12/2016).

## Explanatory note

Languages other than English are shaded in the table.
In brackets, data from 2013. With asterisk, data for general ISCED 3 only.
See also the Country-specific notes in Chapter C.

Proportion of students learning English in primary and secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2014 (Data for Figure C9)

| \% | EU | BE fr | BE nl | BG | CZ | DK | DE | EE | IE | EL | ES | FR | HR | IT | CY | LV | LT |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ISCED 1 | 79.4 | 11.5 | 0.1 | 73.9 | 72.3 | 57.0 | 62.3 | 70.1 | $(-)$ | 80.7 | 99.1 | 92.7 | 91.2 | 99.0 | 99.8 | 72.0 | 73.0 |
| ISCED 2 | 97.3 | 44.0 | 50.3 | 87.2 | 97.1 | 100.0 | (97.8) | 97.3 | (-) | 98.1 | 100.0 | 98.6 | 97.6 | 100.0 | 99.9 | 96.8 | 97.4 |
| ISCED 3 | 85.2 | 67.3 | 85.2 | 85.3 | 89.1 | 55.3 | 62.9 | 86.5 | (-) | 81.3 | 80.0 | 98.4 | 90.5 | 98.0 | 91.6 | 87.7 | 88.0 |
| \% | LU | HU | MT | NL | AT | PL | PT | RO | SI | SK | FI | SE | UK | IS | LI | MK | NO |
| ISCED 1 | 0.0 | 40.3 | 100.0 | 62.1 | 99.6 | 94.8 | 35.9 | 69.3 | 47.0 | 82.1 | 66.0 | 86.8 | $(-)$ | 73.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| ISCED 2 | 54.0 | 69.3 | 100.0 | 95.2 | 99.8 | 97.1 | 95.4 | 99.4 | 99.7 | 95.9 | 99.4 | 100.0 | $(-)$ | 99.2 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| ISCED 3 | 72.1 | 73.1 | 100.0 | 73.7 | 98.9 | 90.7 | 72.4 | 99.2 | 93.7 | 92.2 | 97.1 | 99.9 | $(-)$ | 59.7 | 100.0 | 99.2 | 49.9 |

Source: Eurydice, on the basis of Eurostat/UOE data [educ_uoe_lang01] (last update: 21/12/2016).
The second most learnt foreign language and proportion of students by language learnt, primary and secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2014 (Data for Figure C10)

| \% | EU | BE fr | BE nl | BG | CZ | DK | DE | EE | IE | EL | ES | FR | HR | IT | CY | LV | LT |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ISCED 1 | DE\|FR | EN | EN | RU | DE | $(-)$ | FR | EE | (-) | FR | FR | DE | DE | DE | FR | RU | DE |
|  | 3.7 | 11.5 | 0.1 | 5.9 | 1.2 | (-) | 3.7 | 22.7 | (-) | 16.1 | 5.3 | 5.5 | 20.0 | 1.9 | 2.1 | 10.9 | 0.5 |
| ISCED 2 | FR | EN | EN | RU | DE | DE | FR | RU | DE | FR | FR | ES | DE | FR | FR | RU | RU |
|  | 33.7 | 44.0 | 50.3 | 17.9 | 41.7 | 73.6 | 24.3 | 64.7 | 21.4 | 48.5 | 41.1 | 37.8 | 43.8 | 67.7 | 88.1 | 60.4 | 66.7 |
| ISCED 3 | (FR) | NL | EN | DE | DE | DE | FR | RU | (DE) | FR | FR | ES | DE | FR | FR | RU | RU |
|  | (23.0) | 58.2 | 85.2 | 28.4 | 38.3 | 18.1 | 12.8 | 54.4 | (16.5) | 3.9 | 18.8 | 56.3 | 35.0 | 26.2 | 33.3 | 51.5 | 28.3 |
| \% | LU | HU | MT | NL | AT | PL | PT | RO | SI | SK | FI | SE | UK | IS | LI | MK | NO |
| ISCED 1 | FR | DE | IT | (:) | SL | DE | FR | FR | DE | SK | SV | ES | (:) | DA | 0.0 | DE | 0.0 |
|  | 83.5 | 20.1 | 1.5 | (:) | 0.7 | 6.2 | 0.3 | 13.2 | 1.8 | 6.8 | 4.5 | 5.2 | (:) | 17.3 | 0.0 | 0.4 | 0.0 |
| ISCED 2 | DE [FR | DE | $1 T$ | FR | FR | DE | FR | FR | DE | DE | SV | ES | (:) | DA | FR EN | DE | ES |
|  | 100.0 | 31.1 | 59.8 | 57.2 | 5.3 | 69.0 | 64.7 | 84.6 | 47.8 | 55.2 | 92.3 | 43.9 | (:) | 96.6 | 100.0 | 48.0 | 32.0 |
| ISCED 3 | DE | DE | $1 T$ | DE | FR | DE | FR | FR | DE | DE | SV | ES | (ES) | DA | FR | FR | ES |
|  | 81.0 | 42.2 | 36.1 | 14.0 | 19.2 | 55.5 | 6.7 | 87.0 | 39.3 | 52.8 | 87.8 | 27.0 | (13.5) | 28.7 | 96.8 | 25.2 | 12.6 |

Source: Eurydice, on the basis of Eurostat/UOE data [educ_uoe_lang01] (last update: 21/12/2016).

## Explanatory note

In brackets, data for general upper secondary education only.
See also the Country-specific notes in Chapter C.
Proportion of students learning foreign languages other than English, French, German and Spanish, primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2014 (Data for Figure C11)

| \% | BE fr | BG | CZ |  | E | HR |  | Y | LV | LT | MT | AT | SI | SK | FI | IS |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ISCED 1 | NL | (:) | (:) | RU | EE | (:) |  | :) | RU | (:) | (:) | (:) | (:) | (:) | (:) | DA |
|  | 37.2 | (:) | (:) | 13.3 | 22.7 | (:) |  | :) | 10.9 | (:) | (:) | (:) | (:) | (:) | (:) | 17.3 |
| ISCED 2 | NL | RU | RU | RU | EE | IT |  | :) | RU | RU | IT | (:) | (:) | RU | SV | DA |
|  | 53.7 | 17.9 | 11.8 | 64.7 | 21.3 | 11.6 |  | :) | 60.4 | 66.7 | 59.8 | (:) | (:) | 21.2 | 92.3 | 96.6 |
| ISCED 3 | NL | RU | RU | RU | EE | IT | IT | RU | RU | RU | IT | IT | IT | RU | SV | DA |
|  | 78.7 | 23.8 | 11.5 | 65.8 | 16.8 | 24.4 | 16.5 | 13.4 | 57.4 | 32.7 | 41.6 | 16.1 | 12.3 | 14.0 | 87.8 | 29.7 |

Source: Eurydice, on the basis of Eurostat/UOE data [educ_uoe_lang01] (last update: 21/12/2016).

## Explanatory note

The Figure only takes into account languages learnt by more than $10 \%$ of students.
Each student learning a foreign language is counted once for each language learnt. In other words, students learning more than one language are counted as many times as the number of languages learnt.
See also the Country-specific notes in Chapter C.

Trends in the proportion of students learning English in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2005, 2014 (Data for Figure C12)

|  | \% | EU | BE fr | BE nl | BG | Cz | DK | DE | EE | IE | EL | ES | FR | HR | IT | CY | LV | LT |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ISCED 1 | 2014 | 79.4 | 11.5 | 0.1 | 73.9 | 72.3 | 57.0 | 62.3 | 70.1 | (-) | 80.7 | 99.1 | 92.7 | 91.2 | 99.0 | 99.8 | 72.0 | 73.0 |
|  | 2005 | 60.7 | 10.7 | 0.0 | 53.5 | 34.8 | (:) | 47.1 | 68.8 | $(-)$ | 88.7 | 90.9 | (:) | 72.0 | 95.9 | 55.4 | 55.0 | 57.8 |
| ISCED 2 | 2014 | 97.3 | 44.0 | 50.3 | 87.2 | 97.1 | 100.0 | (97.8) | 97.3 | (-) | 98.1 | 100.0 | 98.6 | 97.6 | 100.0 | 99.9 | 96.8 | 97.4 |
|  | 2005 | 89.9 | 34.5 | 48.4 | 64.1 | 71.7 | 100.0 | 94.8 | 92.9 | (-) | 99.0 | 98.4 | 95.9 | 85.1 | 89.1 | 98.6 | 96.2 | 88.7 |
| ISCED 3 general | 2014 | 94.1 | 91.6 | 99.8 | 90.7 | 95.0 | 82.1 | 86.8 | 97.6 | (-) | 94.4 | 97.5 | 99.8 | 99.5 | 97.8 | 90.2 | 97.8 | 95.3 |
|  | 2005 | 91.2 | 90.2 | 99.0 | 83.1 | 98.1 | 82.6 | 93.8 | 92.6 | (-) | 94.5 | 95.3 | (:) | 98.4 | 85.1 | 89.1 | 93.7 | 80.2 |


| \% |  | LU | HU | MT | NL | AT | PL | PT | RO | SI | SK | FI | SE | UK | IS | LI | MK | NO |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ISCED 1 | 2014 | 0.0 | 40.3 | 100.0 | 62.1 | 99.6 | 94.8 | 35.9 | 69.3 | 47.0 | 82.1 | 66.0 | 86.8 | $(-)$ | 73.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
|  | 2005 | 0.0 | 28.5 | 100.0 | 33.3 | 97.4 | 50.7 | 34.2 | 35.2 | 11.1 | 35.6 | 68.1 | 80.6 | $(-)$ | 47.0 | (:) | 21.9 | 100.0 |
| ISCED 2 | 2014 | 54.0 | 69.3 | 100.0 | 95.2 | 99.8 | 97.1 | 95.4 | 99.4 | 99.7 | 95.9 | 99.4 | 100.0 | $(-)$ | 99.2 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
|  | 2005 | 52.9 | 54.3 | 100.0 | (:) | 99.1 | 72.0 | 98.3 | 93.1 | 93.1 | 65.2 | 99.2 | 100.0 | $(-)$ | 99.3 | (:) | 92.7 | 100.0 |
| ISCED 3 general | 2014 | 92.1 | 83.1 | 100.0 | 95.5 | 99.4 | 94.6 | 65.2 | 99.3 | 98.2 | 99.0 | 99.9 | 100.0 | $(-)$ | 72.2 | 100.0 | 99.2 | 43.9 |
|  | 2005 | 96.7 | 73.0 | 65.6 | 100.0 | (:) | 96.3 | 49.9 | 94.2 | 98.8 | 97.3 | 99.7 | 100.0 | $(-)$ | 77.2 | (:) | (:) | (:) |

Source: Eurydice, on the basis of Eurostat/UOE data [educ_uoe_lang01] (last update: 21/12/2016).

## Explanatory note

Breaks in the time series other than those reported in the Country-specific notes (see Chapter C) may have occurred in some countries between 2010 and 2014 due to changes in data gathering methodology.
EU average data for 2005 is based on EU27. In brackets, data for general upper secondary education only.

Trends in the proportion of students learning French in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2005, 2014 (Data for Figure C13)

|  | \% | EU | BE fr | BE nl | BG | Cz | DK | DE | EE | IE | EL | ES | FR | HR | IT | CY | LV | LT |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ISCED 1 | 2014 | 3.7 | $(-)$ | 27.0 | 1.2 | 0.1 | (-) | 3.7 | 1.6 | (-) | 16.1 | 5.3 | $(-)$ | 0.6 | 0.8 | 2.1 | 1.0 | 0.2 |
|  | 2005 | 4.1 | (-) | 33.9 | 2.0 | 0.6 | (:) | 4.3 | 1.3 | 2.5 | 1.6 | 4.1 | $(-)$ | 0.5 | 3.6 | 1.6 | 0.4 | 0.5 |
| ISCED 2 | 2014 | 33.7 | $(-)$ | 99.9 | 2.7 | 3.3 | 10.4 | 24.3 | 2.6 | 60.0 | 48.5 | 41.1 | $(-)$ | 1.5 | 67.7 | 88.1 | 1.4 | 3.4 |
|  | 2005 | 30.4 | $(-)$ | 95.4 | 10.8 | 2.4 | 11.6 | 23.2 | 2.0 | 68.8 | 59.4 | 38.8 | $(-)$ | 1.0 | 46.3 | 92.9 | 0.8 | 4.5 |
| ISCED 3 general | 2014 | 23.0 | (-) | 99.9 | 12.4 | 16.2 | 14.6 | 23.8 | 7.0 | 59.5 | 4.4 | 24.2 | $(-)$ | 4.2 | 16.1 | 37.1 | 5.7 | 2.9 |
|  | 2005 | 25.8 | (-) | 99.1 | 15.4 | 22.4 | 16.8 | 30.0 | 6.1 | 61.7 | 8.6 | 28.0 | (-) | 3.8 | 18.1 | 34.5 | 3.6 | 5.9 |
| \% |  | LU | HU | MT | NL | AT | PL | PT | RO | SI | SK | FI | SE | UK | IS | LI | MK | NO |
| ISCED 1 | 2014 | 83.5 | 0.3 | 0.7 | (:) | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 13.2 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 2.0 | 2.2 | (:) | 0.3 | 0.0 | 0.3 | 0.0 |
|  | 2005 | 82.9 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.0 | 1.1 | 0.6 | 0.5 | 21.7 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 2.0 | 2.8 | 36.3 | 0.0 | (:) | 1.4 | 0.0 |
| ISCED 2 | 2014 | 100.0 | 0.5 | 34.0 | 57.2 | 5.3 | 3.6 | 64.7 | 84.6 | 2.9 | 2.5 | 5.7 | 15.6 | (:) | 1.5 | 100.0 | 47.5 | 13.6 |
|  | 2005 | 100.0 | 0.6 | 42.4 | (:) | 5.2 | 1.7 | 88.1 | 86.1 | 1.6 | 1.8 | 7.5 | 17.7 | (:) | 2.1 | (:) | 40.5 | 17.8 |
| ISCED 3 general | 2014 | 100.0 | 5.7 | 22.2 | 31.1 | 37.7 | 8.0 | 2.8 | 85.2 | 10.8 | 13.2 | 11.3 | 16.8 | 26.0 | 10.7 | 96.8 | 25.2 | 9.9 |
|  | 2005 | 96.7 | 6.0 | 6.6 | 69.5 | (:) | 12.1 | 19.1 | 84.2 | 10.9 | 14.4 | 19.3 | 24.2 | 40.0 | 16.4 | (:) | (:) | (:) |

Source: Eurydice, on the basis of Eurostat/UOE data [educ_uoe_lang01] (last update: 21/12/2016).

## Explanatory note

Breaks in the time series other than those reported in the Country-specific notes (see Chapter C) may have occurred in some countries between 2010 and 2014 due to changes in data gathering methodology.

Trends in the proportion of students learning German in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2005, 2014 (Data for Figure C14)

|  | \% | EU | BE fr | BE nl | BG | CZ | DK | DE | EE | IE | EL | ES | FR | HR | IT | CY | LV | LT |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ISCED 1 | 2014 | 3.7 | 1.0 | 0.0 | 2.5 | 1.2 | (-) | $(-)$ | 3.2 | (-) | 13.2 | 0.7 | 5.5 | 20.0 | 1.9 | 0.0 | 4.6 | 0.5 |
|  | 2005 | 5.2 | 0.9 | 0.0 | 3.1 | 13.1 | (:) | (-) | 6.7 | 1.0 | 0.8 | 0.5 | (:) | 17.4 | 2.0 | 0.0 | 1.7 | 2.0 |
| ISCED 2 | 2014 | 23.1 | 1.6 | 0.0 | 6.8 | 41.7 | 73.6 | $(-)$ | 13.2 | 21.4 | 46.5 | 3.6 | 14.7 | 43.8 | 8.8 | 1.4 | 12.8 | 11.2 |
|  | 2005 | 18.9 | 1.5 | 0.0 | 16.2 | 28.5 | 90.1 | $(-)$ | 19.9 | 23.0 | 35.7 | 2.4 | 14.4 | 32.1 | 4.9 | 1.1 | 17.2 | 25.5 |
| ISCED 3 general | 2014 | 18.9 | 5.5 | 51.2 | 34.3 | 55.8 | 28.0 | $(-)$ | 28.5 | 16.5 | 2.5 | 1.7 | 21.5 | 61.5 | 8.2 | 6.2 | 27.6 | 8.6 |
|  | 2005 | 29.9 | 5.9 | 52.7 | 40.3 | 72.2 | 49.7 | (-) | 44.1 | 19.1 | 2.4 | 1.3 | (:) | 66.2 | 6.5 | 3.4 | 38.8 | 28.4 |
|  | \% | LU | HU | MT | NL | AT | PL | PT | RO | SI | SK | FI | SE | UK | IS | LI | MK | NO |
| ISCED 1 | 2014 | 100.0 | 20.1 | 0.0 | (:) | (-) | 6.2 | 0.0 | 1.9 | 1.8 | 1.7 | 3.8 | 2.2 | (:) | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.4 | 0.0 |
|  | 2005 | 100.0 | 19.6 | 0.0 | 0.0 | (-) | 16.7 | 0.0 | 1.7 | 0.7 | 8.8 | 5.5 | 3.7 | 3.5 | 0.0 | (:) | 0.2 | 0.0 |
| ISCED 2 | 2014 | 100.0 | 31.1 | 11.6 | 51.1 | (-) | 69.0 | 0.8 | 10.7 | 47.8 | 55.2 | 9.9 | 19.3 | (:) | 1.0 | 0.0 | 48.0 | 25.1 |
|  | 2005 | 100.0 | 41.4 | 8.4 | (:) | (-) | 30.5 | 0.6 | 10.9 | 27.4 | 37.3 | 15.8 | 26.6 | (:) | 5.3 | (:) | 14.9 | 29.9 |
| ISCED 3 general | 2014 | 100.0 | 46.3 | 4.7 | 40.3 | (-) | 46.7 | 1.5 | 12.8 | 63.4 | 57.7 | 16.9 | 21.4 | 8.8 | 22.5 | 0.0 | 24.1 | 21.3 |
|  | 2005 | 96.7 | 51.4 | 1.7 | 86.2 | (-) | 72.5 | 2.5 | 11.9 | 78.2 | 75.2 | 37.9 | 34.5 | 15.2 | 32.4 | (:) | (:) | (:) |

Source: Eurydice, on the basis of Eurostat/UOE data [educ_uoe_lang01] (last update: 21/12/2016).

## Explanatory note

Breaks in the time series other than those reported in the Country-specific notes (see Chapter C) may have occurred in some countries between 2010 and 2014 due to changes in data gathering methodology.

Trends in the proportion of students learning Spanish in general secondary education (ISCED 2-3), 2005,

## 2014 (Data for Figure C15)

|  | \% | EU | BE fr | BE nl | BG | CZ | DK | DE | EE | IE | EL | ES | FR | HR | IT | CY | LV | LT |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ISCED 2 | 2014 | 13.1 | (:) | 0.0 | 1.5 | 2.0 | (-) | 4.0 | 0.2 | 15.4 | (:) | $(-)$ | 37.8 | 0.1 | 22.0 | 0.5 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
|  | 2005 | 7.5 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 1.1 | 0.5 | (:) | 1.8 | 0.1 | 7.4 | (:) | $(-)$ | 33.7 | 0.0 | 3.6 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| ISCED 3 general | 2014 | 19.1 | 7.0 | 2.4 | 9.4 | 12.1 | 20.4 | 19.2 | 4.5 | 15.0 | (:) | $(-)$ | 71.7 | 3.5 | 12.3 | 17.1 | 1.2 | 0.6 |
|  | 2005 | 17.2 | 6.6 | 2.1 | 7.3 | 6.9 | 24.9 | 13.8 | 0.3 | 7.9 | (:) | (-) | (:) | 1.5 | 4.0 | 6.5 | 0.7 | 0.4 |
|  | \% | LU | HU | MT | NL | AT | PL | PT | RO | SI | SK | FI | SE | UK | IS | LI | MK | NO |
| ISCED 2 | 2014 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 8.1 | 1.9 | 1.0 | 1.9 | 20.8 | 0.5 | 2.1 | 0.7 | 1.9 | 43.9 | (:) | 2.9 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 32.0 |
|  | 2005 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 2.4 | (:) | 0.4 | 0.1 | 1.1 | 0.5 | 0.3 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 28.8 | (:) | 1.0 | (:) | 0.0 | 3.5 |
| ISCED 3 general | 2014 | 4.8 | 3.0 | 5.8 | 4.6 | 16.5 | 4.1 | 7.1 | 2.5 | 13.0 | 10.7 | 13.0 | 40.1 | 13.5 | 23.9 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 25.6 |
|  | 2005 | 7.1 | 1.2 | 1.5 | 0.0 | (:) | 0.9 | 0.7 | 1.8 | 4.3 | 4.0 | 9.4 | 39.3 | 7.9 | 15.7 | (:) | (:) | (:) |

Source: Eurydice, on the basis of Eurostat/UOE data [educ_uoe_lang01] (last update: 21/12/2016).

## Explanatory note

Breaks in the time series other than those reported in the Country-specific notes (see Chapter C) may have occurred in some countries between 2010 and 2014 due to changes in data gathering methodology.

Proportions of students learning English in general and vocational upper secondary education (ISCED 3), 2014 (Data for Figure C16)

| $\%$ | EU | BE fr | BE nI | BG | CZ | DK | DE | EE | IE | EL | ES | FR | HR | IT | CY | LV | LT |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| General | 94.1 | 91.6 | 99.8 | 90.7 | 95.0 | 82.1 | 86.8 | 97.6 | $(-)$ | 94.4 | 97.5 | 99.8 | 99.5 | 97.8 | 90.2 | 97.8 | 95.3 |
| Vocational | 75.0 | 36.8 | 75.3 | 80.0 | 86.9 | 18.6 | 36.9 | 65.5 | $(-)$ | 51.9 | 20.4 | 95.6 | 86.6 | 98.1 | 99.5 | 72.3 | 67.8 |
| $\%$ | LU | HU | MT | NL | AT | PL | PT | RO | SI | SK | FI | SE | UK | IS | LI | MK | NO |
| General | 92.1 | 83.1 | 100.0 | 95.5 | 99.4 | 94.6 | 65.2 | 99.3 | 98.2 | 99.0 | 99.9 | 100.0 | $(-)$ | 72.2 | 100.0 | 99.2 | 43.9 |
| Vocational | 61.7 | 43.4 | 100.0 | 62.7 | 98.6 | 86.6 | 80.9 | 99.2 | 91.4 | 89.0 | 94.7 | 99.9 | $(-)$ | 33.7 | $(:)$ | $(:)$ | 55.8 |

Source: Eurydice, on the basis of Eurostat/UOE data [educ_uoe_lang01] (last update: 21/12/2016).

## Explanatory note

See also the Country-specific notes in Chapter C.

Proportion of modern foreign language teachers in lower secondary education who have been abroad for professional purposes, 2013 (Data for Figure D8)

|  | EU | BE nI | CZ | DK | EE | ES | FR | HR | IT | CY | LV | NL | PL | PT | RO | SK | FI | SE | IS | NO |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| \% | 56.9 | 43.0 | 53.3 | 45.1 | 54.2 | 73.7 | 63.3 | 37.4 | 61.7 | 58.6 | 62.0 | 59.5 | 51.4 | 35.1 | 30.0 | 39.6 | 56.2 | 57.1 | 71.6 | 67.7 |
| S.E. | 0.77 | 2.77 | 1.96 | 2.27 | 2.08 | 2.02 | 2.07 | 2.08 | 2.33 | 3.79 | 3.04 | 3.24 | 1.97 | 2.23 | 2.26 | 1.76 | 2.20 | 1.86 | 2.65 | 2.06 |

Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2013.

## Explanatory note

Data calculated on the basis of the answers to the TALIS 2013 Teacher Questionnaire. The EU weighted average is calculated on the basis of the data available for the 19 EU countries/regions which took part to the teacher mobility section of the TALIS 2013 questionnaire.
Modern foreign language: Language different from the language of schooling (TALIS 2013 definition).
Modern foreign language teachers: Respondents having declared that they have taught modern foreign languages (TTG15E) to lower secondary students in their sampled school during the school year. These respondents may also teach other subjects.
Mobile teachers (for professional purposes): Respondents having declared that they had been abroad for professional purposes in their career as a teacher or during their teacher education/training (TT2G48B, TT2G48C, TT2G48D, TT2G48E, and/or TT2G48F).
For further information on TALIS, see Statistical Databases and Terminology.
Proportion of modern foreign language teachers in lower secondary education who have been abroad for professional purposes with support of a mobility programme, 2013 (Data for Figure D10)

| \% | EU | BE nl | CZ | DK | EE | ES | FR | HR | IT | CY |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| EU programme | 26.1 | 17.1 | 37.5 | 24.3 | 41.1 | 35.2 | 9.3 | 12.7 | 15.2 | 40.7 |
| S.E. | 0.83 | 2.85 | 2.31 | 2.33 | 2.44 | 2.51 | 1.81 | 2.52 | 1.88 | 4.64 |
| National/regional programme | 11.5 | 6.4 | 13.2 | 6.0 | 26.1 | 19.9 | 7.3 | 22.2 | 5.7 | 11.2 |
| S.E. | 0.52 | 2.01 | 1.43 | 1.37 | 2.59 | 1.76 | 1.41 | 2.75 | 1.29 | 2.85 |
| \% | LV | NL | PL | PT | RO | SK | FI | SE | IS | NO |
| EU programme | 61.2 | 27.3 | 34.9 | 45.6 | 49.7 | 25.8 | 38.8 | 21.0 | 29.0 | 14.9 |
| S.E. | 3.10 | 3.92 | 3.25 | 4.56 | 3.97 | 2.24 | 2.78 | 1.93 | 2.24 | 3.16 |
| National/regional programme | 22.6 | 5.1 | 15.3 | 9.1 | 9.2 | 12.7 | 13.5 | 4.8 | 20.1 | 3.4 |
| S.E. | 3.64 | 1.84 | 2.67 | 2.44 | 2.09 | 1.81 | 2.03 | 0.93 | 2.59 | 0.70 |

Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2013.

## Explanatory note

See the explanatory note for Data for Figure D8.
Data calculated on the basis of the answers to questions TT2G48C and TT2G48D in the teacher questionnaire.
For further information on TALIS, see Statistical Databases and Terminology.

Proportion of modern foreign language teachers in lower secondary education who have been abroad for professional purposes, by reason for travel, EU level, 2013 (Data for Figure D11)

|  | \% | EU | $\mathbf{B E ~ n I}$ | $\mathbf{C Z}$ | $\mathbf{D K}$ | EE | ES | FR | HR | IT | CY |
| :--- | ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathbf{A}$ |  | 60.4 | 56.7 | 59.3 | 41.6 | 53.6 | 73.0 | 49.3 | 55.8 | 81.5 | 22.4 |
|  | S.E. | 0.96 | 2.93 | 2.37 | 3.03 | 3.03 | 2.52 | 3.01 | 3.39 | 1.98 | 4.16 |
| $\mathbf{B}$ |  | 52.0 | 36.5 | 53.3 | 41.5 | 46.1 | 60.9 | 40.8 | 26.3 | 65.1 | 48.5 |
|  | S.E. | 1.16 | 3.59 | 2.25 | 3.09 | 3.31 | 2.70 | 3.09 | 2.95 | 2.59 | 4.76 |
| $\mathbf{C}$ |  | 46.3 | 28.5 | 51.9 | 33.2 | 46.5 | 50.6 | 73.1 | 20.3 | 33.0 | 58.1 |
|  | S.E. | 1.02 | 3.21 | 2.70 | 3.30 | 2.71 | 2.55 | 2.71 | 3.36 | 2.94 | 5.01 |
| $\mathbf{D}$ |  | 31.5 | 20.3 | 34.2 | 31.2 | 54.0 | 34.1 | 22.2 | 28.5 | 17.3 | 26.2 |
|  | S.E. | 0.84 | 3.28 | 2.90 | 3.47 | 3.24 | 2.49 | 2.11 | 3.22 | 2.35 | 4.54 |
| $\mathbf{E}$ |  | 23.0 | 32.6 | 13.8 | 30.4 | 24.8 | 25.7 | 36.0 | 7.7 | 11.9 | 15.3 |
|  | S.E. | 0.81 | 3.19 | 1.62 | 3.13 | 2.30 | 2.35 | 2.75 | 1.79 | 1.94 | 3.98 |
| $\mathbf{F}$ |  | 6.5 | 10.3 | 14.1 | 11.1 | 7.3 | 8.9 | 3.6 | 4.6 | 3.4 | 15.0 |
|  | S.E. | 0.45 | 2.10 | 1.62 | 2.44 | 1.65 | 1.44 | 1.18 | 1.49 | 1.07 | 4.21 |
|  | \% | $\mathbf{L V}$ | $\mathbf{N L}$ | $\mathbf{P L}$ | $\mathbf{P T}$ | $\mathbf{R O}$ | $\mathbf{S K}$ | FI | $\mathbf{S E}$ | IS | $\mathbf{N O}$ |
| $\mathbf{A}$ |  | 34.4 | 42.4 | 63.1 | 43.7 | 17.7 | 53.9 | 51.0 | 53.9 | 26.9 | 52.9 |
|  | S.E. | 3.57 | 3.66 | 3.01 | 3.09 | 3.41 | 2.69 | 2.97 | 2.37 | 2.67 | 2.91 |
| $\mathbf{B}$ |  | 38.2 | 52.1 | 47.9 | 40.4 | 39.3 | 53.6 | 46.1 | 51.9 | 27.7 | 52.1 |
|  | S.E. | 4.66 | 4.32 | 3.06 | 3.57 | 4.58 | 2.63 | 2.36 | 2.28 | 3.15 | 2.19 |
| $\mathbf{C}$ |  | 40.8 | 29.8 | 40.0 | 62.8 | 29.2 | 16.4 | 47.6 | 29.1 | 5.9 | 14.8 |
|  | S.E. | 4.26 | 3.87 | 3.23 | 3.48 | 4.10 | 1.90 | 2.39 | 2.36 | 1.43 | 2.77 |
| $\mathbf{D}$ |  | 47.5 | 35.3 | 47.7 | 37.5 | 54.8 | 27.7 | 52.4 | 34.8 | 46.0 | 19.6 |
|  | S.E. | 4.08 | 4.12 | 3.24 | 3.84 | 4.26 | 2.46 | 2.85 | 2.54 | 2.69 | 2.49 |
| $\mathbf{E}$ |  | 16.8 | 17.9 | 16.9 | 19.4 | 41.6 | 13.7 | 17.4 | 18.1 | 13.7 | 23.4 |
|  | S.E. | 3.24 | 3.46 | 2.24 | 3.33 | 3.99 | 1.71 | 2.09 | 1.92 | 2.08 | 3.63 |
| $\mathbf{F}$ |  | 5.7 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 6.5 | 2.6 | 16.2 | 27.8 | 8.0 | 28.4 | 16.6 |
|  | S.E. | 2.23 | 0.91 | 0.69 | 2.04 | 1.23 | 1.71 | 2.43 | 1.30 | 2.93 | 2.09 |

## A <br> Language learning

B Studying, as part of their teacher education
c Accompanying visiting students
D Establishing contact with schools abroad
E Teaching $F$ Learning of other subject areas

Source: Eurydice, on the basis of TALIS 2013.

## Explanatory note

See the explanatory note for Data for Figure D8.
Other subject teachers: Respondents having declared that they have not taught modern foreign languages (TTG15E) to lower secondary students in their sampled school during the school year and that they have taught at least one of the other subjects (TTG15A, B, C, D, F, G, H, I, J, K and/or L).
Data calculated on the basis of the answers to questions TT2G48B to F, and questions TT2G49A to TT2G49F in the teacher questionnaire.
For further information on TALIS, see Statistical Databases and Terminology.

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## EURYDICE NATIONAL UNITS

## ALBANIA

## Eurydice Unit

European Integration and Projects Department
Ministry of Education and Sport
Rruga e Durrësit, Nr. 23
1001 Tiranë

## AUSTRIA

Eurydice-Informationsstelle
Bundesministerium für Bildung
Abt. Bildungsentwicklung und -reform
Minoritenplatz 5
1010 Wien
Contribution of the Unit: Dr. Michaela Haller (external expert)

## BELGIUM

Unité Eurydice de la Communauté française
Ministère de la Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles
Direction des relations internationales
Boulevard Léopold II, 44 - Bureau 6A/008
1080 Bruxelles
Contribution of the Unit: Joint responsibility
Eurydice Vlaanderen
Departement Onderwijs en Vorming/
Afdeling Strategische Beleidsondersteuning
Hendrik Consciencegebouw 7C10
Koning Albert II-Iaan 15
1210 Brussel
Contribution of the Unit: Experts from the Ministry of
Education and Training: Sien Van den Hoof, Chama
Rhellam, Marieke Smeyers, Véronique Adriaens, Marie-
Anne Persoons, Nancy Willems, Els Exter, Elke Peeters,
Jozef Van Laer, Veerle Breemeersch; Coordination: Ben
Cohen and Eline De Ridder
Eurydice-Informationsstelle der Deutschsprachigen
Gemeinschaft
Autonome Hochschule in der DG
Monschauer Strasse 57
4700 Eupen
Contribution of the Unit: Stéphanie Nix and Xavier Hurlet
BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA

## Ministry of Civil Affairs

Education Sector
Trg BiH 3
71000 Sarajevo
Contribution of the Unit: Joint responsibility

## BULGARIA

## Eurydice Unit

Human Resource Development Centre
Education Research and Planning Unit
15, Graf Ignatiev Str.
1000 Sofia
Contribution of the Unit: Anna Arsenieva-Popova (expert)

## CROATIA

Ministarstvo znanosti, obrazovanja i sporta
Donje Svetice 38
10000 Zagreb
Contribution of the Unit: Duje Bonacci

## CYPRUS

Eurydice Unit
Ministry of Education and Culture
Kimonos and Thoukydidou
1434 Nicosia
Contribution of the Unit: Christiana Haperi;
expert: Stella Konti Theocharous

## CZECH REPUBLIC

Eurydice Unit
Centre for International Cooperation in Education
Dům zahraniční spolupráce
Na Poříčí 1035/4
11000 Praha 1
Contribution of the Unit: Jana Halamová, Radka Topinková; expert: Irena Mašková

## DENMARK

Eurydice Unit
Ministry of Higher Education and Science
Danish Agency for Higher Education
Bredgade 43
1260 København K
Contribution of the Unit: Ministry of Higher Education and
Science and Ministry of Education

## ESTONIA

Eurydice Unit
Analysis Department
Ministry of Education and Research
Munga 18
50088 Tartu
Contribution of the Unit: Kersti Kaldma (coordination); expert: Kristi Mere

## FINLAND

Eurydice Unit
Finnish National Agency for Education
P.O. Box 380

00531 Helsinki
Contribution of the Unit: Kristiina Volmari;
expert: Anu Halvari

## FORMER YUGOSLAV REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA

National Agency for European Educational Programmes and Mobility
Porta Bunjakovec 2A-1
1000 Skopje
Contribution of the Unit: Dejan Zlatkovski and
Goce Velichkovski

## FRANCE

Unité française d'Eurydice
Ministère de l'Éducation nationale, de l'Enseignement supérieur et de la Recherche
Direction de l'évaluation, de la prospective et de la performance
Mission aux relations européennes et internationales 61-65, rue Dutot
75732 Paris Cedex 15
Contribution of the Unit: Laurent Bergez (expert) and
Anne Gaudry-Lachet (MENESR)

## GERMANY

## Eurydice-Informationsstelle des Bundes

Deutsches Zentrum für Luft- und Raumfahrt e. V. (DLR)
Heinrich-Konen Str. 1
53227 Bonn
Eurydice-Informationsstelle der Länder im Sekretariat der
Kultusministerkonferenz
Taubenstraße 10
10117 Bonn
Contribution of the Unit: Thomas Eckhardt

## GREECE

Eurydice Unit
Directorate of European and International Affairs
Ministry of Education, Research and Religious Affairs
37 Andrea Papandreou Str. (Office 2172)
15180 Maroussi (Attiki)
Contribution of the Unit: Magda Trantallidi and Nicole Apostolopoulou

## HUNGARY

Hungarian Eurydice Unit
Educational Authority
10-14 Szalay utca
1055 Budapest
Contribution of the Unit: Krisztina Kolosyné Bene (expert)

## ICELAND

Eurydice Unit
The Directorate of Education
Víkurhvarfi 3
203 Kópavogur
Contribution of the Unit: Joint responsibility

## IRELAND

Eurydice Unit
Department of Education and Skills
International Section
Marlborough Street
Dublin 1 - DO1 RC96
Contribution of the Unit: Breda Naughton (Principal Officer, Department of Education \& Skills); Karen Ruddock (Marino Institute Education)

## ITALY

Unità italiana di Eurydice
Istituto Nazionale di Documentazione, Innovazione e
Ricerca Educativa (INDIRE)
Agenzia Erasmus+
Via C. Lombroso 6/15
50134 Firenze
Contribution of the Unit: Simona Baggiani; expert: Diana Saccardo (Dirigente tecnico, Ministero dell'Istruzione, dell'Università e della Ricerca).

## LATVIA

Eurydice Unit
State Education Development Agency
Valņnu street 3 ( $5^{\text {th }}$ floor)
1050 Riga
Contribution of the Unit: Rita Kursite (expert of the National
Centre for Education

## LIECHTENSTEIN

Informationsstelle Eurydice
Schulamt des Fürstentums Liechtenstein
Austrasse 79
Postfach 684
9490 Vaduz
Contribution of the Unit: National Eurydice information centre

## LITHUANIA

Eurydice Unit
National Agency for School Evaluation of the Republic of
Lithuania
Geležinio Vilko Street 12
03163 Vilnius
Contribution of the Unit: Irena Raudiené (external expert)

## LUXEMBOURG

Unité nationale d'Eurydice
ANEFORE ASBL
eduPôle Walferdange
Bâtiment 03 - étage 01
Route de Diekirch
7220 Walferdange
Contribution of the Unit: Experts: Thomas Michels
(MENJE); Elisabeth Reisen (MENJE)

## MALTA

Eurydice National Unit
Research and Policy Development Department
Ministry for Education and Employment
Great Siege Road
Floriana VLT 2000
Contribution of the Unit: Joanne Bugeja

## MONTENEGRO

Eurydice Unit
Vaka Djurovica bb
81000 Podgorica
Contribution of the Unit: Divna Paljević-Sturm (Examination Centre)

## NETHERLANDS

Eurydice Nederland
Ministerie van Onderwijs, Cultuur en Wetenschap
Directie Internationaal Beleid
Etage 4 - Kamer 08.022
Rijnstraat 50
2500 BJ Den Haag
Contribution of the Unit: Joint responsibility

## NORWAY

Eurydice Unit
Ministry of Education and Research
AIK-avd., Kunnskapsdepartementet
Kirkegata 18
P.O. Box 8119 Dep.

0032 Oslo
Contribution of the Unit: Joint responsibility

## POLAND

Eurydice Unit
Foundation for the Development of the Education System
Mokotowska 43
00-551 Warsaw
Contribution of the Unit: Beata Płatos (Coordination);
national experts: Agata Gajewska-Dyszkiewicz and
Katarzyna Paczuska (Educational Research Institute)

## PORTUGAL

Unidade Portuguesa da Rede Eurydice (UPRE)
Ministério da Educação e Ciência
Direção-Geral de Estatísticas da Educação e Ciência (DGEEC)
Av. 24 de Julho, 134
1399-054 Lisboa
Contribution of the Unit: Isabel Almeida; outside the Unit:
Joint responsibility (General Directorate for Education)

## ROMANIA

## Eurydice Unit

National Agency for Community Programmes in the Field of
Education and Vocational Training
Universitatea Politehnică București
Biblioteca Centrală
Splaiul Independenței, nr. 313
Sector 6
060042 București
Contribution of the Unit: Veronica - Gabriela Chirea, in cooperation with experts: Anca Maria Pegulescu (Ministry of National Education and Scientific Research), Roxana Mihail (The National Centre for Assessment and Examination),
Dan Ion Nasta (Institute of Science Education)

## SERBIA

## Eurydice Unit Serbia

Foundation Tempus
Ruze Jovanovic 27a
11000 Belgrade
Contribution of the Unit: Joint responsibility

## SLOVAKIA

Eurydice Unit
Slovak Academic Association for International Cooperation
Krížkova 9
81104 Bratislava
Contribution of the Unit: Joint responsibility

## SLOVENIA

Eurydice Unit
Ministry of Education, Science and Sport
Education Development Office
Masarykova 16
1000 Ljubljana
Contribution of the Unit: Saša Ambrožič Deleja and
Barbara Kresal Sterniša

SPAIN
Eurydice España-REDIE
Centro Nacional de Innovación e Investigación Educativa
(CNIIE)
Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deporte
c/ Torrelaguna, 58
28027 Madrid
Contribution of the Unit: Experts: Marta Crespo Petit, Rocío Arias Bejarano and Elena Vázquez Aguilar. The following Autonomous Communities also sent the completed questionnaire and information on this issue within their field of competence: Comunidades Autónomas de Principado de Asturias, Región de Murcia, Canarias, Cantabria, Castilla y León, Castilla-La Mancha, Cataluña, La Rioja, Extremadura y Comunidad Valenciana.

## SWEDEN

Eurydice Unit
Universitets- och högskolerådet/
The Swedish Council for Higher Education
Box 45093
10430 Stockholm
Contribution of the Unit: Joint responsibility

## SWITZERLAND

Eurydice Unit
Swiss Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education (EDK)
Speichergasse 6
3001 Bern
Contribution of the Unit: Joint responsibility

## TURKEY

Eurydice Unit
MEB, Strateji Geliştirme Başkanlığı (SGB)
Eurydice Türkiye Birimi, Merkez Bina 4. Kat
B-Blok Bakanlıklar
06648 Ankara
Contribution of the Unit: Osman Yıldırım Uğur;
expert: Assoc. Dr. Paşa Tevfik Cephe

## UNITED KINGDOM

Eurydice Unit for England, Wales and Northern Ireland
Centre for Information and Reviews
National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER)
The Mere, Upton Park
Slough, Berkshire, SL1 2DQ
Contribution of the Unit: Joint responsibility
Eurydice Unit Scotland
c/o Education Scotland
The Optima
58 Robertson Street
Glasgow G2 8DU
Contribution of the Unit: Yousaf Kanan

## Key Data on Teaching Languages at School in Europe - 2017 Edition

The 2017 Edition of Key Data on Teaching Languages at School in Europe depicts the main education policies regarding teaching and learning of languages in 42 European education systems. It answers questions about what foreign languages are learnt, how long students spend studying foreign languages, the level of foreign language proficiency students are expected to reach by the end of compulsory education and what kind of language support is provided to newly arrived migrant students as well as many other topics. The indicators are organised into five different chapters: Context, Organisation, Participation, Teachers and Teaching Processes.

A variety of sources were used to build the indicators, and these include the Eurydice Network, Eurostat, and the OECD's PISA and TALIS international surveys. Eurydice data cover all countries of the European Union as well as Bosnia and Herzegovina, Switzerland, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Montenegro, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Norway, Serbia and Turkey.

The Eurydice Network's task is to understand and explain how Europe's different education systems are organised and how they work. The network provides descriptions of national education systems, comparative studies devoted to specific topics, indicators and statistics. All Eurydice publications are available free of charge on the Eurydice website or in print upon request. Through its work, Eurydice aims to promote understanding, cooperation, trust and mobility at European and international levels. The network consists of national units located in European countries and is co-ordinated by the EU Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency. For more information about Eurydice, see http://ec.europa.eu/eurydice.


[^0]:    ( ${ }^{1}$ ) Belgium (Flemish Community), the Czech Republic, Estonia, France, Croatia, Luxembourg, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia, Finland and Liechtenstein

[^1]:    ( ${ }^{1}$ ) Bulgarian, Croatian, Czech, Danish, Dutch, English, Estonian, German, Finnish, French, Greek, Hungarian, Irish, Italian, Latvian, Lithuanian, Maltese, Polish, Portuguese, Romanian, Slovak, Slovenian, Spanish and Swedish

[^2]:    Source: Eurydice.

[^3]:    Source: Eurydice.

[^4]:    $\left({ }^{1}\right) \quad$ Presidency conclusions. Barcelona European Council, 15 and 16 March 2002, SN 100/1/02 REV 1, p. 19.

[^5]:    $\left({ }^{1}\right)$ Eurostat does not provide separate data for Belgium German-speaking community.

[^6]:    $\left({ }^{2}\right)$ In the Flemish Community of Belgium, there are fewer differences for the first foreign language. French is studied by $100 \%$ of students on general pathways and $89 \%$ of students on vocational pathways.
    ${ }^{(3)}$ ) In Luxembourg, English is the third foreign language. All students learn German and French in general upper secondary education, while 78 \% of students learn French and 71 \% study German on vocational pathways.

[^7]:    ( ${ }^{1}$ ) See Figure 3.12 in European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015b.

[^8]:    $\left.{ }^{(2}\right)$ See www.daz-dg.be, www.sprich-mit-mir.at and http://www.schule-mehrsprachig.at.
    $\left.{ }^{(3}\right) \quad$ See http://www.ncca.ie/en/Curriculum and Assessment/Inclusion/English as an Additional Language/

[^9]:    $\left({ }^{1}\right)$ Council conclusions of 12 May 2009 on a strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training ('ET2020'), OJ C 119, 28.05.2009, p. 3.

[^10]:    Source: Eurydice.

[^11]:    ( ${ }^{1}$ ) EU Council Resolution of 14 February 2002 on the promotion of linguistic diversity and language learning in the framework of the implementation of the objectives of the European Year of Languages 2001, OJ 2002/C 50/01.

[^12]:    Source: Eurydice.

[^13]:    $\left({ }^{1}\right) \quad$ Class periods usually last 55 minutes, but are referred to as one hour in curricula.

