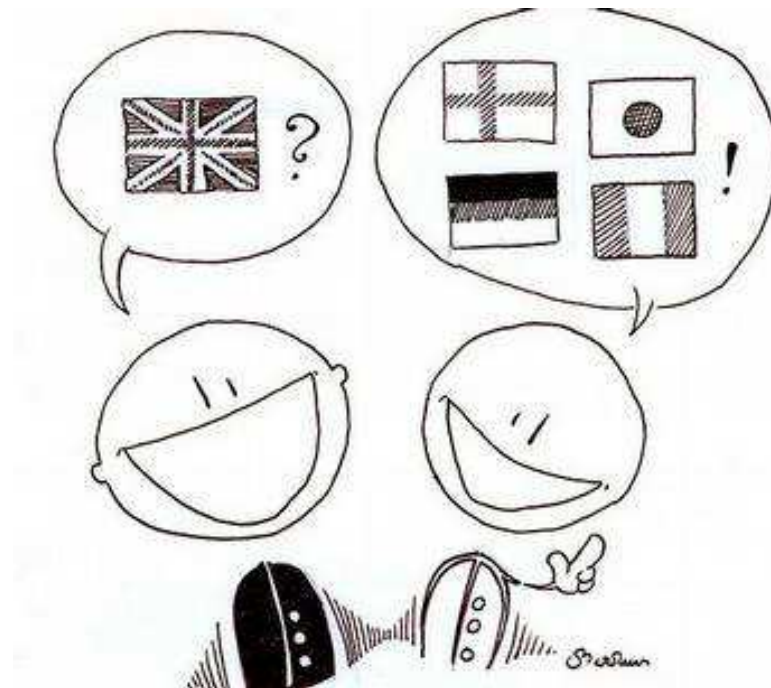


ANGLIA RUSKIN UNIVERSITY

MONONOLINGUAL BRITAIN IN MULTILINGUAL EUROPE?

Is the new National Languages Strategy in
England a step back or a step forward towards a
European community?

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(Hill, 2008)

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

ALL	Association for Language Learning
BIS	Department for Business, Innovation & Skills
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference
CfA	Council for Administration
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
CPD	Continuing Professional Development
DCSF	Department for Children, Schools and Families
DfE	Department for Education
DFEE	Department for Education and Employment
DfES	Department for Education and Skills
DfES	Department for Education and Science
ELL	Early Language Learning
ELT	English Language Teaching
EQF	European Qualifications Framework
ERP	European Recovery Program
ETML	Early Teaching of Modern Languages
FE	Further Education
FL	Foreign Language
GCSE	General Certificate of Secondary Education
HE	Higher Education
ICT	Information Communication Technology
IU	Intercultural Understanding
KAL	Knowledge About Languages
LA	Local Authority
LEA	Local Education Authority
LLL	Language Learning Ladder
LLP	Lifelong Learning Programme
LLS	Language Learning Strategies
LNSG	Languages National Steering Group
LNT0	Languages National Training Organisation
MLPS	Modern Languages in Primary School
MYLO	My Languages Online
NACELL	National Advisory Centre on Early Language Learning
NC	National Curriculum
NLS	National Languages Strategy
NQF	National Qualifications Framework
NUT	National Union of Teachers
NVQ	National Vocational Qualification
Ofsted	Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills
PMFL	Primary Modern Foreign Language
QCA	Qualifications and Curriculum Authority
SLC	Specialist Language College
SSAT	Specialist Schools and Academies Trust
TNC	Transnational Cooperation

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ANGLIA RUSKIN UNIVERSITY
ABSTRACT

FACULTY OF ARTS, LAW AND SOCIAL SCIENCES
MA INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION

MONOLINGUAL BRITAIN IN MULTILINGUAL EUROPE?
Is the new National Languages Strategy in England a step back or a step
forward towards a European community?

By LISA SUMASKI
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Within the scope of this study the importance of multilingualism for member states of the European Union is outlined. Given that language is inseparably linked to identity formation, it is found that only by knowing several foreign languages, the individual is able to develop a European identity. Therefore, cultural awareness as well as intercultural understanding form the two pillars on which the European Union's language policy is founded. However, it is especially the UK which presents itself as an exception to the rule among European Union member states and their performance in foreign languages. As it turns out, the UK has the highest number of monolinguals next to Ireland. This is primarily the result of the status of the English language as a global Lingua Franca and the related reluctance of the Britons to learn foreign languages. In 2002, England's new National Languages Strategy aimed at changing the pupils' and citizens' negative attitude towards foreign languages by introducing language learning already in primary schools. The strategy has even so only one big hook: the government simultaneously decided to gain more flexibility and space in its Key Stage 4 curriculum and accordingly allowed 14-year-old pupils to drop foreign languages at this point of time. Presenting itself therefore as a controversial policy, the question immediately arises whether the strategy can be considered as a step back or as a step forward towards a European community, since facts and figures ever since prove that the number of pupils taking a language GCSE has dramatically declined. On the basis of a detailed description of the new National Languages Strategy in England and its major objectives as well as its corresponding interim reports, a critical assessment will be given. By further on regarding England's National Languages Strategy as a Language Plan of the government and by accordingly transferring the terms involved corpus planning, implementation planning and status planning on the strategy, suitable assessing categories are obtained. With the help of the latter, structural deficiencies are revealed which endanger the successful realisation of the National Languages Strategy. In the end, despite the government's attempt to achieve an attitude change, the question still remains "Monolingual Britain in multilingual Europe?", unless the government intends to reverse its decision by making foreign languages compulsory again in Key Stage 4.

Introduction

Next year the United Kingdom will host athletics from all over the world for the Summer Olympic Games, which will take place in London from the 27 July to 12 August. Sportsmen and sportswomen from altogether 205 nations will together form a multicultural as well as a multilingual society. The reports about the sport events will be transmitted via media in all countries. In 2012, it will be the third time that London will host the Olympic Games after 1908 and 1948 (London Olympics 2012, 2002). However, in comparison to these previous Olympic Games, there is one significant difference to the upcoming event in 2012: the world has changed substantially ever since. In the present, we are living in the era of globalization where economy, policy, culture and languages are no longer separated through national borders, but are rather connected with each other in international, economic, business and social networks. Likewise, the life of the individual is marked by multicultural and multilingual influences. This is in particular the case, when the individual intends to study or work abroad, but also more commonly when the individual works in a company that cooperates with international partners. Moreover, the travelling to other countries as well as the encountering of other cultures meanwhile form a major part of today's daily life of each individual.

One of the most important tasks of the school is therefore to prepare young people for the economic and social reality in which they live and will be living in in future times. On account of this, school education must include a global dimension (Grant, 2006, p.11). The EU policy has clearly recognised this fundamental task and therefore demands its member states to teach at least two foreign languages in schools at an early stage (Barcelona European Council, 2002). Also England as part of the United Kingdom¹ aims to meet the EU requirements and intends since 2002 to integrate a global dimension in vocational training and profession with its agenda of the National Languages Strategy. Exactly this is the reason why foreign languages shall already be taught and learnt in primary schools, whereby not only language competence shall be in the centre of interest but also cultural awareness and intercultural understanding.

However, the government's policy on language learning was altered by changing the status of foreign languages from compulsory to optional for 14-16-year-olds. This decision offered 14-year-olds the possibility to drop foreign languages by 2004.

¹ This dissertation will mainly deal with the situation in England and will not include the description of the education systems in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland.

Therefore, ever since its introduction, the number of pupils studying foreign languages for GCSE and beyond, as for instance French, Spanish or German has decreased dramatically.

The majority of pupils does not see the necessity to learn other languages, since they generally perceive them as very difficult and not enjoyable. While English has meanwhile established itself as a global Lingua Franca and pupils from other European countries primarily choose it as their first foreign language to learn (see the synopsis of Ammon et al., 2010) by considering English as important for their further personal development and professional career, English pupils on the other side do not see the relevance, necessity and utility of acquiring a foreign language. Against this background, there is the danger that the English government has laid the foundation for pupils not being interested and motivated for foreign language learning and thus for remaining monolingual with its National Languages Strategy and the including decision to make foreign language learning optional from the age of 14. If this scenario became bitter reality and Britain remained monolingual while the rest of Europe became multilingual, Britain's status within the European Community would eventually become weaker and weaker on account of a tremendous lack of knowledge and skills about other countries, identities and cultures. Simultaneously, the chances for Britain to act as an important global player in Europe will be significantly reduced. By not speaking foreign languages, the UK runs the risk to exclude itself from the European community without showing any interest to develop a European identity. Among the European neighbours, this attitude is generally perceived as cultural and linguistic insularity. For these reasons, many critics warn that this educational policy will have a negative impact on the social status as well as on the professional opportunities of young English people who grow up in the era of globalization and who have to compete successfully in a global market later on. Accordingly, the British Council stated in 2006 that "monoglot English graduates face a bleak economic future, as qualified youngsters from other countries are proving to have a competitive edge over their British counterparts in global companies and organisations" (DfES, 2006, p.20).

However, besides the utilitarian relevance for the professional future of young people, languages are equally of great significance for the personal and social development of the individual. The study of foreign languages likewise makes the English language as a mother tongue more transparent as far as its functions for the individual's

socialisation and enculturation are concerned. It is especially via language that the individual develops its personal, social and national identity. Furthermore, multilingual competences open the view for different cultures and lifestyles of European neighbours. Multilingualism as well as intercultural understanding therefore form the basis for the development of a European identity.

In Chapter I, the description of the identity forming function of language stands in the focus of interest. Personal identity, social identity, national identity and last but not least European identity will be presented as different identity concepts. Subsequently, the language policy of the European Union, which promotes above all language diversity, will be explained. Since English has meanwhile developed to a global Lingua Franca, the question of whether or not English is also suitable for the usage as a Lingua Franca within the EU will be answered. Chapter I ends with the closing words. In Chapter II, England's National Languages Strategy (NLS) will be described in detail. First, the reasons for the necessity of the National Languages Strategy will be pointed out and its major objectives will be presented in this context. In due course, the strategy's implementation in the period from 2003-2010 will be outlined on the basis of different official reports. Chapter II equally ends with the corresponding closing words.

In Chapter III, a critical assessment of the strategy in terms of the answer to the initial research question will be given. In this context, it is first of all necessary to develop assessment categories with which an evaluation of the previous development status becomes possible. A special focus is in particular laid on the principle weaknesses of the National Languages Strategy and its implementation. The dissertation ends with a final conclusion.

The research of this dissertation is primarily based on the information found in scientific books as well as on the CILT (The National Centre for Languages) website. Full statistical reports, press releases as well as final reports in terms of England's National Languages Strategy and its development from 2002 to 2010 provided a good basis for a detailed analysis and a subsequent critical assessment. For further information on England's new strategy, important official documents such as the government's greenpaper "14-19: extending opportunities, raising standards", the DfES document Languages for All: Languages for Life, the DCSF Key Stage 2 Framework or interim reports like The Dearing Report – Languages Review and the

CILT Report of the Governors from 2010 were used and analysed. In addition, several articles from the Language Learning Journal as well as online available newspaper articles were given special attention offering often food for thought. Likewise, different psychological approaches as, for instance, the Sapir-Whorf-hypothesis or George Herbert Mead's theory of the "I" and the "Me" were used to emphasize the link between language and identity. Furthermore, Weiner's causal attribution theory gives a better insight into the link between effort and success in learning processes.

Chapter I: Language and Identity

Generally, this chapter looks at the relation between language and identity.

By giving some brief elaborations on the definition of identity, it is first of all outlined that there cannot only be one definition and that different forms and concepts of identity exist. In the scope of this work, the focus is however laid on the concept and the development of a European identity. When talking about the emergence of identity, it immediately turns out that language plays a key role and accordingly the question will be raised how far language is linked to the notion of identity and what this means for Europe and a European identity. Since Europe consists of altogether 47 independent nation-states, approximately 225 languages are spoken throughout Europe (De Cillia, 2003, p.233)². Therefore, in a further step, Europe's languages and Europe's language policy will be of particular interest. In this context, the English language appears to have an exclusive role within Europe and all around the world. With regard to the title of this work "Monolingual Britain in multilingual Europe", the Chapter I presents already a hint to what is considered a major problem.

1. The concept of identity – definitional aspects and forms of identity

The concept of identity is very complex and includes several dimensions. It can likewise not only be referred to one single individual, it can equally apply to a whole group or even a nation, as the individual always lives within a particular group or community.

On account of its multidimensional character one can say that there is no such a thing as one generally accepted and all-embracing definition. The concept of identity has been defined in many different ways and its definitions differ from context to context and are rather controversial.

However, a few associations are generally made when it comes to the question of identity and its description: In a general sense, identity means uniqueness, distinctiveness and sameness. Simultaneously, each concept of identity also includes the concept of **Otherness** "in knowing who we are like we also know who we are not like, and this sense of identity is dependent to some extent on an understanding of boundary, where that with which we identify stops" (Gubbins and Holt, 2002, p.4).

² De Cillia adds that Haarmann (1993, pp.53) assumes Europe to consist of 76 languages.

Equally general is the differentiation between the identity of an individual (personal identity) and the collective identity (group identity and national identity).

Personal identity is something unique and unmistakeable, something that differs from one person to another, so that they can never exactly be the same. Identity characteristics as for instance name, sex, age, colour of eyes or height are important biographic data that are contained in the ID of a person to be identifiable.

However, one can say that there is a close relationship between personal identity and group identity since human beings are from the very beginning embedded in a social environment and likewise join numerous different groups and societies throughout their lives. The development of a personal identity is significantly determined by these familiar and group specific influences. Accordingly, the American philosopher and social psychologist George Herbert Mead (1863-1931) defines the **Self** of an individual as a product that has to be developed during the process of socialisation. This process includes the inheritance of certain values, customs, traditions, symbols, social roles as well as language. In order to be able to participate within one's own society, it is therefore necessary for the individual to adopt common skills and habits. The clue to this identity-finding process is primarily communication. In this context, Mead distinguished between two components of the self, the "I" and the "Me", whereby the "Me" represents the social self mirroring the attitudes, values and habits of the community in which the individual lives whereas the "I" on the other side represents the uniqueness of the individual's thoughts and behaviour. This component is not entirely predictable and undetermined (Mead, 1934, p. 197).

Group identity, in comparison with personal identity, results above all by consciously separating from other groups or in other words by forming in- and out-groups. Rudyard Kipling (1865-1936) expresses exactly this phenomenon in his poem „We and They“ in a very concise way:

All good people agree,
And all good people say,
All nice people, like Us, are We
And every one else is They.
(E-books, 2011.)

All in all, the in-group is considered as positive whereas the out-group is rather associated with negative aspects and attributes. The clear differentiation from the otherness of the out-group might even go so far that it comes to intolerance and

violence towards its members. In the past, those hostilities happened in wars and warlike conflicts between groups and people, which faced each other as hostile nations.

With the development of nation-states in the 19th century, people formed a consciousness for the importance of their own nation's tradition, culture, values, habits and language, which led to the emergence of a **national identity**. In many cases national consciousness was also associated with the feeling of superiority over other nations.

In this context, a nation is for instance understood as a historical community, which lives in its own organised territory with borders to other different territories. These boundaries have been shaped throughout history through wars and political negotiations. Simultaneously, each nation has its very own distinct language which mirrors the nation's typical character and culture in clear differentiation to other nation-states. Knowing and using the national language presents a major characteristic of belonging to a particular nation. The command of the national language reinforces the sense of belonging to one's own nation and simultaneously means a differentiation to other nations and languages.

According to Holliday et al.:

Nationalism or regionalism is perhaps one of the most powerful sources of identity in modern society. More and more the world is divided into states with frontiers; the people within these states are encouraged to see themselves as belonging to these particular groupings and as being distinct from those in other states (2004, p. 175).

Despite the fact that the nation-states such as the United Kingdom, France, Germany, Spain etc. still exist in their own territories with their own national languages, there is however a development entailing a weakening of the nation-state system ever since the end of the Second World War. By taking a closer look at the current development of Europe and its nations, one can clearly see that political efforts are more than ever before aiming at overcoming the nation-state and nationalism to a trans-national society. Ever since the last enlargement in 2007, the European Union today consists of 27 member states. With the political construction of a European Community, the notion of a **European identity** becomes at the same time a major subject. Thus, the national identity and the European identity coexist in all European member states, whereby the national identity is however still more important and has top priority for the majority of European citizens.

1.1 The concept of a European identity

The attempt to determine the notion of a European identity is not as easy as one would imagine and the term presents itself as rather elusive. In a simplified sense, there are altogether two different attempts concerning the definition of a European identity (see Thiemeyer, 2010, pp. 198-213).

The first definition refers to all attributes that constitute and characterise Europe, that is, the continent itself, its history, its culture and its population and especially what makes Europe so different from other continents. According to this, Europe's identity is a matter of Europe's very essence and therefore one can also talk about an essential concept of identity. For instance, the former Secretary-General of the Council of Europe, Daniel Tarschys, defines the major characteristics of a European identity as follows:

[...] a very strong commitment to the individual, a commitment to social cohesion and solidarity, a state that is neither too strong nor too weak, respect for human rights, tolerance, these are some basic principles. The rule of law of course, the idea that government must be bound by legal principles and that people must be treated equally (BBC World Service, n.d.).

The second attempt assumes that it is not possible to define a European identity in an essential way as it claims that there is no such a thing as an objective existence of Europe. Europe only exists in the minds of the Europeans as an imagined community (Anderson, 2006) and is therefore rather based on a discursively produced self-attribution of individuals in groups. Following the theory of constructivism, Europe is an imagined construct and primarily evolves from communicative processes between people. Accordingly, one can also talk about a constructivist concept of identity. A European identity does therefore derive from constantly new defining and thus dynamic self-attributions of Europeans themselves. The concept of a European identity becomes thus more difficult in three major respects: First, one can not talk anymore about only one European identity, but rather one has to consider that there are many European identities or in other words that there are multiple European identities, which can complement and also contradict one another. Identities are thus subject to historical change and they develop as quickly as they might likewise disappear. In answer to the question of a European identity, one can according to a constructivist view say that Europe's identity undergoes a permanent dynamic communication process, in which Europe's identity is constantly discussed and negotiated. Second, this means, that this discussion has always existed in Europe's history and that it will

also continue in future times *ad infinitum*. Third, the notion of Eurocentrism which assumes the pre-eminence of European culture in the world and which is advocated in all essential concepts of identity is heavily doubted. One of the main representatives of this constructivist approach is the Austrian historian Wolfgang Schmale who described this concept in detail (Schmale, 2008). However, when comparing the essential and the constructivist identity concept with one another, it turns out that social constructivism is an important concept in social sciences which nevertheless still remains controversial by contradicting the position that reality is objective. Being based on an open concept of European identity that can flexibly adapt to historical and political developments today as well as in the future, the constructivist position also offers a huge advantage. Compared to this, I am of the opinion that the essential position can hardly be maintained, as there cannot be found any trans-national identity characteristics that last until today when considering the huge variety of nations as well as the extremely differing cultures and ethnicities such as South and East Europeans. Therefore, it is often said that the unity of Europe consists of its diversity. However, this means at the same time that one cannot resort to a common concept of identity from the past which is also the reason why the essential perspective eventually leads to the same result as the constructivist position: the discussion about a European identity is certainly not finished and has constantly to be conducted.

Apart from the theoretical controversy about the question how to define and understand a European identity, there are also empirical studies that aim at investigating in how far the citizens of the European member states feel a sense of belonging to Europe. According to Convery et al. (1997), who investigated with their survey to which extent young people in the new Europe consider themselves as European citizens with a European identity, there are some differences among the 16-18-year-old students.

Table 1: ‘Do you think of yourself as being European?’ From Convery et al. (1997; quoted from Gubbins and Holt, 2002, p. 27).

	Not at all	Only partly	Yes
England	39.8	41.6	18.6
France	17.4	40.4	42.1
Germany	8.0	25.6	66.4
Italy	4.3	41.0	54.7
Netherlands	2.6	7.0	90.4
Spain	6.4	25.1	68.4

The table above makes in any case clear that in particular English students, followed by French students do not see themselves as Europeans.

In combination with Table 1, the Table 2 below clearly points out that feeling European is not necessarily a reason for people to learn foreign languages.

Table 2: Percentage of pupils learning (or having learnt) foreign languages (FLs). From Convery et al. (1997; quoted from Gubbins and Holt, 2002, p.28).

	One FL	Two FLs	Three FLs
England	38.1	57.5	4.4
France	0.6	73.3	26.1
Germany	0.8	75.6	23.6
Italy	36.4	51.4	12.1
Netherlands	0.9	1.7	97.4
Spain	88.9	11.1	0
Total	29.8	51.3	18.9

The Dutch, for instance, were the only nation where the claim to feel European perfectly matched with the number of people learning foreign languages. They achieved the highest percentage in saying that they feel European and at the same time the vast majority likewise learned three foreign languages. Other cases were slightly different as for instance the Spanish who were the second highest group claiming to have a European identity, but learning the lowest number of foreign languages (the great majority learns only one language in Spain; see also Table 3, p.18). The survey likewise revealed another important fact, namely that most of the young people interviewed learn at least two foreign languages. However, what these two tables do not show and what is equally important to mention is that it is above all the English language that is preferably learned by scholars and students.

On the basis of these elaborations, it is clarified that only through the combination of theory and empirical research can concrete statements on European identity be made in future times.

Independent of this research desideratum it is beyond doubt that language plays a vital role in identity formation at both individual as well as national and trans-national level. I will again return to the concept of European identity in Chapter III, when answering the question in how far England's new language policy, which is anchored in the National Languages Strategy (2002), essentially contributes to the fact that English citizens can develop a European identity.

In the following, the function of language and its impact on identity formation shall be outlined.

1.2 How far is language linked to the notion of identity?

As a matter of fact, language is not only mere means of communication. It is much more. Via language the world around us is categorized and it presents the most important instrument for the individual's cognitive development. Via language people think and act. Therefore one can say that language is inseparably linked to the notion of identity. All cognitive abilities as well as the individual's world knowledge and the knowledge about the individual itself are based on learning processes through the medium of language.

These processes start from the very beginning within the family, they continue during nursery school and kindergarten and subsequently form the core part of the school education. In educational settings, the child learns psychomotor skills, factual

information, concepts and principles, problem-solving strategies, attitudes, values, motives, interests and above all it learns about historical facts and cultural customs and habits of its home country. In other words, the individual gets to know its own cultural habits, customs and values by learning its own mother tongue from early childhood on and is therefore able to develop a group identity and in a further sense a national identity in the course of its life (The Federal Government Commissioner for Migration, Refugees and Integration, 2007, pp.12-19).

A well-known hypothesis, which was made to describe the function of language, is from Edward Sapir (1884-1939) and his scholar Benjamin Lee Whorf (1897-1941). Their theoretical approach is known as the Sapir-Whorf-hypothesis, which was basically saying that **language determines thought** (Kay and Kempton, 1984). According to this position, human beings perceive the world around them only in the cultural and cognitive categories their specific language offers them. In other words, speakers of different languages will tend to think and act in different ways depending on the unique categories of the language they speak. A quotation from George Yule perfectly emphasizes this approach “[...] your language will give you a ready-made system of categorizing what you perceive and, as a consequence, you will be led to perceive the world around you only in those categories“(Yule, 1985, p.196).

However, this unilateral view was not tenable and had to be extended by saying that not only language determines thought, but also that **thought determines language**. Technical inventions perfectly demonstrate for instance that new terms have to be found in order to name new innovative products.

Subsequent empirical research could not confirm the observations of Whorf on the Hopi and their language (see for example Malotki, 1983), which led to a drop of the deterministic concept. The strong form of the Sapir-Whorf-hypothesis was then substituted by a weaker form, which is still widely accepted today. This **linguistic relativity** assumes that language is the most important means of the individual's socialisation into its society and culture. It likewise provides the linguistic concepts that influence the human perception, thinking and behaviour. Linguistic and cultural features influence each other so that the relativistic interpretation can be summed up as follows: “Culture is controlled by and controls language” (Jandt, 2007, p.127).

However, there is no such a thing as one universal language that people all over the world speak as their native language. According to the Max Planck Society for Psycholinguistics (2011), there are around 6000-7000 languages that are actively

spoken worldwide. This diversity of different languages worldwide equally mirrors the cultural diversity that the world is confronted with. Especially in Europe, approximately 230 languages are altogether spoken (see footnote 2; p.5), out of which 23 have official status in the European Union and it is likely that even more languages will be included as more countries will join the European Union in future times.

On a personal level, it becomes immediately clear that it is more than necessary for the individual – in order to be able to develop a European identity – to become multilingual as it presents the major key skill to gain a better and deeper cultural awareness as well as intercultural understanding. There are of course also other important factors the individual has to incorporate in order to develop a European identity as for instance its identification with the political, economic and social aims and decisions of the European Union. However, it is above all the knowledge about other languages that enables the individual to overcome negative national stereotypes by understanding different cultures as well as other perspectives of foreign countries for a common future plan for Europe. Foreign language learning is therefore necessarily required and no longer considered to be a privilege for a small cosmopolitan elite. Quite the contrary, today, people all around the world have to be able to communicate across language borders.

As it is outlined in the following section, the EU promotes intercultural communication and understanding among its member states through its language policy.

1.3 The current language policy of the European Union

On the 17th of June 2000 the European Parliament and the Council of the European Union took the decision to declare the year 2001 as the European Year of Languages with the major argument that “it is important to learn languages as it enhances awareness of cultural diversity and helps eradicate xenophobia, racism, anti-Semitism and intolerance” (Official Journal of the European Communities, 2000).

To raise awareness of **linguistic diversity** and its value considering culture and civilisation is one of the major targets of EU language policy. The maxim “united in diversity” refers to the different cultures, customs and habits as well as languages. Around 450 million people from various cultural, ethnic as well as linguistic backgrounds are currently living within the European Union (Special Eurobarometer,

2006, p.3). 23 official languages³ and over 60 indigenous and non-indigenous languages are spoken throughout Europe. Linguistic diversity is a major part of European heritage and means for the present as well as for the future of Europe that all languages should be equally valued, including minority languages.

The future European citizen shall not alone learn foreign languages, but rather he shall be enabled via languages to get a deeper insight into other people's cultures and thereby he shall contribute to a better mutual understanding. In this way, other nations and people are brought closer and closer together and prejudices and racism can be reduced and fought through the peaceful coexistence of the nation-states as well as through intercultural communication. The respect for linguistic diversity is a fundamental value of the European Union just as respect for the person and the tolerance and acceptance for other cultures and religions. This is enshrined in article 22 of the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union (2000).

Apart from the maintenance of cultural and language diversity, the EU pursues a policy for the preservation and promotion of **multilingualism**. On the one hand multilingualism represents the wealth and variety of European languages and on the other hand it refers to the capability of a person to be able to express oneself in different languages.

The European Parliament and the Council of the European Union made it thereby a key policy to promote multilingualism as a significant element of Europe's cultural heritage. This European language policy addresses the vast majority of Europe and primarily aims at fostering language learning as well as individual multilingualism. By enhancing the foreign language competence of EU citizens, new personal and professional opportunities open up for the individual. In this manner, the European economy is likewise becoming more competitive (EUROPA, 2005).

In this context, it is also important to mention that the EU consciously promotes a policy of multilingualism and not a policy of bilingualism. Since being multilingual means for every individual to be able to speak many different languages and not only a foreign language and one's own mother tongue. Bilingualism would not be enough for the very reason that bilinguals have the tendency to presume their second language, as for instance English, to be Lingua Franca. The European Union, however, attaches

³ The official community languages of the European Union are: Bulgarian, Czech, Danish, Dutch, English, Estonian, Finnish, French, German, Greek, Hungarian, Irish, Italian, Latvian, Lithuanian, Maltese, Polish, Portuguese, Romanian, Slovak, Slovene, Spanish and Swedish.

great importance of multilingualism, in order to protect Europe's rich language diversity, also including minority languages, such as Basque or Irish.

The egalitarian language policy of the European Union is based on the regulation number 1 adopted by the Council of the European Union on 15 April 1958. In this regulation, the four state languages French, German, Italian and Dutch of the first six founding states are determined to be official languages as well as working languages of the EU with equal status (ERO-Lex, n.d.). In the course of time, more and more countries joined the EU and meanwhile there are altogether 23 official languages (compare pp. 13-14).

Furthermore, the European Union has drafted an Action Plan 2004-2006 according to the motto "Promoting Language Learning and Linguistic Diversity" (COM, 2003). This action plan contains three core aims. First, the Commission's multilingualism policy targets at encouraging foreign language learning. Second, the Commission's policy targets to foster a multilingual economy and third to provide all EU citizens with access to legislation, course of actions as well as general information of the EU policy in their own native language.

Furthermore, "A New Framework Strategy for Multilingualism" was published in 2005 (COM, 2005). After the EU's last expansion of Romania and Bulgaria, the Romanian Leonard Orban was nominated first Commissioner for Multilingualism on 1 January 2007 (EUROPA, 2007).

Meanwhile, the 26th of September is the European day of languages – a result of the big success of the year of languages. The campaigns on this very day shall remind the EU citizens of the big language diversity with which they are confronted and shall inspire them at the same time to learn more foreign languages. In this context, the next important target of the EU language policy is addressed. Their decrees and recommendations shall primarily serve to encourage **lifelong language learning**.

Foreign language learning improves the cognitive abilities of the individual and simultaneously gives the freedom and opportunity to study or to work abroad in another member state. In the frame of the programmes SOCRATES and LEONARDO DA VINCI the EU had funded the acquisition of foreign languages for the enhancement of educational and vocational training ever since the first pioneering programme LINGUA in 1990. The SOCRATES programme, which was initiated in 1995, contained the support for vocational and further training of language teachers, the development of new teaching aids as well as joint educational programmes and

exchange programmes (Bundesministerium für Bildung und Forschung, 2005). The LEONARDO DA VINCI programme aimed at fostering the improvement of multilingual and multicultural communication competences of employees in their professional training.

In 2006, both programmes have been integrated into the new programme “Lifelong Learning Programme” (LLP), which applies from 2007 to 2013 (EUROPA, 2009).

In the scope of the general educational and vocational training policy, the EU made it policy that all EU citizens should learn at least two foreign languages in addition to their own mother tongue. By introducing the learning of two foreign languages already at a very early age throughout European schools, this goal shall be achieved. In order to put it in the words of the European Council in Barcelona in 2002 the goal is “to improve the mastery of basic skills, in particular by teaching at least two foreign languages from a very early age [...]” (Barcelona European Council, 2002).

By adding and considering at this point now the results of the Special Eurobarometer in 2006, it can be seen that at this point of time 44 % of Europeans admitted that they are not able to speak another language apart from their own mother tongue. 56 % were capable of holding a conversation in at least one language other than their own mother tongue and 28 % could lead a conversation in at least two foreign languages. Nevertheless, the vast majority of Europeans (83%) equally mentioned in this survey that they regard knowing foreign languages as useful or that they could be useful for them personally. A similar study was implemented about Europeans and languages in 2001. At that time 72 % of the respondents believed that knowing foreign languages are or could be useful for them. This means that within four years an 11 points increase from 72 % to 83% was observed as far as the necessity of foreign language learning is concerned. Simultaneously, the proportion of respondents who did not consider foreign languages learning as useful decreased by 6 points from 22% to 16 % within the period of four years (Special Eurobarometer, 2006, p.27).

These results show far more drastically how urgent it is that each EU citizen should see it as a guideline to learn at least two foreign languages in order to be able to benefit from the professional, educational as well as economic opportunities a multilingual EU citizen has in an integrated Europe (European Commission Languages, 2010). By learning a foreign language, one is not only able to speak in another language – it is far more – one is also able to think differently, to adapt another view of the world and to thereby broaden one’s own horizon.

One specific objective in the year of languages in 2001 was “to collect and disseminate information about the teaching and learning of languages” (EUROPA, 2005). The exchange of modern and innovative language learning strategies, new learning ideas and improvements of foreign language training which has started this year should be seen as pioneering for the following years. In this context, the European Commission intends to develop a European indicator for language competence. The latter shall provide comparable data about the results of language teaching and language learning within the EU and thereby help to enhance national standards. It aims at testing the student’s proficiency who are in their final year of lower secondary education, in writing, reading and listening in two of the most commonly taught languages within the European Union (English, German, French, Spanish and Italian). The test is conducted in each country with a representative sample of pupils. In 2011, a first empirical study will be implemented with altogether 14 countries in which the elevation of foreign language competence is carried out. The results will be presented in February 2012 and on the basis of the latter a second elevation will take place at the end of 2012 (European Commission, 2010).

To sum up, nowadays, foreign language learning is considered a major and vital key skill to form a European identity, as only through the medium of language, one is able to understand and to adapt a view into other nation’s cultures, apart from one’s own.

Nevertheless, the EU’s promotion of multilingualism does not necessarily mean that all Member States of the EU are equally eager to put these guidelines into action. There are obviously clear differences between the efforts of each nation’s own language policies. The following Table 3 clearly demonstrates that foreign language competence is quite heterogenic in the countries of Europe.

Table 3: Which languages do you speak well enough in order to be able to have a conversation, excluding your mother tongue? (Special Eurobarometer, 2006, p.9)

	At least one language	At least two languages	At least three languages	None
EU 25	56 %	28 %	11 %	44 %
Luxembourg	99 %	92 %	69 %	1 %
Slovakia	97 %	48 %	22 %	3 %
Latvia	95 %	51 %	14 %	5 %
Lithuania	92 %	51 %	16 %	8 %
Malta	92 %	68 %	23 %	8 %
Netherlands	91 %	75 %	34 %	9 %
Slovenia	91 %	71 %	40 %	9 %
Sweden	90 %	48 %	17 %	10 %
Estonia	89 %	58 %	24 %	11 %
Denmark	88 %	66 %	30 %	12 %
Cyprus	78 %	22 %	6 %	22 %
Belgium	74 %	67 %	53 %	26 %
Finland	69 %	47 %	23 %	31 %
Germany	67 %	27 %	8 %	33 %
Austria	62 %	32 %	21 %	38 %
Czech Republic	61 %	29 %	10 %	39 %
Greece	57 %	19 %	4 %	43 %
Poland	57 %	32 %	4 %	43 %
France	51 %	21 %	4 %	49 %
Spain	44 %	17 %	6 %	56 %
Hungary	42 %	27 %	20 %	58 %
Portugal	42 %	23 %	6 %	58 %
Italy	41 %	16 %	7 %	59 %
United Kingdom	38 %	18 %	6 %	62 %
Ireland	34 %	13 %	2 %	66 %

Against the background that all EU citizens are recommended by the EU language policy to learn at least two foreign languages in addition to their mother tongue, this table shows that only 28 % of European citizens fulfil this guideline. Equally important to mention is the fact that the majority of the population reports of not being able to speak a foreign language at all. This is the case for Ireland (66 %), the United Kingdom (62 %), Italy (59 %), Portugal (58 %), Hungary (58 %) and Spain (56 %).

What catches the eye immediately is above all the fact that the UK as well as Ireland are at the very end of the survey's results. The low status of foreign languages in the UK is not a coincidence, since English has established as a global Lingua Franca worldwide in the course of time. Most of the UK citizens do therefore not see the

necessity to learn a foreign language next to their mother tongue and remain monolingual.

1.4 The development of English as a global Lingua Franca

The current status of the English language in the world is the one of a global Lingua Franca. People all over the world who do not share a native language use it as a contact language to communicate with each other. Worldwide no other originally ethnic language was spread as much and as far as the English language. This process originated with British colonialism as well as the trading success of the British Empire in the 18th century and continued subsequently with the political, economic and military power of the United States – one of Britain's former colonies (Cortese and Duszak, 2005, p. 269). In many parts of the world the British Empire had a political and economic supremacy (see also Figure 1).

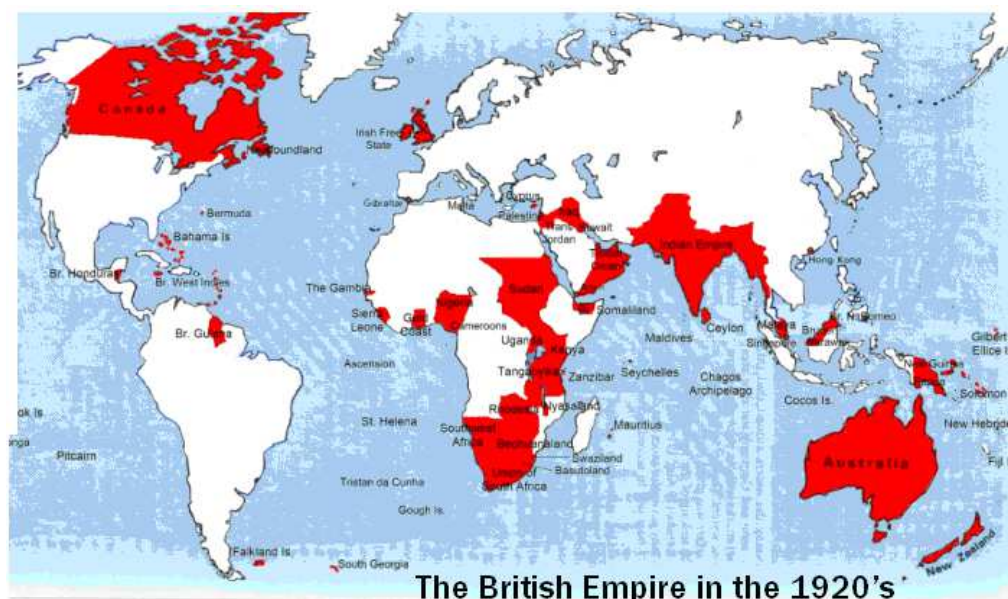


Figure 1: The British Empire in the 1920s (WIKIPEDIA, 2011).

For this reason a large number of people speak English as their mother tongue in many countries apart from Britain as for instance in the USA, Canada, Ireland, New Zealand, Australia, South Africa as well as in several Caribbean countries and in some other territories (Crystal, 2003). The British soldiers as well as the colonial rulers were responsible for the dissemination of the English language and between rulers and ruled only English was used to communicate.

However, it is not primarily the British colonial power or the particular role that North America played in maintaining interest in English that led to the continued spread of the English language. It is above all the use of English by non-native speakers today and the fact that the number of people speaking it as a foreign or second language is far higher than the number of its native speakers (Cortese and Duszak, 2005). According to the British Council (2000) there were worldwide around 375 million native speakers of the English language as well as 375 million second language speakers and approximately 750 million people who learn English as a foreign language – a number which is constantly increasing.

Not only economic reasons, but also military, political, scientific as well as cultural aspects led to the fact that English gained more and more importance and thus became the dominant language of international discourse. Within the scope of academic research, English has emerged as a global language which is the reason why around 1,500 master's degrees are taught and written in English, even in countries where the language has no official status (The Economist, 2006). Being the working language of an increasing number of international companies and by providing the vocabulary of some specialised fields, such as electronic communication or air-traffic control, English is in many aspects the language which has clear supremacy over other languages and enthusiasm for learning it has been spreading worldwide. It is the global language for technology, technical communication and science and thus the language medium for working fields such as aviation, medicine, development aid as well as for global investment. In the frame of international business it is generally required and taken for granted that people involved speak English. In India as well as North America, English is exclusively used to relate to global economy issues (The Nuffield Languages Inquiry, 2000, p.14).

English is used as Lingua Franca in many countries and it is widely taught and learned as a second language. In nearly all European countries, English is a mandatory subject and it is in both primary and secondary education the most commonly learnt language. In 2005, the European Commission conducted a survey in which 28,694 citizens of the 25 EU countries as well as of Bulgaria, Romania, Croatia and Turkey participated. Results were inter alia that 77% people considered it as important that their children learn English next to their mother tongue. With a great distance French followed with 33 %, German with 28 % and Spanish with 19 % (Special Eurobarometer, 2006, p. 33).

Especially in the Latin countries of southern Europe, the compulsory teaching of a foreign language or English as a specific mandatory subject happens at a very early stage. In most countries of central and Eastern Europe, the percentage of pupils who learn English is also constantly increasing (Dovalil, 2010, p.49).

To sum up, facts and figures show the hegemony of English as a global Lingua Franca which is the very reason why many European politicians demand for English as a Lingua Franca within the EU.

1.5 English – a Lingua Franca for Europe?

Those who would like to introduce English as Lingua Franca in the European Union have above all economic arguments. By considering the current situation alone that the EU has 23 official languages and that the most important documents and decisions have to be translated into every single official language, it becomes clear that with altogether 506 (23 x 22) possible language pairs the costs for translators and interpreters are tremendously high. If one communicated only with one language, these logistical costs would not exist and the risk of faults and inaccuracies would be much lower. Furthermore, it would be much easier for intercultural communication if one talked only in one language. Correspondingly, the European market and the large group of transnational cooperations (TNCs) communicate for instance in their transnational activity in English. However, many critics indicate that there is a gulf between linguistic policy and practice in the EU because the current situation in the various institutions already shows that above all English and French are used as working languages. The opponents of this proposition point out that there would be many disadvantages if English as a Lingua Franca would become reality for the EU.

Such a policy which promotes English as a Lingua Franca for Europe would presumably have far-reaching consequences for both the English language as well as for the other European languages. On the one hand the Lingua Franca would soon not be linked to a specific culture anymore and would rather develop its own inherent characteristics as for instance its own values and maybe even some pidgin varieties. The protest of British, American, Australian or New Zealand native speakers against simplified and incorrect varieties of their language would presumably be obsolete and the Lingua Franca – a culturally lacking language – would be taught worldwide. The fact that people all over the world speak English in some way or another presented itself at first sight as a huge advantage for native speakers of the English language, but

becomes in this context rather a disadvantage as the English language thereby runs the risk of not being bound to particular cultures anymore (USA, UK, New Zealand etc.) and even worse of losing its own values.

Meanwhile, the other big European languages on the other hand would suffer from a loss of function as for instance in the fields of science, business communication as well as modern technology. Some of them would perhaps even become regional minority languages and would therefore be on the edge of becoming extinct languages. The vast majority and in particular younger generations would soon consider their own mother tongue as rather less useful.

However, this scenario has to be seen sceptically. Although Europe is due to its political integration developing to a speech communication where a Lingua Franca could be quite practical, the language communities of the nation states still remain. And since languages are not only mere means of communication, but also symbols of individual and collective identity, the question of a Lingua Franca for Europe is also a question of identity loss for many countries. Therefore it is not likely and can not be expected that other nations would renounce their own mother tongue in favour of Europe. Language changes as well as suppression of language are processes which are always accompanied by resistance and conflicts which is inter alia the reason why the European Union sticks to a policy of multilingualism.

In the same context, it is necessary to ask which negative consequences this could have when referring in particular to the United Kingdom. Considering English as a global language and its widespread acceptance worldwide, the UK is easily tempted to think that English should be enough. Over years, people developed a rather complacent view towards other languages and therefore mainly focused on other subjects. Given the fact that fast technological, economic and social change over the last three decades have built a world that is more and more interconnected, interdependent and complex, the generations of the 21st century need to be provided with necessary skills to become active participants on a European as well as on a world stage. And therefore English would clearly not be enough anymore.

By only speaking English, the UK would remain dependent on the goodwill as well as on the linguistic competence of others and would thus exclude itself from taking an active role in establishing and forming relationships with other countries. A flourishing UK will not exist with speaking one language alone, since a reliable and successful communication on a complex international level evidently demands for language

diversity, sensitivity and flexibility. Multilingualism is more than ever before on the world's agenda whereas the trend towards monolingualism appears rather dangerous. Being monolingual immediately indicates insensitivity, inflexibility and above all arrogance.

However, while governmental and individual commitment to foreign language learning is constantly increasing in almost every part of Europe and throughout the world, it is decreasing in the United Kingdom. According to the already mentioned study by the European Commission, the UK has within Europe the second highest percentage of monolinguals with 62 % and it is only Ireland which is doing worse at foreign language learning with 66 % of monolinguals. As a matter of fact, only 38 % of people in the UK are able to have a conversation in a second language in comparison to 91 % of people in the Netherlands, 88 % of people in Denmark, 67 % of people in Germany and 51 % of people in France (see Table 3, p.18).

1.6 Closing words

As it was outlined in this chapter, language and identity are inseparably linked to one another. Language is the major marker for identity formation for personal identity, social identity and national identity. While in earlier times, nations separated themselves sharply from one another with their language, culture and territorial borders, globalisation of society and markets as well as access to information by media technologies bring countries and people more and more together nowadays. The affiliation of many countries to the European Union meanwhile consists of 27 nations with their own cultures and languages. In the light of this cultural and linguistic diversity, the language policy of the European Union accordingly aims at maintaining and promoting Europe's multilingualism and therefore demands its member states to teach at least two foreign languages in schools. Since only by learning foreign languages, young people will be able to develop a European identity. In many countries this guideline already presents the norm whereas others are still on their way to realize this. In this context, the UK is an exception to the rule. On the one hand the English language developed to a global Lingua Franca and on the other hand the UK has the biggest number of monolinguals next to Ireland. Foreign languages seem to have a low status in the UK and Ireland.

In 2002, the English government introduced the National Languages Strategy which should lead to an attitude change among English pupils and citizens. At the same time,

this strategy intends to follow the guideline made by the EU to introduce foreign language learning in schools and to motivate citizens for lifelong language learning. In the following Chapter II, the National Languages Strategy of England will be described.

Chapter II: The UK's policy to become multilingual

The following Chapter II deals in a descriptive way with the British language policy since 2002 – the year in which the Department for Education and Skills (DfES, 2002b) presented the National Languages Strategy (NLS) entitled Languages for All: Languages for Life. First of all, the major aspects of the National Languages Strategy will be outlined and it will be accordingly highlighted that the main focus of this strategy is on the objective to introduce foreign language learning already in primary schools. The two other objectives of the National Languages Strategy are to introduce a recognition system for language skills as well as to maximise the number of people studying foreign languages (DfES, 2002b, p.14).

Simultaneously, different approaches will be presented with which this strategy is intended to be implemented. Subsequently, the Key Stage 2 Framework will be presented which shall simplify the implementation of the National Languages Strategy in English schools. Being a controversial issue, the Strategy provoked various reactions which are selectively illustrated. Afterwards, the further development of the strategy will be outlined in excerpts in a chronological order until today. The following closing words give an outlook on what will be the subject of Chapter III.

2. The UK's approach to integrate a global dimension into teaching and learning from the very beginning

While speaking several languages presents a major part of everyday life for many people within many states of Europe, the English government likewise tries to change the nation's attitude towards the importance of foreign language learning ever since the turn of the century. This way, the aim of the English government is to better adapt to what is required by a modern economy and global competition and equally intends to repair faults and failures from the past. Foreign languages offer people the possibility to study and to work abroad giving at the same time a better and deeper insight into other people's cultures and lifestyles. Foreign language competence presents a vital key skill for the people of the 21st century, which has already to be acquired in primary school and which needs to be optimised throughout a lifetime.

2.1 Reasons for the necessity to rethink England's language policy

In the course of globalisation and with the creation of the European Union, not only geographical, but also economical, political and the dividing lines of European countries are disappearing, which is the reason why economical and social matters are experiencing a rapid change. All in all, one in four UK jobs is directly connected to international trade and an even higher significant number is influenced by global competitive pressures (Grant, 2006, p.11). Through the advances in technology it became likewise possible that important issues from all over the world were broadcast daily into people's lives and henceforth mattered not only in one particular country or nation, but everywhere. Technology also led to the fact that projects are often coordinated in partnership with different other countries and thus at an international level.

An international labour market with multinational enterprises requires British workers who are able to deal effectively with the variety of different languages as well as cultural and social assumptions. It is necessary and essential for them to gain a better and deeper insight into other people's cultures, languages, practices and systems in order to be able to deal with their similarities and differences. Without this necessary knowledge about different languages and cultures, British workers will not have the skills to influence and direct progress within Europe and the world. With a view to the past, the government concludes very self-critically:

For too long we have lagged behind as a nation in our capability to contribute fully as multi-lingual and culturally aware citizens. Likewise in the global economy too few employees have the necessary language skills to be able to engage fully in international business, and too few employers support their employees in gaining additional language skills as part of their job (DfES, 2002b, p.5).

The government continues with its self-criticism by explicitly emphasising the general deficit of the British in terms of foreign language skills in the past:

For too long we have failed to value language skills or recognise the contribution they make to society, to the economy and to raising standards in schools. This had led to a cycle of national underperformance in languages, shortage of teacher, low take up of languages beyond schooling and a workforce unable to meet the demands of a globalised economy (DfES, 2002b, p. 10).

Given this critical assessment, the English government demands "to challenge these attitudes and inspire people of all ages to learn languages throughout life"(DfES, 2002b, p. 10).

2.2 First steps towards a new national language policy in England

Ever since the Nuffield Languages Inquiry in 2000, which investigated the UK's capability in foreign languages, the inclusion of a language in the primary curriculum has been on the current educational and political agenda. In this inquiry it was found that the UK lacks a workforce with necessary language skills and that the government did not have a coherent concept for foreign language learning from primary school to university (The Nuffield Languages Inquiry, 2000, p.18). In order to improve its communication abilities in other languages, the UK as a nation needed a strategy for future times. Accordingly, the Department for Education and Skills (DfES) presented the government's new National Languages Strategy – Languages for All: Languages for Life – a strategy for England for the next ten years and beyond in December 2002 (DfES, 2002b)⁴. This strategy document is based on the notions as well as the preparatory work of the Nuffield Languages Inquiry (2000), on the DfES Green Paper 14-19: Extending Opportunities, Raising Standards from February 2002 (DfES 2002a) as well as on the proposals of the Languages National Steering Group (LNSG), which was founded in July 2001 (DfES, 2002b, p.2).

The general future vision of the government aims at making foreign language competence a lifelong skill for every English citizen. Through this key competence, the significant possibility of being able to communicate with different people from other cultures as well as the conditions for a mutual understanding of different lifestyles are acquired. Correspondingly, it is expressed in the strategy document as follows: “In the knowledge society of the 21st century, language competence and intercultural understanding are not optional extras, they are an essential part of being a citizen” (DfES, 2002b, p.12).

In this context, it is important to point out that the government juxtaposes two equally important objectives with this formulation, the **language competence** on the one hand and the **intercultural understanding** on the other hand. In order to be able to achieve these objectives, the government has established the following three new priorities.

⁴ The National Languages Strategy only refers to England. The other countries of the UK deal all in different manners with foreign language policy and there is only partly common consensus about foreign language learning.

2.3 The three major objectives of England's new National Languages Strategy

The agenda of the National Languages Strategy consists of three general objectives. First, the teaching and learning of languages shall be enhanced by introducing foreign language learning already in primary schools (Key Stage 2; ages 7-11) and by using the modern possibilities of e-learning. Furthermore, modern foreign languages shall be given a key place within future secondary schools (Key Stage 3; ages 11-14) in England. Second, a recognition system shall be established with which scholars receive credit for their language skills. Third, the proportion of pupils studying foreign languages shall be increased in both further and higher education as well as in work-based trainings. These objectives will subsequently be described in detail.

2.3.1 Introducing foreign languages in Primary and Secondary schools

The government in England clearly points out that foreign language skills are primarily acquired at schools in the first place. In this context, the government considers early language learning in primary schools as the key to tackle England's language situation at its roots.

This way, the English government likewise pursues the conclusions of the Barcelona European Council in 2002, which promoted the acquisition of foreign languages at an early age (see quotation p. 16, Chapter I).

By delivering a positive learning experience from the very start through enthusiastic and supportive teachers and headteachers for young children, the hope of the government is hereby that pupils will strongly be motivated to continue on their own with their language learning in secondary school and above all throughout life (DfES, 2002b). By the end of 2010, every primary school pupil shall have the entitlement to learn a foreign language:

Every child should have the opportunity throughout Key Stage 2 to study a foreign language and develop their interest in the culture of other nations. They should have access to high quality teaching and learning opportunities, making use of native speakers and e-learning. By age 11 they should have the opportunity to reach a recognised level of competence on the Common European Framework and for that achievement to be recognised through a national scheme. The Key Stage 2 language learning programme must include at least one of the working languages of the European Union and be delivered at least in part in class time (DfES, 2002b, p.15).

For many of the UK's European partners as well as for most independent schools throughout the UK this entitlement presents already the norm. These schools have found that early language learning in the primary phase is generally nurturing the

pupils' enthusiasm as well as reinforcing their literacy skills. Children are observed as being more receptive and motivated when learning a foreign language from the very beginning.

In the primary curriculum foreign language learning should give children pleasure and enthusiasm so that they are able to develop intrinsic motivation for foreign languages during this early phase. Hereby the foundation is laid for the children's motivation to continue by themselves with foreign language learning in the secondary school. However, in order to turn theory into reality, each school in England has to find its own way with the help of Local Educational Authorities (LEAs), Specialist Language Colleges (SLCs) as well as other responsible education institutions. At the same time, primary schools have to ensure a close cooperation with secondary schools with which they work together in a local educational network.

Transition from primary to secondary school is of great importance. The secondary school curriculum has to pick up the foreign language learning exactly where it was left in the primary school phase without unnecessarily repeating and overlapping subjects that have already been presented and discussed, so to not negatively influence the motivation of the pupils (see critical comments in Chapter III; p.52). The new strategy includes therefore that secondary pupils shall be provided with high quality teaching and learning at Key Stage 3 to raise standards and to enhance the language learning experience (DfES, 2002b, p.22).

At both primary as well as secondary level, the potential of ICT has to be used more effectively than in previous times. Hitherto, only one quarter of primary schools and merely one third of secondary schools took advantage of the diverse opportunities ICT has to offer (DfES, 2002b, p.12).

Simultaneously, the use of the internet shall contribute to a curriculum online and the New Curriculum Online service shall for instance develop electronic materials for foreign language learning as well as for other subjects. Correspondingly, the department for Education and Skills provides learning materials online through the CILT National Advisory Centre on Early Language Learning (NACELL) for all language teachers. Furthermore, primary and secondary schools shall establish internet twinnings with schools from other countries ('e-pal' links). It is expected that each primary school will have at least one link school in the course of time (DfES, 2002b, p.25).

As far as the language teachers are concerned, it is recommended that schools get back to existing primary teachers who additionally have foreign language skills or who generally show interest in foreign languages. This way, more language teachers can be gained in a professional further training. Moreover, specialist language teacher shall be employed who can work and help out at several schools (DfES, 2002b, p.8). Trainings as well as other kinds of professional development possibilities are for instance annually supplied by CILT to thousands of secondary teachers. In this context, it is also important to mention that local as well as regional Comenius Centres are additionally helping out. From 2003 onwards, CILT aimed at dedicating 60 % of their subsidy to fund languages in secondary schools (DfES, 2002b, p.22).

In addition, specialist language colleges shall likewise be an integrate part in the promotion of this strategy and shall ensure to

[...] raise standards of teaching and learning in languages, increase the number of languages taught, offer vocational and other work-related courses, increase the number of students studying two languages and share their specialist expertise, facilities and resources with partner primary and secondary schools and groups in their local communities, including business (Grant, 2006, p.11).

By receiving additional funding, specialist language colleges shall play a major role in supporting local primary and secondary schools with special focus on the national priorities for Key Stages 2, 3 and 4. They shall be seen as a major help to promote multilingualism and to attract further schools to integrate foreign languages as a first or second specialism. The number of Specialist Language Colleges shall grow from 157 in 2002 to 200 by 2005 (DfES, 2002b, p.22).

2.3.2 Receiving formal accreditation for foreign language skills

The introduction of a recognition system is necessary for both scholars and adults who are learning foreign languages. Together with CILT, QCA⁵ and the Nuffield Languages Programme, the English government aims at acknowledging the performances of foreign language learners in schools, universities and adult education as well as for those who learn foreign languages for their work (DfES, 2002b, p.38). In order to fulfil this long term objective the **Languages Ladder** which is also known as **Asset Languages** (assetlanguages@ocr.org.uk) was established. The latter classifies language abilities in six different levels from beginners to postgraduate or native equivalent level for both children as well as adults. Reading, Writing, Listening and

⁵ The Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) is an executive sector of the Department for Children, Schools and Families (DCSF) (Qualifications and Curriculum Development Agency, 2011).

Speaking skills are evaluated separately. Moreover, the Languages Ladder provides ‘can do statements’, such as for the breakthrough grade 1 “I can say and repeat single words and short simple phrases” or for the Mastery grade 17 “I can communicate effortlessly and confidently in most situations, showing a command of language which enables me to express finer shades of meaning”. The used descriptors go hand in hand with the National Qualifications Framework (NQF), National Curriculum levels (NC), national examinations (Entry Level, GCSE, A-level) and the Common European Framework (CEF) of Reference for Languages. Every progress on different ability levels will be certified by giving learners credit for their language skills (CILT, n.d.b). This way, people are learning foreign languages step-by-step and obtain recognition of their progress. Simultaneously, the gained credits and certificates have become comparable as far as national qualifications systems as well as the European Qualifications Framework (EQF) are concerned, so that learners, employers and providers have a concrete feedback of the current level of proficiency of a person. This way, the Language Ladder fulfils the double function of profile-raising and of assessment just as the Nuffield Feasibility Study claimed in 2001 (DfES, 2002b, p.40).

2.3.3 Increasing the number of English people studying foreign languages

The last of the three major objectives of the National Languages Strategy is to raise the number of people studying languages in further and higher education as well as in work-based training. In order to turn this objective into reality, Virtual Language Communities should be developed and employers nation-wide are asked to support language learning of their employees, so to gain a workforce that can engage fully in international business (DfES, 2002b, p.5). Furthermore, Further Education (FE) and Higher Education (HE) Institutions should cooperate with students showing them that by taking for instance a further education course, a joint degree or a languages element in their degree, new possibilities and advantages will open up for them socially, culturally as well as economically (DfES, 2002b, p.7).

For the government it is beyond doubt that there is not one single model that could be implemented nation-wide. Rather, it is certain that many institutions, organisations and people have to work together if the Strategy is to be successful: the government, schools, LEAs, colleges, universities, employers, parents and learners (DfES, 2002b, p. 4). Moreover, it is a future project for the last decade that should be implemented

nation-wide and about which progresses as well as regressions have to be stated continuously.

In the frame of an increasingly interconnected Europe, this new language strategy presents most of all an approach of the UK of dealing with the necessity to integrate a global dimension into teaching and learning from the very beginning throughout its national schools.

2.4 The Key Stage 2 Framework

In order to put this ambitious program nation-wide in all primary schools into action by 2010, the Department for Education and Skills developed the Key Stage 2 Framework for Languages and trialled it during 2004-2005. All primary schools in England had access to its final version in October 2005. At this point of time, there were 18,000 primary schools and almost 2.5 million pupils in England (DfES, 2005, p.4). This framework offers comprehensive guidance for schools and teachers who are from different starting points on their way to achieve the objectives set in the National Languages Strategy by 2010. However, it shall above all be used to encourage coherence and to support leaders and teachers in fostering a more systematic and structured approach for planning, teaching, monitoring and assessing language learning processes. The framework is not to be understood as a prescription, but rather as a flexible guideline which leaves schools and teachers the necessary margin to develop imaginative and motivating teaching plans on their own initiative. In these plans, languages are closely related to other school subjects of the primary curriculum, which is based on the principle of Excellence and Enjoyment – a Strategy for Primary Schools. The progressive learning objectives of the Framework contain the areas oracy, literacy and intercultural understanding (IU), in which two cross-cutting strands are comprised, namely knowledge about languages (KAL) and language learning strategies (LLS) (DfES, 2005, p.6).

2.5 Reactions on the National Languages Strategy programme

The publication of the National Languages Strategy for England has led to a flood of different reactions, which were partly very controversial.

The negative criticism was above all directed against the decision of the government that from 2004 onwards pupils were given the opportunity to opt out foreign languages in Key Stage 4. Shortly after the National Languages Strategy had been published,

Pachler (2002, p.4-5) already critically judged the disapplication regulations post-14 as a weakening of the position of foreign languages within the curricular requirements for pupils. Instead, he demands for a fundamental rethink about the content and methodology of FLs in the curriculum. Curricular revisions are according to him unconditionally necessary as one is not able to foresee which languages will be useful for the pupils later on in their adult life. He argues that the focus should be laid on language apprenticeship and language and cultural awareness in primary school. He wholly rejects a vocational-utilitarian principle on which the National Languages Strategy is based according to him. His final conclusion for the Strategy is therefore as follows: “The proposal weakens the already low status of FLs in Britain even further and moves the country even farther towards the periphery of the European Union“(Pachler, 2002, p.7).

However, the publication of the strategy equally encountered positive responses, although they also went hand in hand with critical statements and improvement suggestions.

According to Peter Satchwell (2006), the former Chairman for the Primary Languages Network, the National Languages Strategy represents a conception for early language learning (ELL) that can generally receive a widespread approval. Nevertheless, he has several important objections against the previous version, including the fact that he finds the objectives of the strategy far too broad and therefore suggests substantiating them.

These broad objectives have to be determined more precisely and concretely. Especially, it needs to be clarified if the 7-14 foreign language experience refers to only one language which will be taught within one continuum from primary to secondary school or if the KS2 experience only consists of a four-year-run, whereby the training in the foreign language is finished and finally evaluated with an appropriate grade on the Language Learning Ladder (LLL). Will there subsequently be a three-year-run of another foreign language in KS3? Furthermore, it needs to be specified which offers scholars are made for KS4 (ages 14-16). For all scholars post-14 concrete Pathways need to be formulated from the DfES.

In a general sense, Satchwell is criticising that the learning objectives are rather instrumental and not educational referring to Hawkins (2005) differentiation (see Chapter III; p. 52).

Especially for primary schools, it is a question of concretely identifying what pupils need to be able to express by age 11 provided that they acquired a basic competence in the target language. Since the author himself was one of the ‘primary languages campaigners’, he expresses himself very positively about the fact that a ‘remarkable consensus’ about the emotional and cultural value and benefit of foreign languages in primary schools was found among headteachers in a research project of the DfES (Driscoll et al., 2004). This emotional and cultural aspect of foreign language education in primary schools primarily consists of developing positive attitudes to FL learning and to other cultures.

In this project, headteachers also said that they see visiting specialist language teachers only as exceptions in their schools. For them the ideal teacher is rather the normally trained primary teacher with additional knowledge about foreign languages. If the foreign language education is carried out by the primary teacher, then the latter has the possibility to embed the foreign language in daily routines and he can combine in a cross-curricula way the foreign language with other subjects. However, teachers of primary schools do have the required pedagogic competence on the one hand, but not the sufficient knowledge of foreign languages on the other hand. Therefore, in order to provide primary teachers with the necessary language skills, high-quality retraining programmes have to be implemented. As an example and forerunner the author mentions Scotland, where more than 6,000 primary teachers have been trained in such courses in the course of the last decade. Like this, teachers had the opportunity to refresh their basic language knowledge and to further learn ELL methodology in Scottish high education colleges (Satchwell, 2006, pp.47-50).

A further important reaction on the publication of the NLS was the fact that it has led to a number of empirical studies (see for instance Coleman et al, 2007; Barton et al, 2009; Bolster, 2009; Hunt, 2009, Woodgate-Jones, 2009; compare Chapter III; p. 56).

2.6 The further development of the National Languages Strategy

In the following, several interim reports will be presented which document the further development of the strategy until today.

2.6.1 The Dearing Report – Languages Review

Against the background that the take up of languages at KS4 had declined dramatically since 2004 showing for instance that GCSE entries 2006 in German dropped by

14.2 %, French entries by 13.2 % and Spanish entries by 0.5 %, Education Secretary Alan Johnson (Labour Party) asked Lord Dearing in September 2006 to advise him on how this alarming decline could possibly be recovered. Alan Johnson accordingly said in the House of Commons: “The drop cannot be right. We have to do something about it. [...] If the noble Lord says to us, this strategy is wrong and we should go into reverse, then we will listen to that advice and we will do that” (BBC NEWS, 2006).

Lord Ronald Ernest Dearing, who died in 2009 was a respected Whitehall mandarin as well as a Chairman of the Post Office who published three major reports on the future of the English education system (The Telegraph, 2009).

Together with Dr. Lid King, the national director for languages, Lord Dearing was asked to investigate the alarming situation and to correspondingly find some recommendations and proposals for solutions.

On the 28 February 2007, Ron Dearing and Lid King presented the Languages Review to Alan Johnson, the then Secretary of State for Education and Skills, by critically analysing the development of the National Language Strategy from its implementation in 2002 to its status in 2007 and by especially giving recommendations on the improvement of the implementation of the strategy’s programme for future times. Already in the beginning of their final reports, the authors refer to the costs of the language learning programmes. They recommend to continue with the support for primary schools from 2008 onwards annually and conclude that altogether more than £50m a year are actually needed. The biggest part of this funding will be used for the support of teaching. Likewise specialist language colleges shall be given further financial support (so far some £8m a year), as they form key elements of the National Languages Strategy (DfES, 2007, p.2). How the funding situation looked like from 2005 to 2011 will further on be described in detail (see critical comments in Chapter III; p. 54).

In the first chapter of the Dearing Report (pp.3-4)⁶, the authors deal with the removal of compulsory language study at KS4 which became possible for the pupils ever since September 2004. They mention that since 2002 the take up of languages at GCSE at secondary level declined drastically and amounted only 51 % in 2006. The probability that this decline will get worse is according to the authors very likely. In particular socially disadvantaged pupils with poor performance do not chose a Modern foreign

⁶ The three chapters and their corresponding page numbers refer to the Dearing Report of 2007.

Language for GCSE. This result contradicts the fact that in primary schools the policy of languages for all is much better realized with no difference related to social class and ability. This unsatisfactory situation for secondary schools shall be resolved by an improved strategy which aims at motivating learners and supporting teachers (Chapter 3 of the Languages Review, pp.8-22). Previously in chapter 2 (pp. 5-7) successful projects are presented, in which all sections of the population get to know the programme Languages for All: Languages for Life. In the area of Higher and Further Education, universities which have been cooperating with local Further Education colleges or specialist language colleges, were asked at the beginning of 2007 to discuss the value and the importance of languages in schools with their pupils. The universities of Birmingham, Cambridge, Hull and several others have taken the initiative to promote languages in cooperation with local schools. These and further regional projects, which test different methods of engaging with schools and colleges and their learners, shall receive a special funding.

Contacts to employers' organisations, major multinationals and overseas embassies were established in order to support languages and intercultural awareness. The latter offer pupils the possibility of exchange programmes in overseas countries and likewise enable them to gain some work experience overseas.

However, parents shall equally be encouraged to learn foreign languages since they have a great influence on their children when it comes to the decision whether or not their children should continue with language learning in KS4 and beyond. As a further project, the DfES shall develop a continuous programme to foster foreign languages in the context of events such as the Beijing Olympics of 2008 or the 2012 London Olympic Games as well as other important international events. Accordingly, the authors emphasize that all possibilities of the resources of the media should be used in order to raise public awareness on the importance of languages. All in all, the authors recommend that the government continues to intensify its efforts to make the significance of languages to all sections of the population, to young and old transparent.

In order to counteract the undesired fall-off in languages post 14, the authors demand for a rethinking in terms of the offer of languages, which they illustrate in detail as the "New Paradigm for languages" in their chapter 3. According to the authors, primary schools are already heading in the right direction to achieve the aim set by the government for 2010, namely that all pupils in KS2 should be entitled to learn a

foreign language. It is equally important to mention that the financial support is sufficient to make language learning more attractive for children. At the same time, schools have the framework for languages study in KS2 since 2005 (DfES) and schemes of work for French, German and Spanish were developed and published. Likewise, initial teacher training was intensively implemented. All these components provide the basis for a statutory languages curriculum in primary schools, which is the reason why the authors' major recommendation is: "Against this background we recommend that languages become part of the statutory curriculum for Key Stage 2 in primary schools, when it is next reviewed" (DfES, 2007, p.9). With this demand and with the aim to broaden the range of languages offered, increased requirements of language teachers in primary schools are needed. As a result, the authors recommend to maintain primary school teachers and to expand the staff where necessary.

Especially in the area of secondary languages, the new paradigm for languages is necessary, because many pupils do not have sufficient motivation for the acquisition of language. The basic rule of the new paradigm means for the authors that a "one menu suits all" approach does not reach them (DfES, 2007, p.8). Instead a more varied language offer has to be developed which is more strongly tailored to the abilities, needs, interests and wishes of the single learner.

In this context, it has to be avoided that pupils get bored and demotivated, when they have to relearn a language in secondary school which they have already learned in primary school. Therefore the authors recommend that a formative assessment shall be developed for every single pupil near the end of KS2, which shall give the teacher in KS3 information about the current level of performance and therefore about the specific language needs of each individual. The formative assessment is to be preferred over the summative assessment and should be oriented towards the use of the Languages Ladder, the government's national recognition system. These and also further flexible approaches mean that the languages curriculum is to be reshaped. Altogether the range of languages has to be expanded, including Eastern languages, other major spoken world languages and community languages. The range of languages offered has to be suitable for the development at local level (see critical comments; Chapter II; pp.43-44; Chapter III; p.52). Furthermore, foreign languages should not be taught in isolation to the other subjects, but rather in a cross-curricular manner, as for instance in the programme Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) (DfES, 2007, pp.14-15).

Teachers are the mediators of language and therefore need specific competences. Not only they have to be successful with good and well-performing pupils, but also they have to deal with the whole range of abilities, interests and needs of their pupils. Equally, they have to stay up-to-date in the area of information and communications technology and accordingly integrate the latter in their classes. The internet offers numerous possibilities for international exchange programmes of pupils as well as for international conferences. The continuing professional development of teachers can be fostered through contacts with their colleagues with whom they cooperate. The same applies for the collaboration between colleagues of Specialist Language Colleges (SLCs), which supports the network of teachers. The authors plead for the continuation of fundings for SLCs and also for achieving the target of establishing 400 Colleges to enhance their geographical coverage. Moreover, concerted efforts on local, regional and national level with organisations such as the British Council, the Specialist Schools and Academies Trust (SSAT) as well as CILT, The National Centre for Languages, are necessary in order to increase the number of qualified teachers in languages.

When the government decided in 2002 that languages should no longer be compulsory in KS4, the government had of course expected a reduction in the take up of languages in KS4, according to the Dearing Report. It intended to balance the expected decline by introducing languages into primary schools (DfES, 2007, p.24). The real facts and figures however showed a decrease which had never been expected to this extent. For this very reason, the authors raise the question towards the end of their Languages Review whether or not a return to a mandatory requirement would make sense and they finally draw the conclusion that a return to a mandatory requirement can not be recommended at this stage. One reason for this is that only one of the six teacher and head teachers associations plead for making languages compulsory again in KS4 whereas all the rest was against it. However, their major argument is that a suitable solution for this dramatic decline lies in a revitalized organisation of language learning. The new paradigm offers a number of possibilities to do so, including the modification of the previous GCSE, which is planned by the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA). This paradigm shift was described in detail by the authors in their Languages Review.

2.6.2 Reactions on the Dearing Report

In 2008, Lord Dearing published a report on what actions followed the Languages Review (2007) by positively considering promotional material for parents and pupils, which had been released in the same year of the Department for Children, Schools and Families (DCSF)⁷ and which likewise appeared in *The Guardian*, *The Mirror* and *The Sun*. Simultaneously, he praised the participation of the universities which were trying to motivate pupils at schools with their programme *Routes into Languages* for taking up foreign languages. This programme had been expanded from four to all nine regions of England. Dearing pleads for an active promotion of languages. At the same time, he was delighted about the fact that the government had provided in 2007 an amount of £53m a year, out of which the biggest part was used for the investment in teachers. Furthermore, he mentions reactions from high political authorities intending to make foreign languages a compulsory part in the primary curriculum. Likewise, the Houses of Parliament built a group of MPs and Peers, supported by CILT, to promote foreign languages. When it comes to secondary languages, the effective transition from primary to secondary schools is the most important single issue according to Lord Dearing. His previous recommendations to change and modify the GCSE were appreciated by the Department and the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA), which intends to open the GCSE for a range of interests. Thereby an 'Applied languages' GCSE as well as a short-course GCSE will become possible.

In consultation with the QCA it was also decided that from 2009 onwards the 10-minutes test of speaking shall be abolished, as it is considered to be too less time for assessing the pupils' competence in their foreign language (see critical comments in Chapter III, p. 55). The DCSF has given an overview of more than 350 Strategic Learning Networks. The latter will support the KS3 teachers just as effectively as the Open School for Languages⁸, which offers ICT-based learning for pupils and which is fostered with £3m. All in all, Lord Dearing was satisfied with the numerous actions and reactions that had followed after the publication of the Languages Review (2007). The improvements at secondary level were in particular of special interest for him (Dearing, 2008, pp. 97-100).

⁷ Between 2007-2010, the DCSF was a department of the UK government, being in charge of educational issues (DfE, 2011a).

⁸ The Open School for Languages (OSfL) is a project that aims at engaging learners to experience the relevance and value of foreign languages online. A range of materials in different languages is provided to improve the language skills of the pupils on the one hand and to support teachers and teaching on the other hand (My Languages, 2009).

2.6.3 The CILT Report of the Governors from 2010

CILT is the British government's recognised National Centre for Languages and a registered charity organisation which was established in 1966 by the then Department for Education and Science (DfES). It cooperated with the Council for Administration (CfA) and further important partners. As the lead body for language and intercultural skills for the workplace, it aims at promoting the importance of foreign language learning as well as the value of intercultural relationships for everybody. In 2005, CILT merged with its close partner the Languages National Training Organisation (LNTO) and became the National Centre for Languages (CILT, n.d.c.; CfBT, 2006-2011).

In the following the Report of the Governors from 31 March 2010 is briefly outlined. The latter does not only refer to primary and secondary schools, but also to sectors such as profession, society, policy and media. Every year CILT reports about the achievements that had been obtained and accordingly assesses them in terms of five outcomes, which are related to the vision and the overarching program of CILT. The general program of CILT is as follows:

Our charity's vision is for a society in which everyone recognises the value of languages and intercultural relationships and is able to use more than one language. To this end we actively promote the economic, social and individual benefits of learning and using more than one language to the public. We aim to make the benefits of intercultural skills available to all through the implementation of the national occupational standard (CILT, 2010b, p.3).

Outcome 1: "More language learners at all ages and levels of proficiency and from all social backgrounds" (CILT, 2010b, pp. 5-7)

For 2009/10 CILT reports that training programs for primary teachers have been promoted throughout England by providing Continuing Professional Development (CPD) activities for numerous of schools, by cooperating with local authorities and by offering a website as a major source for primary teachers. In the same context, the course Language Upskilling Specification was offered which addresses primary teachers and teaching assistants and consists of over 20 exemplar units in teaching and learning French, Spanish and German. For the transition from primary to secondary school, websites have equally been designed and teachers have adapted to them just as well as to a further project of this topic in which 500 teachers took part. On secondary level, there has been cooperation between 1,288 institutions, who participated in the project Strategic Learning Networks in order to enhance pupil attitudes and attainment

in Key Stage 3. The evaluation revealed that 84 % of all participants were of the opinion that the project work had a positive influence on pupil attainment and 93 % on pupil attitudes. Furthermore, 98 % of respondents were transferring their work within their departments (CILT, 2010b, pp. 5-6). Among the ICT initiatives that were recommended in the Languages Review, MYLO (My Languages Online) was especially promoted. This initiative was presented on the world's largest technology fair as well as in the Education Show and further key events throughout the country. Another recommendation of Dearing had also been put into action: the range of languages offered for 14-19 was expanded as well as the alternative accreditations. Meanwhile, 48 % of schools have now integrated alternative accreditation to GCSE compared to 2006 with only 22 %.

Outcome 2: “More employers recruiting and valuing staff with ability in languages and intercultural working as a key business skill” (CILT, 2010b, p.8)

In November 2009, a national employer engagement project had been established by CILT. In this program more than 300 employers cooperate with more than 200 schools on language projects. Other projects in which CILT contributed essentially were the proposed new Diploma in Languages and International Communication⁹. In this context, the cooperation of employers, schools, colleges, universities and awarding bodies was of great importance.

Outcome 3: “Multilingualism is widely recognized as vital to international understanding and social cohesion” (CILT, 2010b, p.8)

The project Our Languages was initiated in 2007 and came to an end in 2009. The final event took place at the House of Lords where the European Commissioner for Multilingualism was amongst others one of the key speakers. In this project curriculum guides for languages such as Cantonese, Yoruba, Gujarati and Somali were developed in order to consider those rather unusually learnt languages just as much as other languages in national frameworks. Moreover, training material for primary teachers giving classes in Arabic, Punjabi, Chinese, Japanese and Russian was established.

⁹ From September 2011, 14 to 19 year-old pupils are offered the Diploma in Languages and International Communication in selected schools and colleges in England offering them the major key skills employers and universities demand. (CILT, 2008; Directgov, n.d.).

Outcome 4: “Government policy across all departments demonstrates a commitment to languages” (CILT, 2010b, p.9)

The Report of the Governors also expresses their disappointment about the fact that languages were not at all mentioned as an important basic skill in the 2009 Skills Strategy. In this case, CILT addressed the minister and civil servants of the Department for Business, Innovation & Skills (BIS). In this context, CILT points to the necessity to negotiate with the new government about the further future of the National Languages Strategy emphasizing that this has clear priority. According to CILT, more members for the All Party Parliamentary Group on Modern Languages shall be won from the new parliament. Furthermore, an annual program was developed in which languages for employability and languages and the Olympic Games are of major interest. Together with other leading politicians, the former Olympic champion and politician Lord Coe agreed to speak. CILT also works together with the British Council and European Partners in a project that will run from November 2010 over three years. In this program strengths and weaknesses in language policies and practices across Europe shall be investigated. The work will be continued by CILT with the European Centre for Modern Languages and with the European Commission.

Outcome 5: “Increased recognition of the value of languages in society in the media” (CILT, 2010b, p.10)

The value of languages has equally been recognised by the media which dedicated an increasing number of articles und television programmes to this topic. The CILT agenda Why languages matter appeared on BBC1 and an extensive report on languages was published in independent articles on BBC News Online and likewise in The Guardian, The Times, The Telegraph, Teachers TV and in the important German channel ZDF as well as in the specialist press and on the Politics Show. CILT achieved 139 references in the media whereas in the previous year there had only been 91 mentions. On the European Day of Languages, CILT started a campaign in primary schools with the theme “Discover a World of Languages”. The latter was very successful and appreciated by communities and families. Furthermore, CILT is an official partner of London 2012 and uses the “Inspire” Olympic logo.

2.7 The further development of the Strategy in Primary Schools

From the beginning of the new National Languages Strategy in England in 2002 over its review by Lord Dearing and further improvement suggestions in 2007 until today,

the major positive as well as negative aspects of the implementation of the strategy in English primary and secondary schools shall be presented.

All in all one can say that much progress has been made in establishing a new attitude towards the importance of foreign language learning in England. Facts and Figures especially prove that the introduction of a foreign language in **primary schools** has been a huge success. In 2008, a total of 92 % of schools gave scholars in KS2 the possibility to learn a foreign language in curriculum time, 69 % of schools to all pupils in KS2 (King, 2011, p.3). Until today, these numbers may have further increased. By taking now into account how past figures looked like, an eight percentage points increase in comparison to 2007 and a 22 percentage points rise compared to 2006 can be stated for those schools which offer the opportunity to learn a foreign language in KS2 within classtime. By taking the provided numbers from the baseline study of 2002/3 (Driscoll et al., 2004), the percentage of these schools has more than doubled (Wade et al., 2009, p.2). In the study of Wade et al., it was equally shown that the further training of staff teaching primary languages could be improved by 2008 providing teachers with additional training in language pedagogy and proficiency. Through a specific funding for primary languages, these measures were supported by Local Authorities between 2006 and 2008. More than two thirds of schools reported that they were given free primary languages training. Furthermore, in 2008, 46 % of schools reported that they are systematically monitoring and assessing the learning progress of their pupils in language teaching while 48 % would not yet do so. Compared to these figures, there were only 9 % in 2002/03 and only 20 % in 2006 of schools which were actually monitoring and assessing pupils in language teaching. The commonly used testing instruments were the Languages Ladder, the European Portfolio, school-intern produced materials as well as the KS2 Framework for Languages, which presents the basis and guideline for foreign language training in the majority of schools.

All in all, results show that although on the one hand a significant improvement has taken place until 2008 in monitoring and assessment procedures at schools, the greater percentage of schools still renounces these measures on the other hand (Wade et al., 2009, p.2). Another area of concern at English schools is the transition in languages from primary to secondary school. Unlike the opinion of the Local Authorities, English schools do not think that the transition from primary to secondary school runs smoothly and therefore consider it as under-developed. Half of the schools do not use

arrangements which were recommended by their LA to support transition. On the whole, assessment and transition areas remain areas that need further improvement and progress.

In autumn 2008, the majority of schools thought that they would be prepared to integrate foreign languages as a statutory subject at KS2 by 2011 whereas it is still likely that up to a quarter of schools will not be able to do so (Wade et al., 2009, p.2). According to a cautious evaluation of the authors, 18 % of all schools will not be able to offer the full entitlement by 2010 (Wade et al., 2009, p. 4; see critical comments in Chapter III, p. 52).

In this context, the existing reports clearly reveal that foreign language learning is generally enjoyed by children and that this way the foundation for the development of intrinsic motivation in terms of foreign language learning is laid (King, 2011, p. 3).

2.8 The further development of the Strategy in Secondary Schools

According to a recent survey from autumn 2010 by CILT, the National Centre for Languages, as well as the Association for Language Learning and the Independent Schools' Modern Language Association that consulted a total of 2,000 **secondary schools** in England, a major key finding is that the number of pupils studying languages in KS4 is continuously falling in both maintained schools as well as independent schools (CILT, 2011a). The following Figure 2 demonstrates this decline in state secondary schools.

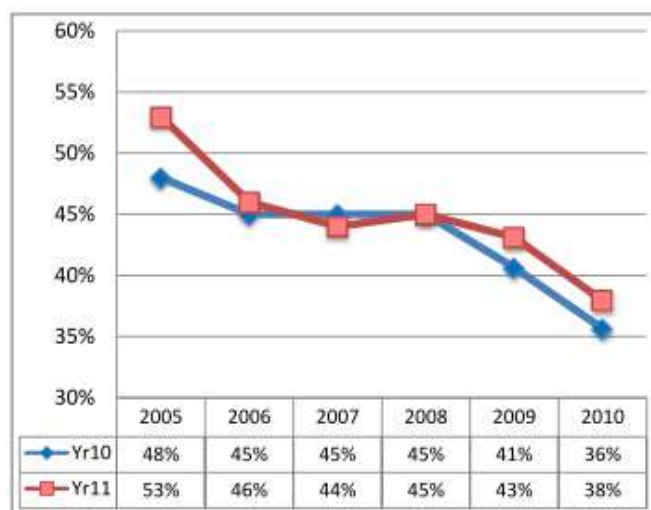


Figure 2: The downward trend of the number of students studying languages in KS4 (CILT, 2010a, p.1)

Figure 2 shows the continuing downward trend from 2005 to 2010 with a lower number of people studying languages in Year 10 than in Year 11. While the decrease for Year 10 has dropped by 12 % from 48 % to 36%, the decline in Year 11 has fallen by 15 % from 53 % to 38%.

The numbers presented here are taken from the data of the survey which was carried out at altogether 2,000 secondary schools, from which 711 have answered (response rate of 36 %). Slightly other figures come from a different publication of CILT, which is based on the data from the Department of Education (DfE) of the 12 January 2011. They equally verify this downward trend (see Table 4 as well as Figure 3 below).

Table 4: The proportion of KS4 pupils taking languages at GCSE, England, 1997-2010 (CILT, 2011b, p. 2).

Year	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
% of pupils entered for language GCSE	71%	75%	78%	76%	78 %	76%	73%

Year	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
% of pupils entered for language GCSE	68%	59 %	50 %	46 %	44 %	44 %	43 %

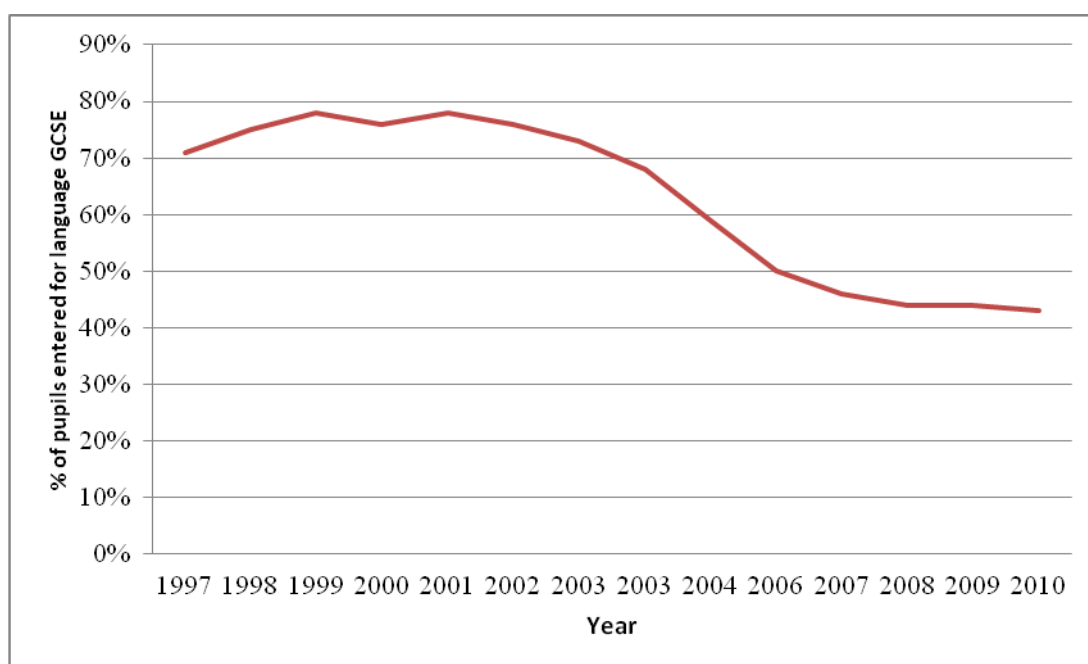


Figure 3: The proportion of KS4 pupils taking languages at GCSE, England, 1997-2010; presented in a graph by the author.

Table 4 and Figure 3 in particular show that the numbers of KS4 pupils taking a language GCSE heavily dropped since 2002, after reaching a peak in 2001. From 2002 until 2010 total language entries have declined by 33 %, so that in 2010 only 43 % of pupils entered for a language GCSE (CILT, 2011b).

When considering now in a further step the percentage of pupils taking GCSE languages in terms of different Modern Foreign Languages, it turns out that some languages are regarded more attractive and therefore they are preferably more chosen by pupils than others (See Table 5 as well as Figure 4 below).

Table 5: The proportion of pupils taking GCSE modern language, by language, England, 1994-2010. For each subject, only one entry is counted for each pupil – that which achieved the highest grade (CILT, 2011b, p. 4).

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
French	55 %	51 %	53 %	52 %	53 %	54 %	54 %	53 %	51 %
German	21 %	19 %	21 %	22 %	22 %	22 %	22 %	22 %	21 %
Spanish	5 %	5 %	6 %	6 %	7 %	7 %	7 %	8 %	8 %
Other languages	3 %	3 %	3 %	3 %	3 %	3 %	3 %	3 %	3 %

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
French	49 %	45 %	38 %	32 %	29 %	27 %	26 %	25 %
German	19 %	18 %	16 %	13 %	12 %	11 %	11 %	10 %
Spanish	8 %	8 %	8 %	8 %	8 %	9 %	9 %	9 %
Other languages	3 %	3 %	3 %	3 %	3 %	3 %	4 %	4 %

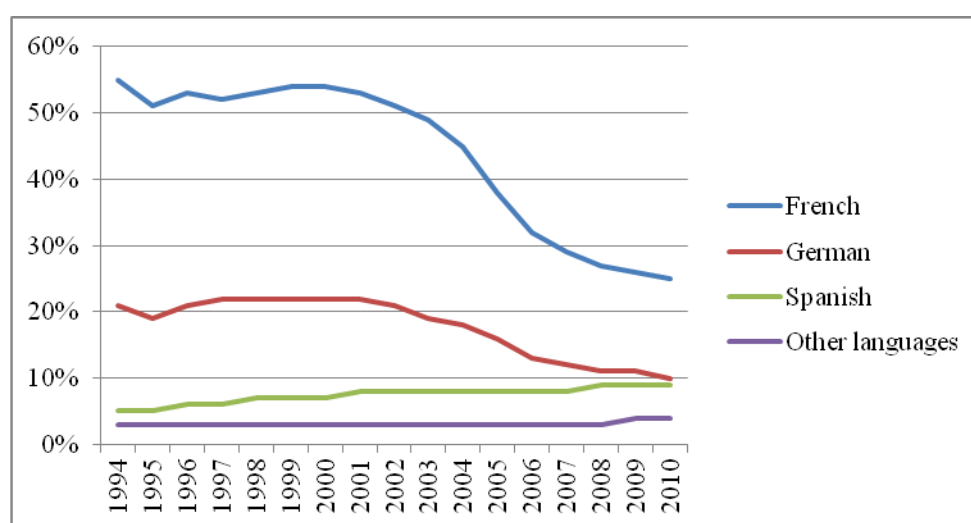


Figure 4: The proportion of pupils taking GCSE modern language, by language, England, 1994-2010; presented in a graph by the author.

French, for instance was studied by 55 % of all pupils in 1994, but the percentage decreased to 53 % in 2001. With the introduction of the National Languages Strategy in 2002, numbers of pupils entering for French GCSE further declined and especially in 2005 with only 38 % as well as in 2006 with 32 % pupils entering for a French GCSE, numbers further decreased. However, even if the rate appeared to decelerate with an annual fall of 3 % in 2007 and in 2008 with 2 %, this downward trend still continued. In 2009, 26 % of KS4 pupils took a French GCSE and in 2010, numbers of pupils reached a low point with 25 % of pupils entering for a French GCSE. Although, French remains by far the most learned foreign language by English pupils, the falling rate from 55 % in 1994 to 25 % in 2010 is alarming.

German is the second most learned language in England. In the period from 1994 to 2001, KS4 pupil numbers who entered for a German GCSE remained more or less at 21 %. However, from 2002 onwards, numbers went constantly down with a rate of 1 % to 3 % so that in 2010 only 10 % took a German GCSE. Ever since the introduction of the National Languages Strategy in 2002, the percentage of 21 % reached a low point of 10 % in 2010.

Spanish on the other hand saw a slight increase from 5 % in 1994 to 8 % in 2001, by contrast to French and German. Ever since 2002 until 2010, the proportion of KS4 pupils entering for a Spanish GCSE remained at 8-9 %. Over the years, the gap between the percentage of pupils entering for a German or a Spanish GCSE diminished.

The total percentage of pupils taking a GCSE in **other languages** remained constantly at 3 % from 1994 to 2008 and only increased by 1 % in 2009. In 2010, also 4 % of KS4 pupils took a GCSE in other languages (CILT, 2011b, p. 3).

2.9 Closing words

In Chapter I, aspects of identity formation were presented, which included both the personal and the social identity and beyond the national identity. The concept of a European identity played hereby a special role. Another focus was put on the presentation of the relationship between identity development and language. Despite the fact that Europe's community of states consists of a variety of languages, English has gained supremacy over other languages as a global *Lingua Franca*.

In Chapter II, the efforts of the English government which aimed at realising the National Languages Strategy nation-wide for both school education as well as for professional and adult life were described. The strategy was presented in its most important aspects and its development from 2002 until today was shown. Accordingly, some chosen positive as well as negative statements were presented. However, the vision of the government of a Languages for All Strategy does not come from nowhere. Within Europe, the UK is the taillight when it comes to the acquisition of a foreign language and to the ability of talking in a different language other than their mother tongue. In order to change this situation with the intended strategy, a change in attitude concerning foreign languages is necessary. Such an attitude change would also mean that England and its people had to deal with other cultures more intensively, which is the reason why the National Languages Strategy is not only promoting linguistic competence in foreign languages but also intercultural understanding. However, numerous empirical studies show that foreign language learning is not adopted by low performance groups as well as socially deprived pupils in secondary schools. Likewise, changes in attitudes are not easy to achieve and if at all then only over a long period of time, as it is also known from Social Psychology, the danger remains therefore that England could stay monolingual.

In Chapter III, the contents of Chapter I and II will be combined and related to one another. Hereby, the question of whether or not England's new National Languages Strategy is able to foster multilingualism and intercultural understanding among its citizens, in order to lay the foundation for the development of a European identity, is in the centre of interest.

Chapter III: England's National Languages Strategy – a step back or a step forward towards a European community?

In Chapter III the question shall be answered if England's National Languages Strategy can either be considered as a step back or a step forward towards a European community. By first of all critically analysing the National Languages Strategy, its implementation as well as its development until 2010, the answer to this question shall be prepared. This critical approach is especially focused on the question whether or not the visions and objectives of the government can be accomplished by the so far introduced initiatives.

However, Chapter III will in the first instance start with a discussion on the most important aspects of language policy and language planning and in a further step it will concentrate on their underlying terminology. The previous terms will then be transformed into new definitions that can be used to assess the National Languages Strategy of England. Chapter III ends with the corresponding closing words.

3. The acquisition of own concepts for the subsequent critical evaluation

In the following, the National Languages Strategy is considered to be the government's Languages Plan and the corresponding terminology corpus planning, implementation planning as well as status planning is transferred on England's new strategy and thus suitable assessment categories are gained.

3.1 Language Policy and Language Planning

Just as the discussion about English as a Lingua Franca for Europe showed in Chapter I, language policy and language planning are of great significance in the process of European integration. Therefore, a policy of egalitarian multilingualism that the EU defined programmatically ever since the 1950s (see also p.15), can only then succeed if language policy and language planning are consciously implemented. A policy that leaves language development to the laws of the free market would probably eventually lead to a monopoly of one Lingua Franca over shorter or longer time and this would only be the language with the biggest economic power throughout Europe - English. In Chapter I, it was likewise shown that the origin of a systematic and active language policy lies in the emergence of nation states in the 19th century. Language functioned

as a national identity marker bringing the people of one nation together and simultaneously separating them from other nations (see Chapter I; p. 7). According to the attitude of the political leaders of the nationalist era, the cohesion of citizens should be achieved by using one common standard language. Such a monolingual orientation excluded minority languages which is the reason why they were suppressed by the political leaders. In the context of linguistic research of language policy and language planning, one hits upon definitions of the following terms in literature:

Language planning is directed by, or leads to, the promulgation of language policy(s) – by government or some other authoritative body or person. Language policies are bodies of ideas, laws, regulations, rules and practices intended to achieve some planned language change. [...] While the distinction between language policy (the plan) and language planning (plan implementation) is an important one for users, the two terms have frequently been used interchangeable in the literature (Baldauf, 2008, pp. 19-20).

Furthermore, the Norwegian-American linguist Einar Haugen (1968) divided language planning into two further components: status planning and corpus planning (Wright, 2004, p.42).

However, it is not possible to follow such a highly complex plan like the National Languages Strategy in detail over the whole period from 2002 to 2010 by enumerating all single interferences and barriers that threatened its effective implementation by 2010. For this very reason, not a list of all observed weaknesses and lacks shall be presented point by point but rather all inadequacies shall be summed up in systematic categories. This way, structural deficiencies shall be discovered which endanger the realisation of the National Languages Strategy and its success. To this end, the possibility is provided to regard the National Languages Strategy as a Languages Plan of the government and to correspondingly transfer the terms status planning and corpus planning upon the National Languages Strategy. By accordingly gaining overarching measurement categories, the latter can be used as reference points for the critical assessment of the National Languages Strategy.

In the following, the National Languages Strategy (NLS) shall be critically assessed by using the three categories **NLS corpus planning**, **NLS implementation planning** and **NLS status planning**. According to this adopted, but modified terminology, the following definitions shall be used as the foundation for further thoughts and elaborations:

‘**NLS corpus planning**’ shall be understood as the whole development of the concept of the NLS from its beginning until its finished version and subsequent promulgation.

Accordingly, the NLS corpus planning deals with the contents as well as the overall concept of the strategy as it is for instance described for the primary school in the KS2 Framework (DfES, 2005). As already mentioned, its corpus consists of the progressive learning objectives Oracy, Literacy, Intercultural Understanding, Knowledge about Language and Language Learning Strategies for the four years of KS2 (see Chapter II; p.32). Equally, the corpus contains concrete descriptions on the annual outcomes that are to be achieved by the pupils at the end of each year. As far as the teachers are concerned, the corpus functions as support to plan and organize the lessons as well as to initiate and monitor the learning processes of the pupils. The corpus for the secondary school is the KS3 Framework (DfEE and QCA, 1999) or more lately the New Secondary Curriculum, which came into effect in September 2008 (QCA, 2007). ‘**NLS implementation planning**’ incorporates all factors and processes of the strategy’s implementation in schools. These, in particular, include the aspects that concern the qualification of the foreign language teachers, the development of the written and audiovisual materials as well as the web-based resources and the Open School for Languages that support the teaching of Modern Foreign Languages and simultaneously promote learning processes. This includes likewise the cooperation with national and regional support organisations.

The implementation of each strategy has to be monitored by empirical accompanying research, in order to gain results in the sense of an efficiency control and to see whether or not the strategy was successfully implemented. The two categories NLS corpus planning and NLS implementation planning can not strictly be separated from one another and rather overlap considerably. This means, for example, that the objective to start with foreign language learning already in primary schools (corpus planning) can only be achieved if simultaneously enough primary foreign language teachers are to be trained (implementation planning). On account of this overlapping, both categories shall be combined in one point in the following (see 3.2.1; pp. 52-53).

The category ‘**NLS status planning**’ concerns the political and legal basis of the promulgation of the strategy and comprises all public actions with which the government intends to convince and win the population. Specific emphasis is given to the promoting of the strategy via media.

3.2 The critical assessment of the National Languages Strategy

In the following, these three categories will form the basis for the critical assessment of the National Languages Strategy.

3.2.1 NLS Corpus Planning and NLS Implementation Planning

Although Wade et al. (2009) concluded in their overview that primary schools are on the right track with the take up of foreign languages, they nevertheless figured that 18 % of all primary schools in England will not be able to offer the full entitlement by 2010 (see Chapter II; p.44). By referring this percentage now to the total of 18,000 primary schools (see Chapter II, p.32), it becomes clear that about 3,200 schools would still remain without having implemented the strategy. This number is not negligible and reducing it as much as possible is therefore an urgent task for the future.

The critic of Satchwell (2006) concerning the learning objectives in primary schools, which belong to the NLS Corpus has already been described (see p.33). The author favours the two-stage approach of Hawkins (2005). Since primary pupils can not be aware of the foreign language they might need in future times, language awareness and the tools for language learning shall be taught in stage 1 (ages 5-14). In connection with these ‘educational’ aims, the teaching of foreign languages for personal, social as well as professional needs follows in stage 2 (ages 14-19). Thereby, the ‘instrumental’ purpose is in the focus of interest.

For such a complex and comprehensive strategy like the NLS, there is naturally not one single implementation model that works for all primary and secondary schools equally well. While a range of alternative models in English schools offer more flexibility and freedom to adjust the strategy to the respective circumstances of each school, alternative possibilities likewise lead in many cases to significant uncertainty and small concordance in the primary and secondary schools. According to case studies of Evans and Fisher (2009, p.4), which they conducted between 2006 and 2007, secondary teachers and headteachers reported “a lack of consistency at present in foreign language provision in primary schools [...] in terms of amount of language teaching taking place, the language being taught and the ways in which it was taught.” The lack of consistency leads to serious problems for the transition to secondary level, as the secondary teachers are confronted with different language competence skills of the pupils and despite this still have to manage continuity and progression in language learning (see Bolster, 2009). This inconsistency results primarily from a decentralised

implementation of the NLS which allows schools to make their own decisions about the range of languages they include in their curriculum as well as about the amount of time per week languages are being taught. According to the New Secondary Curriculum languages can be „major European or world languages“(QCA, 2007, p.166). While in earlier years foreign languages were being taught for 2.5 hours in 2-3 episodes on average per week, the situation has significantly deteriorated since 2004 (Gould and Riordan, 2010, p.208). As huge numbers of 14 years old pupils drop foreign languages ever since, languages classes struggle to keep their place in the curriculum. In the Language Trend Survey 2007 which was published by CILT and AAL one of the key results was that: “Nearly one third of schools have reduced lesson time for languages in Key Stage 3 and 6% are compressing Key Stage 3 into two years instead of three” (CILT, 2007). According to the already mentioned survey of Wade et al. (2008), the class time for foreign languages is just around 40 minutes per week in primary schools.

By shortening Key Stage 3, schools are making conditions more conducive for pupils to obtain better marks across the curriculum as well as at the end of Key Stage 4. Since schools are less cooperative with one another and can rather be seen as competitors, they hope to achieve a higher ranking in the national league tables with this measure, which is annually published. As already said, foreign languages are perceived as difficult and not enjoyable by many pupils which is the major reason why pupils’ results in languages are poor. The altogether low level of language competence leads then in turn to the fall of the ranking position of the respective schools (Gould and Riordan, 2010, p.209).

Such schools which minimise foreign language learning considerably in time are also not very much interested in offering foreign languages in terms of a Content Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). Even if the New Secondary Curriculum demands that certain subjects shall be taught across curriculum areas, it does not necessarily mean that foreign languages are considered (see also Gould and Riordan, 2010, p. 212). As one can easily see, all these school internal decisions which are made in many areas lead to the fact that foreign languages are devalued in the eyes of pupils, parents as well as in adult language learning. These examples likewise show how closely NLS Corpus Planning and NLS Implementation Planning are connected to the status of foreign languages.

3.2.2 NLS Status Planning

As a matter of fact, the respective status languages have in the consciousness of the public as well as in the valorisation of the individual are very important factors for a successful language planning. For the policy of a nation who intends language planning in its territory, this means that it has to adopt a two-pronged approach. In order to make foreign languages reach a high status or prestige in public as well as in the mind of the individual, positive advertising needs to be done on the one hand and at the same time the government must on the other hand ensure that all political reactions which could possibly damage their reputation must be avoided. If the current government followed the Dearing recommendation and made primary language learning in the KS2 curriculum not only an entitlement but rather a compulsory subject, this legal regulation would emphasise the high status of languages. Furthermore, all actions of the government that aim at disposing the acute shortage of language teachers would likewise rise the official status of foreign languages. Last but not least, the government should without any great resistance provide the necessary budgetary funds for the National Languages Strategy's implementation and its further development. In this context, it was a positive action from the government to finance the programme Routes into Languages. This initiative in which several universities developed projects together with schools and colleges aims at encouraging pupils for foreign language learning. However, the funding was limited to four years (2006/2007-2009/2010) (Routes into Languages, n.d.).

According to Lid King (2011, p.1), the Director of the Languages Company, the current government has cut the funding for the NLS in April this year. Only a small amount of the previous funding is being approved which was officially allocated to primary languages. This amount is now however included in the schools' general budgets and not anymore only provided for the primary languages initiative. This massive reduction in funding equally contributes to damage the image of foreign languages.

Overall, it is above all the governmental decision to make the study of a foreign language optional for 14-16 year olds that damaged the status of foreign languages from the very beginning, as is evidenced by the following quote:

Respondents were concerned about **the loss of status for languages** across the school, with some reporting a year-on-year increase in the rate of drop out: 'In the first year when a language became optional we had about 50 % of the cohort opt out. In the two years since then the situation has become worse.'

'Disapplication has already given languages **less status**.' Pupils are already saying in Year 8 that they do not see the point of working hard at languages because they do not intend to opt for them anyway.' Clearly, damage is being done to languages departments in this situation. (CILT, 2003, p.2; accentuation by the author)

Exactly this shift in educational policy of the government which replaced compulsion with optionality, was a massive backward step for the promoting of foreign languages in England. With the view of the pursued policy in schools, the list of image damaging actions can only be continued. As already mentioned in the previous section, schools shorten the class time for foreign languages in the curriculum and partly reduce Key Stage 3 in order to gain a better ranking. Additionally, the GCSE has been revised in 2009. Today, the listening part is 20%, the reading part is 20 %, while the speaking part is 30 % and the writing part is 30 % in contrast to the previous equal weighting. Besides, the 10-minutes oral testing has likewise been dropped (Gould and Riordan, 2010, p.214). By implementing those and similar actions, schools drastically reinforce the low motivation as well as the negative attitudes towards foreign languages of pupils. The attitude that foreign languages are personally and professionally not relevant for pupils is hereby only strengthened. Pupils will do everything, but learning foreign languages. Accordingly, negative attitudes are stabilised and become generally more resistant against changes. On the other hand, the decline in numbers taking GCSE and A-level languages has negative impacts on Higher and Further Education and on the number of language specialists being produced by universities (Ground, p.213). At universities there is a lack of FL students which eventually leads to the fact that "university language departments are being closed down leaving the sector in deep crisis" (Pachler, 2002, p.4). A further negative consequence resulting from the described cumulative reactions is "[...] that languages are becoming an elite subject, studied by middle-class students and offered by only the top universities" (Bawden, 2007).

These and further facts reflect the lack of institutional support for the establishment of foreign languages in the education system showing the dramatic consequences of the devaluated status of foreign languages in the area of schools and universities.

3.2.3 Conclusions of the previous analysis

In the aftermath of this analysis, which had the three categories NLS Corpus Planning, NLS Implementation Planning and NLS Status Planning as reference frame, two key findings are discovered. On the one hand, it has to be stated that in both areas NLS Corpus Planning as well as NLS Implementation Planning many problems still exist which endanger the success of the National Languages Strategy. Inconsistencies and disparate models of provision in schools are the major reasons for this. On the other hand, the analysis demonstrates that the NLS Status Planning is diametrically opposed to the NLS Corpus Planning, its visions, its learning and teaching objectives as well as to the NLS implementation planning. Therefore, the overall situation appears to be paradox, as the government originally intended to promote positive attitudes for lifelong foreign language learning among all citizens, but simultaneously lowers the status of foreign languages through various decisions encouraging and stabilising negative attitudes towards foreign languages.

According to the view represented here, the problems and difficulties in the area of NLS Corpus Planning and NLS Implementation Planning could be removed one after another in the course of time, since they do not represent principle hurdles endangering the success of the whole strategy. Being focused on schools which implemented the NLS, the empirical research has already in the past offered significant services to overcome these barriers. This very fact is furthermore highlighted through the examples of the following three studies.

Coleman et al. (2007, p. 268) have for instance found in a large-scale survey with more than 10,000 students in English secondary education that learning motivation on secondary level is gender-specific stating that “[...] girls showed and maintained rather higher motivation than boys.” To which extent learning motivation can persist the transition from primary to secondary school is according to Dearing (2008, p.97) “perhaps the biggest single issue”. To this, Bolster (2009) published a small-scale study whereas Hunt (2009, p.205) investigated 19 local authority (LA) Pathfinders in England achieving the result „that there was inconsistency between schools, even within each LA Pathfinder, in the use of schemes of work and that assessment was generally underdeveloped in the majority of the Pathfinders”.

The results from empirical research projects are therefore also in future times of great significance for the efficiency control of the National Languages Strategy. The same applies for the annual surveys of CILT and Ofsted which give feedback on

achievements and remaining challenges in the implementation of the strategy. Such deficiencies do not present structural faults.

However, the situation is very different with regard to the second key finding.

If the here demonstrated contradiction between NLS Corpus Planning and NLS Implementation Planning on the one side and NLS Status Planning on the other side is to be removed, a principle rethinking of the government as well as a reverse from optionality to compulsion of foreign languages in KS4 is necessary. If the learning of foreign languages is in the eyes of the government a vital skill for the knowledge society of the 21st century (see Chapter II; p.27), then their removal from the core curriculum at Key Stage 4 (ages 14-16) presents a step in the wrong direction as well as a controversial policy. Therefore, it is concluded that foreign languages have to receive the same status as English, Mathematics or Science which are not optional either. The most common argument of pupils saying that foreign languages are difficult and boring, applies in the same manner to the other core subjects. From motivation psychology, it is known that **effort** is an important and essential factor for a positive and success-orientated motivational structure (compare Weiner et al., 1971). Already in 1974 Burstall et al. wrote: „In language learning nothing succeeds like success” (cited from Bolster, 2009, p.243). Success is however not achievable without effort.

Against the background of this final conclusion, one has to equally contradict Lord Dearing’s statement who said in the House of Commons: „I believe the answers to the questions we have about the recent decline in modern languages are out there in the education community and it is my job to find them” (BBC News, 2006). According to the here conducted critical analysis, the origin for the decline in the take up of modern foreign languages does however not lie in the ‘education community’, but in the language policy of the government (see also Coleman et al., 2007, p. 349; Ofsted, 2008, p.4; Coleman, 2009, p. 113). The vision of the government of lifelong language learning and the therefore necessary and required positive attitudes towards foreign languages can only be realised, if the major cause for the drastic decline in take-up foreign languages is to be removed. For the very reason that the major cause is of structural nature, the gulf between corpus planning and implementation planning of the NLS can only be bridged through a modification of the corresponding status planning. The opinion expressed in this dissertation, therefore, is that it is necessary for the government to make foreign language learning in primary schools statutory on the one

hand and to reverse its decision of optionality for foreign languages in KS4 on the other hand.

Until today, although many successes of the implementation of the NLS in primary schools have been reported so that one could altogether talk about a forward step in language learning, the here demonstrated contradictions between Corpus Planning, Implementation Planning and Status Planning let the current situation rather appear as a backward step. And even if the establishment of the English Baccalaureate¹⁰ in 2010 can be considered as an important step in a rethinking of the government (CILT, 2011f), this decision alone is still too less to ensure a national attitude change towards foreign languages. Ever since David Cameron became Prime Minister in 2010, it remains to see how the new government plans the further course of the NLS. In May 2011, Mr Gibb, the Secretary of State for Education, said in the House of Commons that primary schools shall continue teaching foreign languages as successfully as in previous times until further decisions will be made by the government.

3.3 Embedding the vision of the National Languages Strategy into a broader context

It is beyond doubt that schools and teachers have great influence on how their pupils perceive other nations and cultures. By teaching their pupils history, politics and culture of their own nation, teachers give them at the same time an idea about ‘otherness’. In this context, it is above all important that schools and teachers discuss and correct the negative stereotypes pupils have about foreigners. Their task is to foster pupil’s tolerance of differences between languages and nations in order to avoid and tackle racist incidents at school. However, schools and teachers form only one of many authorities that are able to influence and form the pupils’ perception of other nations and their corresponding cultures and languages. Beyond this, there are also extracurricular factors that have an impact on the pupils’ perceptions. Coleman (2009) calls them ‘environmental’ factors. The family, in which the pupil lives, already communicates either a positive or a negative image about certain nations and their languages. As empirical findings verify and underpin, the social class is an important factor for the choice of languages on the secondary level. Moreover, the peer group to which the individual belongs is equally strongly influencing the individual’s opinion.

¹⁰ In 2010, the English baccalaureate was initiated as a performance measure for pupils who “have secured a C grade or better across a core of academic subjects – English, mathematics, history or geography, the sciences and a language” (DfE, 2011b).

Especially, when boys consider foreign languages to be a female subject, their attitude is of course influenced towards this learning object.

Likewise, pupils receive information about other cultures and languages via internet, television programmes as well as newspapers and are thereby faced with the public opinion on foreign cultures and languages. As Coleman (2009) highlights, the view of Europe and the attitudes to Europe as they are presented in British media are generally negative towards otherness and often hostile to foreign cultures and languages. At the same time, British media are not only encouraging scepticism towards Europe, but are furthermore propagating a type of jingoism, in which the “English is enough” monolingualism is being dispersed. The aim of the European Union to promote multilingualism does here not find fruitful ground.

The media are major authorities which primarily form the public opinion influencing families and making up the individual’s mind about the value of foreign cultures and languages. A substantial shift in the media reports and comments about foreign cultures and languages would be more than necessary. According to the here presented attitude, a reasonable scepticism towards certain decisions of the EU is entirely legitimate, as is evidenced by the current Euro-crisis in the case of Greece, but it should not go so far that the British media propagate a general Europhobia.

3.4 Closing words

After having described the National Languages Strategy with the help of various reports in Chapter II, a critical assessment of this strategy followed in Chapter III. It was demonstrated that despite many positive reports, lacks and inadequacies in terms of the implementation of the strategy likewise exist. The latter do principally not endanger the whole strategy, so that the previous implementation can generally be seen as a forward step on the one hand.

However, the major key finding was the controversial language policy of the government that is found to be the main reason for the decline in the take up foreign languages at KS4 presenting a massive backward step. According to the here represented opinion, the reason for this backward step can only be removed by reversing the decision of optionality and by making foreign languages compulsory again. It was also demonstrated that besides schools and teachers, extracurricular influences form the pupils’ attitudes towards other cultures and foreign languages, which have been presented as ‘environmental’ factors.

4. Conclusion

In the frame of the European Union the command of at least two other languages than one's own mother tongue is regarded as a major skill and thus as a key to successful integration into a European Community. As a member state of the European Union, the UK should thus adopt to this guideline and make foreign language education compulsory for pupils in all schools so to guarantee an adequate adaptation to the language policies of the European Union.

When the study of foreign languages was made optional for 14-year-olds within the scope of the government's new strategy's authorisation in 2004, it was originally believed from the government that through intrinsic motivation with early language learning from KS2 onwards and with the additional help from specialist language colleges, enthusiasm for languages would develop and later on ensure that pupils do not opt foreign languages out, but rather continue on their own to study them. However, numbers prove that this is not the case. In general, every single child in the UK has to study either German, French or Spanish as a foreign language at school. Nevertheless, ever since the introduction of this new language policy in England, 14-year-olds take their chance and drop foreign languages as soon as they can and the number of pupils learning them has fallen dramatically. In other words, the attempt of the government that should actually ensure that the UK goes multilingual, has achieved quite the opposite and the nation is still stuck with too many monolinguals and it is even getting worse.

Just a year ago, the head of education of the National Union of Teachers (NUT), John Bangs, said for instance: "The policy drift on modern foreign languages is unforgivable. It means more young people are ill-equipped for life in a global society" (BBC News, 2010). Indeed, the head of the European parliament in London shared this opinion by saying that "the UK risks losing its influence in Europe because of poor language skills" (BBC NEWS Education and Family, 2011).

On account of the wide gap between business language needs and education supply, it is thus of great importance for the UK to necessarily bridge this gulf and to create a mobile, a highly skilled and above all an internationally competitive and adept workforce, so that the communication across cultures becomes a key skill throughout the United Kingdom.

Schools have the task to prepare the children in the UK for their future lives as adults in a European community. Only by getting to know the value of European civilisation as

well as the historical, cultural and social circumstances in other member states of the European community via foreign languages, individuals are enabled to develop parallel to their national identity, a European identity (Giddens, 2008). What they will be experiencing is a Europe with a multicultural and multilingual community in which the UK is a part.

However, the present already shows us that the UK itself is multicultural and multilingual, as the following facts and figures demonstrate: “12.5 % of children in all English state schools speak a first language other than English. Over 240 different languages have been identified among the school population, of which the most common are Panjabi, urdu, Bengali and Gujarati“ (Gould and Riordan, 2010, p. 214). Despite these facts, which show the tremendous number of migration languages as well as the diversity of ethnic minority groups in the UK, the provisional figures of 2011 likewise demonstrate the further decline in the take up of foreign languages at Key Stage 4 (CILT, 2011e). Therefore, to cease and reverse this trend is the present and future task of English primary schools. All in all, the hope lies in the primary school pupils who shall develop enthusiasm for foreign languages from the very beginning willing to continue learning them in the secondary level and beyond. They shall become a generation that lives and works as multilingual Britons in a multilingual Europe. The analysis of the present dissertation has however shown that currently only little reason is given for such optimistic future prospects.

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