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Multilingualism in Göteborg. The status of immigrant minority languages at home and at school

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Multilingualism in Göteborg

The status of immigrant minority languages
at home and at school

Lilian Nygren-Junkin
Guus Extra



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CULTURE

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Lilian Nygren-Junkin & Guus Extra

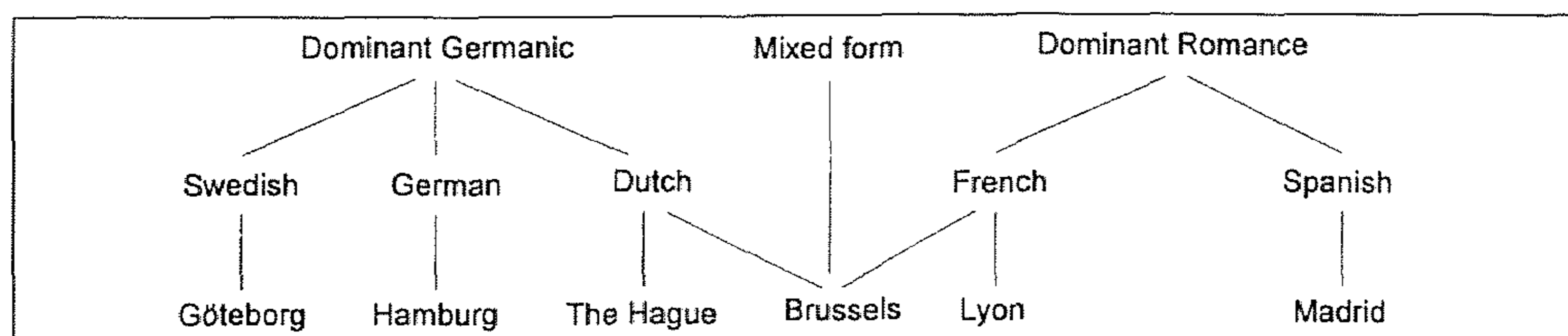
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1 Introduction

In the context of the year 2001, the European Year of Languages, several crossnational language projects were carried out, or at least initiated, in a number of countries belonging to the European Union (henceforth referred to as the EU). One of these is the *Multilingual Cities Project* (the MCP), which was carried out in six EU countries, each represented by one city. The participating cities include Germanic and/or Romance dominant areas and can be represented from Northern to Southern Europe as follows:



Due to processes of migration and minorisation, all of these cities can be characterized as increasingly multicultural and multilingual. The primary goal of the MCP was to carry out survey studies amongst elementary school children on the status of 'the other languages of Europe' (see Extra & Gorter 2001) at home and at school. The major criteria for selecting a city to participate in this multinational study were primarily that it should be a major urban centre and have a great variety of immigrant minority languages spoken as well as a research facility that would be able to handle the local data gathering, the secondary analysis of the data, and the final reporting of the results. The project has been carried out under the auspices of the *European Cultural Foundation*, located in Amsterdam, and it has been coordinated by *Babylon*, the Center for Studies of Multilingualism in the Multicultural Society, at Tilburg University in the Netherlands, together with local universities and educational authorities in all participating cities.

From a Swedish vantage point, the MCP took place at a time when languages in the school system were experiencing a couple of negative developments. A steadily declining number of pupils in the public schools chose to add a foreign language other than English to their selection of subjects in the senior division of primary school and in high school. In addition, the number of languages taught as mother tongue instruction, or home language instruction as it used to be called, was shrinking due to new and more stringent requirements for this kind of teaching to take place. This seemed to point to a future generation of Swedish-English bilinguals with only a very limited number of individuals possessing skills in other languages, be they of European origin or from any other family of languages. In an era of increasing population mobility, intensified international contacts, and a growing global economy, such a development can hardly be seen as desirable. It was thus a relevant enterprise to carry out an investigation that would reveal the degree of multilingualism that actually exists among children in primary schools in Göteborg and that could be enhanced and expanded through the appropriate kinds of policies and programs in the schools of tomorrow at all levels of the educational system.

Sweden's long history of home language instruction through the public education system together with recent cut-backs in public spending that severely affected the Swedish school system, particularly in the area of immigrant education, created an interesting background for this multinational project. Would the Swedish model still emerge a leader in this field, or had other European countries not only caught up to it but even developed past it? What hidden language capital lay untapped and underdeveloped among the children in Göteborg's primary schools? How multilingual could we expect the next generation to become? Those were some of the questions that the MCP might be able to answer.

The present study offers a comprehensive overview of the multitude of languages used by school children from six to twelve years of age in Göteborg, Sweden's second largest city with a population of just over half a million. Due to the city's character of being both an industrial centre and a major port, many of its inhabitants are of immigrant background. The children in Göteborg schools that are born to parents from other countries than Sweden thus make up a sizeable proportion of the school population as a whole (around 25% throughout the 1990's according to local statistics), and the participation of Göteborg schools therefore ensures a great variety in the different languages used by the pupils.

Before we present the actual survey and report the results of it, this study will in Chapter 2 provide some background information about the definition and identification of multicultural population groups and about statistical data that over the years have been gathered in Sweden on the use of home languages other than Swedish by children attending Swedish public schools. These and other statistics about various aspects of school children's choices, habits, and characteristics are part of a long tradition of collecting information about people living in Sweden that has been seen by the authorities as essential knowledge for the proper planning and implementation of the welfare state system for which Sweden has gained praise (as well as criticism) around the world. In this context, we will also present background information on the rise and fall of home language instruction in Sweden.

Chapter 3 of the study presents the framework for carrying out this survey of language use among school children in Göteborg. The goals and methods of the study will be explained in greater detail, and particular attention will be given to the design of the questionnaire used by the pupils in the survey. This chapter also reports on the ways in which school participation was granted and the data were collected and analysed.

In Chapter 4, the distribution of home languages among the school children will be shown and discussed. In addition, comments on the coding and classification of languages will be offered. This also includes a brief typological description of the languages identified in the analysis of the Göteborg data.

Language profiles for the 20 most frequently reported home languages are displayed in Chapter 5. The first set of profiles presents each language from a pseudolongitudinal perspective, looking at the use of it as reported by the pupils in terms of language proficiency, choice, dominance, and preference. The proficiency aspect includes all four language skills, i.e. listening (= 'understanding' in the questionnaire), speaking, reading, and writing. In determining language choice, data about identified interlocutors (family members and friends) were used in the analysis. Language dominance and preference values are based on the children's responses to questions about which language they are best at and like best, respectively. A crosslinguistic comparison is then made, which also focuses on proficiency, choice, dominance, and preference, and these four variables are combined to calculate a language vitality index for each of the 20 languages. Finally, this chapter comments on the use of home language as a determining factor in identifying multicultural population groups. This is contrasted with the frequently used criterion 'birth country', which is becoming increasingly unreliable as second and even third generations of immigrants maintain their cultural and linguistic characteristics, thereby enlarging the multilingual population of a multicultural Europe.

Chapter 6 deals with the teaching of home languages in the schools, both at the national and local level. Not only primary but also secondary schools are looked at here, and the survey data for the so-called independent schools are compared to the results from the public schools. Recent changes in educational policies and priorities in Sweden will be discussed along with their impact on home language instruction, or – as it is officially called today – mother tongue instruction. The survey data on participation in language instruction as well as reported interest in learning languages in school will also be commented on in this chapter.

Finally, in Chapter 7, the conclusions of this study will be presented together with a discussion of how these results can affect the teaching and learning reality in Swedish schools today and, perhaps, tomorrow.

2 Rationale of the study

In this chapter we will first address in section 2.1 the relevance of home language statistics on multicultural population groups, in particular school population groups, from an international perspective. In section 2.2, we will then focus on the rise and fall of home language instruction for and school language statistics on immigrant minority children in Sweden.

2.1 Definition and identification of multicultural population groups

As a consequence of socio-economically or politically determined processes of migration, the traditional patterns of language variation across Western Europe have changed considerably over the past decades (cf. Extra & Gorter 2001). Industrialized Western European countries have a growing number of immigrant minority (IM henceforth) populations, which differ widely, both from a cultural and from a linguistic point of view, from the indigenous populations. In spite of more stringent immigration policies in most European Union (EU henceforth) countries, the prognosis is that non-indigenous populations will continue to grow as a consequence of the increasing number of political refugees, the opening of the internal European borders, and political and economic developments in Central and Eastern Europe and in other regions of the world. It has been estimated that in the year 2000 at least one third of the population under the age of 35 in urbanized Western Europe had an IM background.

For various reasons, reliable demographic information on IM groups in EU countries is difficult to obtain. For some countries, no updated information on linguistic, cultural and demographic characteristics is available, nor have any such data ever been collected at all. Moreover, official statistics only reflect IM groups with legal resident status. Another source of disparity is the different data collection systems being used, ranging from national census data to more or less representative surveys. Most importantly, however, the most widely used criteria for IM status – nationality and/or country of birth – have become less valid over time because of an increasing trend toward naturalization and births within the countries of residence. In addition, most residents from the former colonies of countries such as the Netherlands and France already have the nationality of their country of immigration.

In most EU countries, only population data based on nationality and/or birth country (of person and parents) are available. To illustrate this, Table 2.1 gives an overview of the 12 largest immigrant groups in Sweden on December 31, 2001, based on the birth country criterion versus the nationality criterion, as derived from the Swedish Central Bureau of Statistics.

Groups	Birth country	Nationality	Absolute difference
Finns	193,465	97,521	95,944
(former) Yugoslavs	73,274	20,741	52,533
Iraqis	55,696	36,221	19,475
Bosnians	52,198	19,728	32,470
Iranians	51,884	13,449	38,435
Norwegians	43,414	33,265	10,149
Poles	40,506	15,511	24,995
Danes	38,870	26,627	12,243
Germans	38,857	17,315	21,542
Turks	32,453	13,907	18,546
Chileans	27,153	9,896	17,257
Lebanese	20,228	2,961	17,327
Total	667,998	307,142	360,856

Table 2.1 The twelve largest immigrant groups to Sweden based on the birth country criterion *versus* the nationality criterion on December 31, 2001

Table 2.1 shows strong criterion effects of birth country *versus* nationality. All IM groups are in fact strongly underrepresented in the nationality-based statistics. However, the birth country criterion does not solve the identification problem either. The use of this criterion leads to non-identification in at least the following cases:

- an increasing group of third and further generations (cf. the Greek and Italian communities in Sweden);
- different ethnocultural groups from the same country of origin (cf. Turks *versus* Kurds from Turkey);
- the same ethnocultural group from different countries of origin (cf. Chinese from China *versus* Vietnam);
- ethnocultural groups without territorial status (cf. Roma).

From the data presented in Table 2.1, it becomes clear that collecting reliable information about the actual number and spread of IM population groups in EU countries is no easy enterprise. As early as 1982, the *Australian Institute of Multicultural Affairs* recognized the above-mentioned identification problems for inhabitants of Australia and proposed including questions on birth country (of person and parents), ethnic origin (based on self-categorization), and home language use in their censuses. As yet, little experience has been gained in EU countries with periodical censuses, or, if such censuses have been held, with questions on ethnicity or (home) language use. Given the decreasing significance of nationality and birth country criteria, collecting reliable information about the composition of IM groups in EU countries is one of the most challenging tasks facing demographers.

Complementary or alternative criteria have been suggested and used in various countries with a longer immigration history, and, for this reason, with a longstanding history of collecting census data on multicultural population groups. This holds in particular for English-dominant immigration countries like Australia, Canada, South Africa, and the USA. To identify the multicultural composition of their populations, these four countries employ a variety of questions in their periodical censuses on nationality, birth country, ethnicity, ancestry, race, languages spoken (at home and/or at work), and religion. In Table 2.2, an overview of this array of questions is provided.

Questions in the census	Australia 2001	Canada 2001	South Africa 1996	USA 2000	Coverage
1 Nationality of respondent	+	+	+	+	4
2 Birth country of respondent	+	+	+	+	4
3 Birth country of parents	+	+	-	-	2
4 Ethnicity	-	+	-	+	2
5 Ancestry	+	+	-	+	3
6 Race	-	+	+	+	3
7 Mother tongue	-	+	-	-	1
8 Language used at home	+	+	+	+	4
9 Language used at work	-	+	-	-	1
10 Proficiency in English	+	+	-	+	3
11 Religion	+	+	+	-	3
Total of dimensions	7	11	5	7	30

Table 2.2 Overview of census questions in four multicultural contexts (for each country the last census is taken as the norm)

Both the type and number of questions are different per country. Canada has a prime position with the highest number of questions. Only three questions have been asked in all countries, whereas two questions have been asked in only one country. Four different questions have been asked about language. The operationalisation of questions also shows interesting differences, both between and within countries across time (see Clyne 1991 for a discussion of methodological problems in comparing the answers to differently phrased questions in Australian censuses from a longitudinal perspective).

Questions about ethnicity, ancestry and/or race have proven to be problematic in all of the countries under consideration. In some countries, ancestry and ethnicity have been conceived as equivalent, cf. the USA census question in 2000: *What is this person's ancestry or ethnic origin?* Or take the Canadian census question in 2001: *To which ethnic or cultural group(s) did this person's ancestors belong?* The Australian census question in 2001 only involves ancestry and not ethnicity, cf. *What is the person's ancestry?*, with the following comments for respondents: *Consider and mark the ancestries with which you most closely identify. Count your ancestry as far as three generations, including grandparents and great-grandparents.* As far as ethnicity and ancestry have been distinguished in census questions, the former concept related most commonly to present self-categorization of the respondent and the latter to former generations. In what ways respondents themselves interpret both concepts, however, remains a problem that cannot be solved easily.

While ethnicity according to Table 2.2 has been asked about in the recent censuses of only two countries, four language-related questions have been asked in one to four countries. Only in Canada has the concept of 'mother tongue' been asked about. It has been defined for respondents as *language first learnt at home in childhood and still understood*, while questions 8 and 9 related to the language *most often* used at home/work. Table 2.2 shows the added value of language-related census questions for the definition and identification of multicultural populations, in particular the added value of the question on home language use compared to questions on the more opaque concepts of mother tongue and ethnicity. Although the language-related census questions in the four countries under consideration differ in their precise formulation and commentary, the outcomes of these questions are generally conceived as cornerstones for educational policies with respect to English and other languages.

Bases on this overview it can be concluded that large-scale home language surveys are both feasible and meaningful and that the interpretation of the resulting database is made easier by transparent and multiple questions on home language use. These conclusions become even more pertinent in the context of collecting data on multicultural *school* populations. Experiences in this domain have been gathered in particular in Great Britain and Sweden (cf. Broeder & Extra 1998 for an overview). In both countries extensive municipal home language statistics have been collected through local educational authorities by asking school children questions about oral and written skills in other languages than the national language and about the participation and need for education in these languages. In designing the language survey to be presented in Chapter 3, such experiences with home and school language profiles have explicitly been taken into account.

An important similarity in the phrasing of questions about home language use is that the outcomes are based on reported rather than observed facts. Answers to questions on home language use may be influenced by the language of the questions itself (which may or may not be the primary language of the respondent), by the ethnicity of the interviewer (which may or may not be the same as the ethnicity of the respondent), by the intended or perceived goals of the sampling (which may or may not be defined by national or local authorities) and by the spirit of the times (which may or may not be in favour of multiculturalism). These problems become even more evident in a school-related context of pupils as respondents. Apart from the problems mentioned, the answers may be influenced by peer group pressure and the answers may lead to interpretation problems in attempts to identify and classify languages on the basis of the answers given. For a discussion of these and other possible effects we refer to Nicholas (1992) and Alladina (1993).

The problems referred to are inherent characteristics of large-scale data gathering through questionnaires about language-related behaviour and can be compensated by small-scale data gathering through observing actual language behaviour. Such small-scale ethnographic research is not an alternative solution to large-scale language surveys, but a potentially valuable complement. For a discussion of (cor)relations between reported and measured bilingualism of immigrant minority children in the Netherlands we refer to Broeder & Extra (1998).

In Table 2.3 we present a summary of four widely used criteria for the definition and identification of population groups in a multicultural society, i.e. nationality, birth country, self-categorization in terms of ethnicity ('To which ethnic groups do you consider yourself to belong?'), and home language. The four criteria mentioned are discussed in terms of their major (dis)advantages (see also Extra & Gorter 2001: 9). As Table 2.3 makes clear, there is no single royal road to solving the identification problem. Different criteria may complement and strengthen each other. Given the decreasing significance of nationality and birth country criteria in the European context, the combined criterion of self-categorization and home language use is a potentially promising long-term alternative for obtaining basic information on the increasingly multicultural composition of European nation-states. The added value of home language statistics is that they can offer valuable insights into the distribution and vitality of home languages across different population groups and can thus raise awareness about multilingualism.

Empirically collected data on home language use can also play a crucial role in the context of education. Such data will not only raise the awareness about multilingualism in multicultural schools; they are in fact indispensable tools for educational policies on the teaching of both the national majority language as a first or second language and the teaching of minority languages. Obviously, a crossnational home language database will offer interesting comparative opportunities from each of these perspectives.

Criterion	Advantages	Disadvantages
Nationality (NAT) (P/F/M)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • objective • relatively easy to establish 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • (intergenerational) erosion through naturalization or double NAT • NAT not always indicative of ethnicity/identity • some (e.g., ex-colonial) groups have NAT of immigration country
Birth country (BC) (P/F/M)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • objective • relatively easy to establish 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • intergenerational erosion through births in immigration country • BC not always indicative of ethnicity/identity • invariable/deterministic: does not take account of dynamics in society (in contrast of all other criteria)
Self-categorization (SC)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • touches the heart of the matter • emancipatory: SC takes account of person's own conception of ethnicity/identity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • subjective by definition: also determined by the language/ethnicity of interviewer and by the spirit of times • multiple SC possible • historically charged, especially by World War II experiences
Home language (HL)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • HL is most significant criterion of ethnicity in communication processes • HL data are prerequisite for government policy in areas such as public information or education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • complex criterion: who speaks what language to whom and when? • language is not always core value of ethnicity/identity • useless in one-person households

Table 2.3 Criteria for the definition and identification of population groups in a multicultural society (P/F/M = person/father/mother)

2.2 Home language instruction and home language statistics in Sweden

The history of home language instruction (HLI henceforth) in Sweden goes back longer than in most other countries in the western world. No other European nation has had government-funded HLI for children of immigrant background for as long as Sweden has, while in North America the first HLI in the public school system was offered in the province of Ontario in Canada, there known as heritage language programs, in 1977 (Nygren-Junkin 1997), which incidentally is the same year that it was implemented in the Swedish school system. These two coinciding additions to the public education programs happened completely independently of one another without one country realizing that the other was introducing a similar change to its school system. The Swedish inclusion of HLI in the public school curriculum was preceded by a vote in parliament in 1976 that approved this educational reform, the so-called *Hemspråksreform* (Home Language Reform).

This home language reform was a logical consequence of another resolution by the Swedish parliament regarding the core objectives of Sweden's immigration policy. The bill, which was voted on and passed in 1975, states three main goals for this immigration policy: the equality goal, the freedom of choice goal, and the cooperation goal. The first objective concerns the right to equality in terms of quality of life and the right to a standard of living comparable to that of the indigenous Swedish population. Herein lies also the right to instruction in one's first language, or mother tongue, through the publicly funded school system, just as native Swedish children receive Swedish language instruction as a compulsory part of their curriculum (Hyltenstam & Tuomela 1996), even though they

are surrounded by this majority language almost wherever they go in Sweden (the exceptions being areas in the far north, where many people speak Saami or Finnish, and the immigrant-dense suburbs around the larger Swedish cities, where very little native-like Swedish is heard).

The second and third goals are perhaps even more obviously linked to the right to receive first language instruction, regardless of whether that language is the majority language or not. The freedom of choice objective refers to the immigrants' being able to choose to what extent they wish to integrate into Swedish society. In other words, they can decide for themselves whether they want to maintain and/or develop their heritage in terms of both language and culture or, at the other extreme, prefer to assimilate into the mainstream culture. This choice is only possible if the language that carries the heritage culture is sufficiently developed among those who use this language as a minority/home language, be they first generation immigrants or born in Sweden. The cooperation goal aims at mutual understanding and respect between immigrants and native Swedes, expressed in words such as tolerance and solidarity from both groups towards the others. The best way for newcomers to an unknown culture to learn the new 'rules' is to have them explained in their first language, before they have had time and opportunity to develop sufficient skills in the majority language. Once one understands why another person behaves in an unfamiliar way, it is easier to show respect and tolerance for this behaviour and see it more as just 'different' rather than 'strange'. For school-age immigrants to Sweden, the HLI teacher takes on the role of facilitator in this process (Nygren-Junkin 1997), and the provision of HLI can therefore be seen as an extension of the cooperation objective.

It is thus not surprising that the present Swedish curriculum guidelines for HLI include the dual objective of strengthening the bicultural identity of immigrant children as well as developing bilingual skills in the pupils (Lpo-94 1994). However, the circumstances under which HLI takes place do not always support a genuine desire by the school authorities at the local level to put these educational goals into practice. (For a more detailed discussion, see Chapter 6.) Unlike the early days of HLI in Sweden, the final decisions about issues in education are today made at the local level, including on what to spend the educational funds. In the past, the national government could earmark certain funding to go towards HLI, but today this is no longer possible. As a result, money for HLI only becomes available if the local school authorities decide that they can 'afford it'. Not all municipalities see HLI as a high priority (Skolverket 2002).

Consequently, what was once a very generous and truly democratic component in the Swedish school system has now become a bonus that the pupils may benefit from if they use the right home language in the right place at the right time. The provision of HLI was in the past required of the school, even if there was just a single family that demanded it for their child. After all, the resolution of 1975 did not single out large immigrant groups as the beneficiaries of this three-part policy. Today, however, a minimum number of 5 pupils must be found for the instruction to take place. This is still not a big group, compared with similar criteria in other countries (Broeder & Extra 1998), but it does make it difficult for some of the smaller immigrant languages to be taught through HLI. The group can be made up of children from different schools in the same municipality, but since the school where the HLI is located probably is further away than walking distance from other schools in the district, and no school bus transportation is provided for this purpose, it is not easy for younger pupils to participate, unless they happen to attend the school where the HLI is offered.

An additional restriction on the realistic availability of HLI is the fact that the instruction today is no longer part of the regular school day but is usually placed after the classes in other subjects, at the end of the school day (Skolverket 2002). These late afternoons make for a very long day, and again the younger pupils are the ones who are most negatively affected by this. Yet, older pupils may find that HLI late in the afternoon leaves them with less time for homework or that it conflicts with other interests, which they may well prioritise for social or performance reasons. Participation in HLI can indeed become counterproductive if it segregates the immigrant school population from the Swedish pupils, with the former developing their first language skills while the latter engage in various athletic, creative or social activities after school. Thus, this change in scheduling became an

added burden when the minimum number of pupils necessary to start an HLI group had to be found. Whose responsibility it is to find these children is not clearly specified, and the local school authorities could conceivably leave it up to the HLI teacher or the families using a particular immigrant language to locate enough potential candidates for an HLI group to be formed.

The source of these changes for the worse was a combination of two events that occurred in the autumn of 1990. On the one hand, the Office of the Auditor General in Sweden (*Riksrevisionsverket*) presented a report that severely criticised the way in which the compulsory school system spent government money on teaching immigrant pupils (*Invandrarundervisningen i grundskolan*, RRV 1990) and identified HLI as the main culprit in squandering the funds. On the other hand, the Swedish government simultaneously presented a 'financial crisis package' in which HLI was targeted as one area for intended cut-backs by the Treasury. When the budget proposal was introduced in January of 1991, a total reduction in funding of 50% for HLI was foreseen by the government in its suggestions for saving and belt-tightening to parliament (Hyltenstam & Tuomela 1996).

When, in late spring, the vote on the budget proposal finally took place in the Swedish parliament, the result was that reductions in funding public education were approved, but the targeting of HLI for these savings was rejected. At this time, the Swedish government had also decided to leave all decisions about educational spending entirely to the municipalities in an effort to further decentralize the school system. In the eyes of the local school authorities, the message was loud and clear: despite the decision by parliament not to specifically reduce HLI spending, they instead recalled the government's position in the budget proposal and the recommendations made by the Auditor General, neither of which carried any democratic authority. In addition, it can be argued that the validity of the latter's report can be questioned in the light of how the information underlying its criticism was gathered (Hyltenstam & Tuomela 1996). Nonetheless, when spending for the school year 1990/1991 is compared with that for 1991/1992 most municipalities had reduced their HLI funding by at least one third (*Svenska kommunförbundet* 1992). No recent efforts have been made by the authorities to restore, or at least increase, the levels of funding for HLI.

With the introduction of the Home Language Reform in 1976/1977, it became mandatory for the schools to submit information about their immigrant pupils to the Department of Educational Statistics, which is a part of the Swedish Central Bureau of Statistics. This was seen as a necessary procedure for the national school authorities to accurately plan the organisation and funding of immigrant education in the public school system and to reliably forecast the need for HLI teachers as well as teachers of Swedish as a second language. Collecting and reporting these data on an annual basis became the responsibility of the school director, who would carry out this task in person or in cooperation with the immigrant children's teachers and, if necessary, their parents. The information provided for each child concerned the language used at home (other than Swedish), the enrolment in or need for HLI, and whether or not the pupil received or needed instruction in Swedish as a second language. The required number of teaching hours per week for each home language and for Swedish as a second language should also be reported to the municipal education authorities.

The first statistics on record date back to the early 70's, when the National School Board presented statistical information about immigrant children in the compulsory school system (SÖ 1973). These figures reflected the situation in 1972, when there were just under 60,000 immigrant pupils aged 7 to 15 in Swedish schools. Among them, the Finnish children accounted for around 50%, while the remaining groups were from other mostly European backgrounds. Yugoslavia was the country of origin for almost 10% of these pupils, Germany, Denmark and Norway each had between 5 and 9 %, while Italy, Greece or Turkey was the birth country for 1 to 4 % of the immigrant children (Viberg 1996).

The last year this set of annual statistics was reported by the Swedish Central Bureau of Statistics (the SCB) was 1994. By this time, the number of immigrant pupils had doubled and made up over 12% of the population in the compulsory school system. They reported speaking 125 different languages as home languages, and more than 111,000 received HLI. Finnish-speakers are still the

largest group, but with just a bit under 19,000 participating in HLI they are not as dominant as in the early reports. The second most common language for HLI is now Arabic, while the languages of the former Yugoslavia (Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian) are in a joint third position. As with Arabic, more than 11,000 pupils get HLI in these three languages combined. In 1994, we find Spanish to be the fourth largest HLI language with between 9,000 and 10,000 pupils enrolled, and in fifth place is Farsi/Persian with over 8,000 children participating in HLI. Of the other European countries of origin from the 1972 figures, only Turkey is still in the top-10. HLI in Turkish is received by close to 5,000 pupils on the list from 1994.

The reasons for the SCB to discontinue the annual reporting of home language statistics were both administrative and financial. In the light of the generally negative view of HLI that began to permeate the school system in the early 1990's, it is not difficult to see that these both time and fund consuming procedures were considered unsustainable by the local authorities. As indicated above, severe reductions in educational spending directly hit the HLI after the municipalities alone became responsible for where the allocated funds were to be used. With the change from the National School Board (*Skolöverstyrelsen*) to the National Agency for Education (*Skolverket*) in 1992, the increasingly decentralized Swedish school system no longer perceived collecting extensive national school statistics as relevant. As a result, the National Agency for Education took over the role of collecting statistical data on actual participation in HLI in schools across Sweden, but the figures no longer included information on the number of pupils who had the right to request this instruction or be taught Swedish as a second language.

From these more limited statistics it becomes clear that the participation in HLI steadily declined during the 1990's. The assumption, based on birth country information about the children and their parents, is that the number of pupils who are eligible for HLI has remained relatively constant at between 12% and 15 % of the entire Swedish school population. In the compulsory school system, the participation in HLI has gone from 65% (1990/1991) to 52% (2000/2001), and in the optional secondary schools from 42% (1990/1991) to 20% (2000/2001). In the also optional preschools in Sweden, the figures show a dramatic change from 60% in 1990/1991 to 13% in 2000/2001. The steepest decline occurred in the early half of this decade with only 20% of preschool children 'of foreign background' receiving HLI already in 1994.

At the municipal level, especially in areas with a high proportion of immigrant populations, more comprehensive information about immigrant pupils in the public schools may still be gathered, and this is done to meet local needs in forecasting instructional requirements. In a city like Göteborg, these data have contributed to redesigning how HLI across the city is supplied with home language teachers. The residential patterns in Göteborg show that areas either are strongly dominated by a variety of immigrant groups or have scarcely any persons of immigrant background living there at all. Very few areas present a mix of immigrants and indigenous Swedes. This uneven distribution of the immigrant population creates problems in securing fair access to HLI for immigrant pupils everywhere in this city, especially since the introduction of a minimum group size for the instruction to take place.

Instead of using the 21 city district school boards in Göteborg as the administrative unit for supplying home language instructors, certain districts have merged to form city regions that each operate with a pool of these 'mother tongue teachers' as they are now officially called, in order to secure as great a variety of languages as possible available for HLI. This strategy is also a way to ensure that the instructors accumulate a great enough number of teaching hours for them to have HLI as their only or, at least, main source of income. It also alerts the local authorities to where there might be HLI available in a small immigrant language within the city of Göteborg but outside the pupil's school district. As long as the child remains within the municipality, district borders can be crossed to get a group of at least 5 pupils, the required minimum today for HLI to be provided.

In the wake of this reduction in home language statistics over the past eight years, the data gathered in Göteborg in the context of this study will shed interesting light on what the various languages actually used in the homes of Göteborg's primary school children are and to what extent

the pupils actually who want it do receive HLI through the public school system in this city. The present volume reports on the former aspect, while a Swedish-language report will investigate and document, among other issues of more local interest, the latter aspect.

3 Language survey

In this chapter we will focus on the research goals (3.1) and research method (3.2) of the language survey carried out amongst primary school children in Göteborg. In addition, we will give an outline of the resulting research population (3.3).

3.1 Research goals

The survey is part of the Multilingual Cities Project (MCP) which is carried out under the auspices of the European Cultural Foundation, located in Amsterdam, and coordinated by a research team at Babylon, the Center for Studies of Multilingualism in the Multicultural Society, at Tilburg University, the Netherlands. The aims of the MCP are to gather, analyse and compare multiple data on the status of immigrant minority languages at home and at school. The project is carried out in six cities, in which Germanic and/or Romanic languages have a dominant status in private and public life. From north to south these cities are Göteborg, Hamburg, The Hague, Brussels, Lyon, and Madrid. Our method of carrying out home language surveys amongst primary school children in each of these cities partly derives from experiences abroad with nation-wide or at least large-scale population surveys in which commonly single questions on home language use were asked. In contrast to such surveys, our survey is based on multiple rather than single home language questions and on cross-nationally equivalent questions. In doing so, we aim at establishing and comparing multiple language profiles of major communities in each of the cities under consideration. For each language community, the language profile will consist of four dimensions, based on reported language proficiency (1), language choice (2), language dominance (3), and language preference (4). Based on this database, we will construct a (pseudo)longitudinal language profile and a language vitality index for each language community. In addition, a school language profile will be constructed on the basis of the data on participation in language instruction and on needs for such instruction.

Against the background of Chapter 2, the main goal of our language survey is to acquire insight in both the distribution and vitality of languages used in the homes of primary school children in Göteborg. The value of such insight derives from four perspectives:

- taken from a *phenomenological* perspective, home language data raise the public awareness of multilingualism as an inherent characteristic of multicultural societies and multicultural schools;
- taken from a *demographic* perspective, home language data play a crucial role in the definition and identification of multicultural school populations;
- taken from a *sociolinguistic* perspective, data on the distribution and vitality of home languages across groups offer a valuable basis for crosslinguistic and crosscultural research;
- taken from an *educational* perspective, home language data are indispensable tools for educational planning and policies.

3.2 Research method

The data have been collected by means of a specially designed questionnaire for pupils in primary schools. In this section, we will go into the design of the questionnaire, and the collection and processing of the data respectively.

3.2.1 Design of the questionnaire

As far as the design of the questionnaire is concerned, a number of conditions need to be met. A first prerequisite is that the questionnaire should be appropriate for all children and include a built-in

screening question for distinguishing between children in whose homes only Swedish is used vs. one or more other languages next to or instead of Swedish. In the latter case a home language profile has to be specified. As mentioned before, this language profile consists of four dimensions, based on reported language proficiency, language choice, language dominance, and language preference. In designing the questionnaire, extensive research has been conducted into similar types of home language surveys in multicultural contexts.

A second prerequisite of the questionnaire is that it should be both short and powerful. It should be short in terms of demanded time from teachers and children during school hours, and it should be powerful in terms of an appropriate and transparent set of selective questions which should be answered by the individual children, if needed together with the teacher, after a class-wide explanation of the survey. The survey consists of 20 questions which are made available in a double-sided printed format. Appendices 1 and 2 give the Swedish form and English translation respectively.

A third prerequisite of the questionnaire is that the answers of the children's answers should be controlled, scanned, interpreted, and verified as automatically as possible, given the large size of the resulting database. In order to fulfil this demand, both hardware and software conditions have to be met.

Table 3.1 gives an outline of the questionnaire.

Questions	Focus
1-3	personal information (name, age, gender)
4-8	school information (city, district, name, type, grade)
9-11	birth country of the pupil, father and mother
12	selective screening question ('Are any other languages than Swedish ever used in your home? If yes, complete all the questions; if no, continue with questions 18-20')
13-17	language repertoire, language proficiency, language choice, language dominance, and language preference
18-20	languages learnt at/outside school and languages demanded by pupils from school

Table 3.1 Outline of the questionnaire

In compliance with privacy legislation, the database only contains home language data at the levels of districts, schools, and grades; no data can be traced back to individuals. The answers to questions 9-12 make it possible to compare the status of birth country data and home language data as demographic criteria. The countries and languages explicitly mentioned in questions 9-12 are determined on the basis of recent municipal statistics about immigrant minority children at primary schools. The language profile, specified by questions 13-17, consists of the following five dimensions:

- language repertoire: the number and type of (co-)occurring home languages;
- language proficiency: the extent to which the pupil can understand/speak/read/write the home language;
- language choice: the extent to which the home language is commonly spoken with the mother, father, younger and older brothers/sisters, and best friends;
- language dominance: the extent to which the home language is spoken best;
- language preference: the extent to which the home language is preferred to be spoken.

Taken together, the four dimensions of language proficiency, choice, dominance and preference result in a language vitality index, the calculation of which is explained in Chapter 5. On the basis of questions 18-20, a school language profile can be specified. This profile provides information about the available language instruction in and outside school, as well as the expressed need for instruction in a given language. The questionnaire has been tested previously on many occasions in the Dutch

context (cf. Extra et al. 2002). The Dutch questionnaire was translated into Swedish and tested in one primary school in Göteborg.

3.2.2 Collection of the data

The next step in the data gathering process was first to obtain permission from the local authorities to carry out the large-scale investigation in Göteborg, and secondly to ensure that enough schools were willing to participate in the survey for the collected data to be reliable. There was at this time a sense that many schools, especially those in the immigrant-dense suburbs of Göteborg, felt burdened by a recent onslaught of questionnaires that had been administered to these schools for various socio-political purposes. This, in combination with the relatively hierarchical process inherent in the way Swedish authorities deal with issuing permits for large-scale investigations, set the stage for a possibly up-hill battle in order to arrive at a sufficient number of participants. Furthermore, since cut-backs by both national and local governments had resulted in reduced funding to most schools, the perception that yet another survey could do something to improve life at the individual school level was not prevalent. Therefore, a personal approach was adopted to convince the various authorities and administrators that they should allow this investigation.

Initially, the City Council of Göteborg had to approve the project. After being informed about the Multilingual Cities Project in general and about potential educational planning benefits to Göteborg schools in particular, the council representatives decided in favour of letting the investigation go ahead. This decision paved the way for the next step in the process, that of getting permission from the city district school boards to do the survey.

Each school board chairperson of the 21 city districts in Göteborg was contacted first by mail and, as a follow-up, by telephone (which was necessary in all but two cases) and informed about the project. A similar letter was also sent to each director of the 34 independent schools in this city (see Appendix 3). This information emphasized the desirability of having as many of Göteborg's schools as possible take part in the survey and the positive effect the results could have on planning future language education. The net result of this strategy was that all district boards except one decided to cooperate. (The one that opted out cited internal problems with personnel as well as finances as the reasons for declining to participate.) Among the independent schools, only six agreed to participate, but five of these were among the ten largest in Göteborg, so at least 25% of all independent school pupils aged six to twelve are represented in the data (see Table 3.2 in this chapter).

Already at the district level, a few school boards invited the project researcher to come to a meeting with the school directors of their districts and present the project. In the other boards, a letter describing the MCP was sent to the director of every school (see Appendix 4). Each director would then make a decision as to whether his/her school would take part. In most cases, however, the next step was to phone the director of each school, a contact that was often supplemented by an e-mail document outlining the design and purposes of the project, similar to the letter that had been sent out earlier but had not always been retained by the school directors. If the director then decided in favour of participation, the investigator would usually be called to a meeting with all or most of the affected teachers at the school in question to inform them about the survey. They were also given sample copies of the survey form (see Appendix 1) and detailed instructions about how the students should fill out this questionnaire (see Appendix 2). Concerned teachers of younger children were assured that they could get assistance from the university in helping their pupils fill out the forms. Occasionally, individual teachers chose not to participate, but as a rule the teachers went along with their director's decision to take part. In six cases, the director decided against the participation by his/her school.

At this stage, the questionnaires were distributed. Unless a sufficient number of survey forms had already been brought to the school for the meeting with the assembled teachers, they were delivered in person by the investigator and left with the director or his/her assistant for further distribution to the individual teachers. This was done to ensure that the forms actually arrived on time and in good

condition at their proper destination and that nothing 'got lost in the mail'. In addition, it allowed for any last-minute questions about the survey that may have surfaced among the staff since the meeting. In some schools, this was also the time at which requests for assistance with filling out of forms in the earlier grades were made. In all, ten schools requested this kind of help.

Among these ten schools, only eight were in fact visited by the investigator and, in a few cases, a doctoral candidate to help the children with the questionnaire. The remaining two schools in the end chose not to take part in the survey at all. All their pupils were so young that it was deemed that everyone of them needed assistance, and these schools thus decided that the survey would create too much of a disruption. In the other eight schools, the reasons for requiring assistance varied somewhat. In three schools, it was just the very youngest children, who had not yet learned to read much, who received help with the forms, either individually or in pairs. Four schools in immigrant-dense suburbs cited low levels of Swedish language skills among many of their young pupils as the reason for needing help. In these cases, the children met individually with the researchers to fill out the form. The children in the eighth school had probably not needed assistance, but it is possible that the teaching staff felt overwhelmed at the sight of the questionnaire and assumed that it would be too complicated for their pupils to handle. It was, however, possible in this school to work through the form in groups of five to seven children with one researcher per group.

One distinct benefit of filling out the forms together with the pupils in the schools was that it provided an opportunity for feed-back about the design of the form and a first-hand experience of how the children reacted to the different tasks they were faced with while working on it. Some arrow arrangements on the form seemed to be confusing to the younger pupils, and certain words were unclear to a few children. For example, does 'father' stand for the biological male parent or the mother's husband? And does a twin count as an older or younger sibling? Moreover, some children did not know in which country their parents were born, especially the ones that probably had Swedish-born parents, judging by their names and appearance. Furthermore, using a pen instead of a pencil to fill out the form caused problems, as schools with only younger pupils simply did not have anything but pencils for the children to use. As soon as this became apparent, schools were offered a large box of pens on loan while they had the questionnaires.

In the schools that did not need assistance, most pupils filled out the forms during class time with more or less help from the teacher. Some classes of younger children had, however, been told by their teachers to take the forms home and have them filled out with the help of their parents. This was in not accordance with the instructions provided with the forms, but hopefully this way of getting the job done did not affect the outcome. At least, the questionnaires did get completed. In contrast, another three schools that had already received their questionnaires did, in the end, not fill them out at all due to the teachers' feeling overburdened with other work that had to be prioritised and not having enough time to do even that. As a result, a total of eleven public schools in Göteborg did not participate in the survey.

The participating schools were instructed to either have the questionnaires ready for pick-up on an agreed-upon date or call the investigator when they were all done. Again, as with the distribution of the forms, the stacks of completed forms were, with two exceptions, personally collected by the researcher. And again, this was done in order to ensure that nothing went missing on the way. This was also a way of checking that the stack of completed questionnaires roughly corresponded in size to the number of forms that had been handed out to that school. If a significant discrepancy was found, inquiries were made. This sometimes resulted in additional forms being located, but at other times the reason was that certain teachers had not been able or willing to go through with the process of having their pupils fill out the forms. In the two cases where the schools mailed in the completed questionnaires, one resulted in just over half of the forms being filled out and returned, while in the second case barely a quarter of the original number of forms distributed were completed and sent back. In retrospect, personally collecting the questionnaires therefore seems to have been worth the effort.

The final step in the data collecting process was to check and pack the completed forms for shipping to Tilburg for computer analysis. While the forms were being checked, several of them were found to be missing information that had to be added. For example, just the top form in a class bundle showed the name of the school and district, which meant that the remaining forms for that class had to be filled in by hand before the forms could be sent on. On other forms, the circles on the form that were to be filled in or x-ed by the child in response to the questions were instead circled or framed by the pupil, which would make them show up as empty (=no answer) during the scanning of the data in preparation for the analysis by computer. Thus, those answers had to be marked correctly before the form could be packed. Some forms were simply missing too much information to be of any use and were therefore discarded. Furthermore, those questionnaires that, contrary to instructions, had been filled out in pencil had to be rewritten so that the scanning equipment could pick up the responses. All in all, almost 21,300 completed survey forms, representing around 60% of all school children aged six to twelve, were finally shipped from Göteborg to Tilburg.

3.2.3 Processing of the data

Given the anticipated large scale of the conducted survey, the collected data needed to be processed in an efficient manner. In order to process the questionnaires in an automated and computerized system, special software is used. In this process, four different phases were involved. Each of these four stages will be described below.

Phase 1: Design, testing and printing of the questionnaires

In order to process the data, a special commercial software packet (*Teleform*) was used for all aspects of data processing such as scanning, verification and exporting the data for storage and analysis. *Teleform*, in combination with an optical scanner, allows the user to design, read and evaluate any kind of form. By means of this particular software, data can be processed with high speed and accuracy. After interpretation and verification of the scanned data, the software can automatically export it to a specific database so that it can be analysed. There are three components of the software: the designer, the reader and the verifier. The designer allows the user to create any combination of shapes, text, drawings, and data entry fields. Commonly used data entry fields are supported, including alphabetic, numeric, and alphanumeric constrained print fields, comb-style print fields, choice fields, entry fields and image zones. As the questionnaire is created, one has to define how the data in the fields will be evaluated and how the information will be stored in the database. Once the form is designed it can be used for processing over and over.

For automated processing of the data, the filled-out questionnaires need to be printed neatly and uniformly; stained, crooked or invisible marks hinder data processing. The filled-out questionnaires need to be in legible condition and should fully comply with the original version, otherwise data processing would be impossible. The original version of the questionnaire was designed by using *Word for Windows* and then adapted to be used by *Teleform* software. All the answer fields in the questionnaire are defined for accurate recognition by *the Reader*. There are mainly two types of answer categories (see Appendix 1). The relevant circles should be filled-out by pupils by using a dark pen so that *the Reader* can identify the answer categories. The questionnaire has been designed in such a way that preprinted answer categories cover about 95% of all given answers. There are also chains of boxes in which hand-printed data can be entered. By means of its *Optical Character Recognition* (OCR) capability, the software can recognise and process hand-printed data. In this way, the possible answers that are not preprinted on the questionnaire can be written by hand; e.g. if the answer to the question which asks for the name of the country where the child was born, is not one of the 20 countries already printed on the questionnaire, then the pupil can write the birth country in the boxes provided. As the software can recognise hand-printed characters, all the given answers (irrespective of their number) will be stored in the database.

Phase 2: Scanning, interpretation and verification of the data

After the questionnaire had been printed, distributed to schools, filled-out by the children and returned, the filled-out forms were made available for data processing. When the forms were fed through the scanner, *the Reader* automatically interpreted hand and machine printed text. If the form had no fields or characters that would need review when the form was interpreted, the data was sent directly to a pre-determined database file. If the form had characters or answers that could not be interpreted, the field was marked for review and the form was held for verification.

As *the Reader* interprets the data on returned forms, it identifies those forms that have been incorrectly completed or incorrectly marked, and holds them for manual review and correction. The process of confirming or correcting such forms is called 'verification' and is done by using *the Verifier* software. By means of this software, each form's image can be reviewed and corrected right on the computer, without the need to view a printed copy. Errors in data entry fields are quickly and easily corrected with just a few key strokes. If a form is interpreted without the need of verification, the data is automatically processed and exported to a pre-defined SPSS file without going through the *Verifier*. If one or more characters or answers on a form do not satisfy the *Reader's* confidence test or if a field does not pass a validation test, the form's image is automatically sent to the *Verifier*. Data accuracy on returned forms is enhanced by a number of important features, including hand print recognition, optical character recognition, selective key form image zones, user-defined character recognition confidence thresholds and basic script validations. Verification is the application used to correct those forms that are being held for review. After a form is interpreted and verified, the data is automatically exported to the SPSS data file.

Phase 3: Coding, preparation and analysis of the data

After the verification has taken place, all answers are transmitted to a database. This database can be accessed by SPSS. Before the data can be prepared for analysis, a number of coding stages need to be completed, in particular with respect to given references to countries and languages. In Chapter 4, further information on the coding of languages is given.

Before the analyses can be implemented, the database needs to be prepared for the analyses. This preparation has three objectives:

- tracking down and correcting incomplete categories in the database; this mainly concerns a final check of the correctness and consistency of the database. There are thus mainly three types of control involved: a visual check of the questionnaires, an evaluation done by means of verification software, and, finally, an automatized internal check by SPSS;
- uniforming the database; the answer categories concerning preset languages on the questionnaire and hand-printed languages need to be standardized so that a consistent and uniform database is made available for analyses;
- optimising some answer categories by making them suitable for statistical analyses.

In order to carry out systematic analyses on the data set, a step-by-step developed SPSS syntax is used in the preparation stage. In the analysis stage, another SPSS syntax is used in order to achieve uniformity of the findings.

Phase 4: Reporting of the results in the format of tables and figures

The last stage of data processing is transmitting the outcomes of the analyses in a readable format. Given the fact that the research results should be presented in the same format in all six participating cities in the Multilingual Cities Project, a crossnationally uniform format has been set up. In presenting the results, *Excel Worksheets* and *Microsoft Graphics* within *Word for Windows* are used. Both the worksheets and templates for figures within *Microsoft Graphics* are predefined. In this way, a uniform format for all the tables and figures could be achieved, which then need to be interpreted.

On the basis of the analyses derived from phase 1-4, results in the following domains will be presented:

- the nature and distribution of different language groups in primary schools;
- the home language profiles and school language profiles of these groups;
- the language vitality of these groups;
- the importance of home language as an indicator of multicultural school populations.

These results will be presented in Chapters 4, 5, and 6.

3.3 Research population

Table 3.2 gives an overview of the distribution of primary school children in an age range from 5-12 years across school types in Göteborg at large and in the sample.

School types	Göteborg	Sample	Coverage
Public schools	32,387	19,629	61%
Independent schools	3,720	926	25%
Other	-	274*	-
Unknown	-	740	-
Total	36,107	21,295	59%

Table 3.2 Distribution of primary school children across school types in the city and in the sample (* here = 6-year-olds)

The figure for the public school children includes those who were instructed to mark 'other' to indicate that they were in the preschool year preceding grade 1, which is a compulsory year for all 6-year-olds in the Swedish school system. Among those here reported as 'unknown', a possible interpretation is that these pupils attend an independent school but are not aware of this official classification of their school type. If this is indeed the case, the proportion of participating independent school pupils could become as high as 45%.

Table 3.3 gives an overview of the gender distribution of pupils in the sample.

Gender	Frequency	Proportion
Male	10,373	49%
Female	10,180	48%
Missing values	742	3%
Total	21,295	100%

Table 3.3 Distribution of pupils across gender

As expected, the gender distribution across pupils is almost equal, and there are relatively few missing values. Tables 3.4 and 3.5 show the distribution of pupils across grades and age groups, respectively.

Grade	Frequency	Proportion
1	3,066	14%
2	3,034	14%
3	3,181	15%
4	3,278	15%
5	3,512	16%
6	2,603	12%
7	87	-
8	46	-
Other	1,618	8%
Missing values	870	4%
Total	21,295	100%

Table 3.4 Distribution of pupils across grades

Age group	Frequency	Proportion
5	140	1%
6	2,003	9%
7	3,076	14%
8	3,053	14%
9	3,215	15%
10	3,373	16%
11	3,485	16%
12	2,391	11%
13	160	1%
Missing values	399	2%
Total	21,295	100%

Table 3.5 Distribution of pupils across age groups

Most of the pupils are in grades 1-6 and in the age range from 6-12 years. 'Other' in Table 3.4 represents the school year before grade one, a compulsory kindergarten year, where most of the pupils are 6 years old, although children born late in the calendar year may still be 5. If the 8% 'other' is compared with the 1% 5-year-olds + 9% 6-year-olds, it becomes clear that of these 10%, 8% are attending this preschool year. In grade 6, those pupils that were born early in the calendar year have already turned 13.

Table 3.6 shows the distribution of the pupils and their parents across birth countries.

Birth country	Pupil		Mother		Father	
Sweden	18,981	89%	14,345	67%	13,787	65%
Iraq	315	1%	447	2%	534	3%
Bosnia	250	1%	404	2%	428	2%
Iran	122	1%	609	3%	731	3%
Somalia	117	1%	353	2%	354	2%
'Kurdistan'	91	-	132	1%	153	1%
Turkey	70	-	490	2%	525	2%
Germany	66	-	117	1%	120	1%
USA ¹	62	-	50	-	69	-
Yugoslavia	56	-	204	1%	248	1%
Russia	47	-	68	-	43	-
Afghanistan	44	-	47	-	48	-
Albania	44	-	104	-	108	1%
China	40	-	125	1%	127	1%
Poland	33	-	208	1%	112	1%
Syria	33	-	156	1%	127	1%
'Kosovo'	32	-	71	-	71	-
Great Britain	30	-	69	-	117	1%
Lebanon	30	-	246	1%	283	1%
Thailand	30	-	85	-	19	-
Finland	28	-	428	2%	413	2%
Norway	28	-	151	1%	177	1%
Croatia	26	-	92	-	129	1%
Vietnam	23	-	128	1%	108	1%
Philippines	23	-	68	-	23	-
Belize	23	-	82	-	105	-
Brazil	21	-	35	-	16	-
India	21	-	76	-	73	-
Chile	20	-	128	1%	142	1%
Belgium	20	-	1	-	3	-
Colombia	19	-	16	-	9	-
Bolivia	18	-	20	-	30	-
France	17	-	17	-	27	-
Macedonia	16	-	114	1%	141	1%
Romania	15	-	30	-	41	-
Eritrea	12	-	97	-	91	-
Netherlands	11	-	28	-	13	-
Other countries ²	219	1%	752	4%	1,042	5%
Unknown	242	1%	702	3%	749	4%
Total	21,295	100%	21,295	100%	21,295	100%

Table 3.6 Distribution of birth countries of pupils, mothers and fathers

¹ USA: including 'America' (pupil 15, mother 23, father 17)

² N pupils per country < 10

Examination of the reported birth countries of the pupils and their parents shows a rich variation. Most of the pupils and, although to a lesser degree, most of the parents were born in Sweden. The 2% difference in proportion between the birth countries of the mothers (67%) and the fathers (65%) in the data can be explained by the circumstance that more Swedish women appear to have married/started families with non-Swedish men than the other way around. This is supported by the proportional discrepancies in the birth country figures for Iraq and Great Britain, which both show higher numbers (by 1% each) for the fathers than for the mothers.

Among the children born in other countries than Sweden, the data show similar top-5 birth countries for mothers and fathers, but some differences occur in the top-5 birth countries of the pupils. The parents in this subset are born in Iran (nr 1 for both m and f), Turkey (m)/Iraq (f), Iraq (m)/Turkey (f), Finland (m)/Bosnia (f), and Bosnia (m)/Finland (f). These countries have been the sources of much of the immigration to Sweden since the early 1980's, even earlier for Finland. The children, however, who are born abroad are fewer in number and show a slightly different subset of top-5 birth countries: Iraq, Bosnia, Iran, Somalia, and Kurdistan.

Very few children in the survey report being born in Finland (only 28), while in both parent groups over 400 are born in that country. This shows a high number of second-generation Finnish children attending Göteborg schools, which is paralleled by reports on immigrant children in other larger cities in Sweden (see Tuomela 2001). Turkey as a birth country is only in sixth place for the pupils, after Kurdistan, with 70 children indicating that nation as their place of birth, while the adult groups show around 500 Turkey-born parents in each. Again, a relatively large second-generation of Turkish immigrant children is reflected in these figures.

The parents born in Somalia rank sixth on the list, both fathers and mothers. That this country is in fourth place among the reported birth countries of the children, reflects the fact that Somali families are usually large with many children in comparison with other immigrant groups in Sweden. The same can often be said for Kurdish families, and, not surprisingly, this is also what is indicated by the reports on where the pupils were born. In addition, many of the more recently arrived refugees to Sweden come from Somalia and Kurdistan.

4 Distribution of home languages

The first important outcome of the language survey at Göteborg primary schools is presented in Table 4.1.

Answer to the screening question in the language survey	Frequency	Proportion
Yes: another language next to or instead of Swedish is spoken at home	7,698	36%
No: only Swedish is spoken at home	13,597	64%
Total of the sample of pupils	21,295	100%

Table 4.1 Total number of pupils in whose homes another language is used next to or instead of Swedish

In this chapter we present information about the types and ranking of the home languages referred to by the pupils (4.1) and about the (re)coding and classification of these languages (4.2).

4.1 Types and ranking of languages

The answers of the pupils to the survey questions on languages at home can be divided into the categories presented in Table 4.2.

Reference categories	N types	Percentage	N tokens	Percentage
1. References to languages	75	81%	7,598	99%
2. References to countries	8	8%	40	-
3. References to other/unknown categories	10	11%	20	-
Total	93	100%	7,658	100%

Table 4.2 References made by pupils in terms of types and tokens

The types refer to the total number of different references, whereas the tokens refer to the total number of all references. Table 4.2 shows that the resolution level of the language questions is very high. Only few tokens consist of references that cannot be traced back to languages.

In Table 4.3 we present a ranking list of languages referred to by the pupils (including references to countries that can reasonably be traced back to languages). All in all, 75 different home languages could be traced amongst primary school children in Göteborg. The high status of English and its intrusion in the home becomes apparent from its top-1 position in Table 4.3. Similar findings have been reported by Extra et al. (2001) regarding the city of The Hague in The Netherlands. It also becomes clear that a small number of languages are frequently referred to and a large number of languages rather infrequently; 18 languages are referred to more than 100 times and 9 languages only once. Figure 4.1 offers a proportional picture of the 20 most frequently mentioned home languages, whereas Figure 4.2 offers a picture of the proportion of these languages (token references) in the total number of all languages referred to. Out of these 20 languages, 7 languages have the status of national languages of European Union countries, 7 other languages originate from other European countries, and 6 languages originate from other continents.

Nr	Language	Frequency	Nr	Language	Frequency
1	English	1,276	41	Japanese	15
2	Arabic	871	42	Wolof/Senegalese	14
3	Kurdish	567	43	Estonian	13
4	Turkish	454	44	Czech	13
5	Bosnian	437	45	Armenian	11
6	Spanish	402	46	Sorani	11
7	Finnish/Suomi	378	47	Azerbaijani/Azeri	9
8	Somali	369	48	Bahasa/Indonesian	9
9	Chinese	219	49	Mandinka/Manding(o)	9
10	Albanian/Tosk	212	50	Bulgarian	8
11	Serbian	191	51	Korean	8
12	Polish	184	52	Malay	8
13	German	179	53	Bengali	7
14	Croatian	167	54	Sign language	7
15	French	141	55	Akan/Twi/Ghanese	5
16	Macedonian	139	56	Gujarati	5
17	Norwegian	122	57	Slovenian	5
18	Portuguese	111	58	Slovak(ian)	5
19	Russian	90	59	Swahili	5
20	Tigrigna/Eritrean	72	60	Berber	4
21	Vietnamese	72	61	Irish	4
22	Danish	70	62	Lithuanian	4
23	Turoyo	70	63	Khmer/Cambodian	3
24	Greek	64	64	Afrikaans	2
25	Romani/Sinte	62	65	Lao	2
26	Thai	61	66	Nepali	2
27	Italian	56	67	Bambili	1
28	Hungarian	48	68	Bisaya	1
29	Tagalog/Filipino	44	69	Catalan	1
30	Dari/Pashto/Afghani	36	70	Luo	1
31	Icelandic	34	71	Moldavian	1
32	Romanian	33	72	Quechua	1
33	Urdu/Pakistani	31	73	Telugu	1
34	Hindi	26	74	Uigur	1
35	Turkmen(ian)	24	75	Zaza	1
36	Dutch	21			
37	Panjabi	19			
38	Hebrew/Ivrit	17			
39	Amharic/Ethiopian	16			
40	Farsi	16			
Total tokens					7,598

Table 4.3 Ranking list of references made to languages

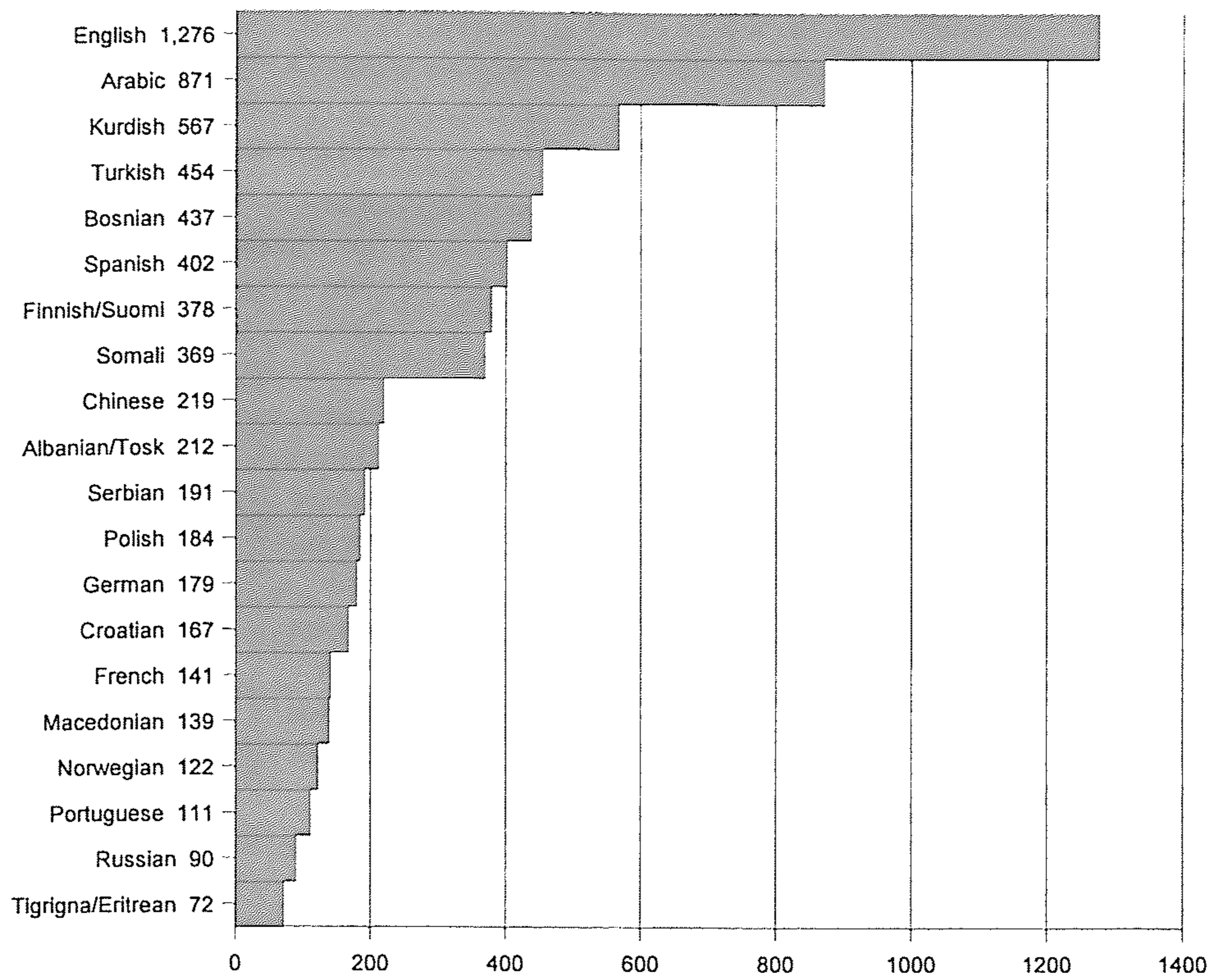


Figure 4.1 Overview of the 20 most frequently mentioned home languages in Göteborg

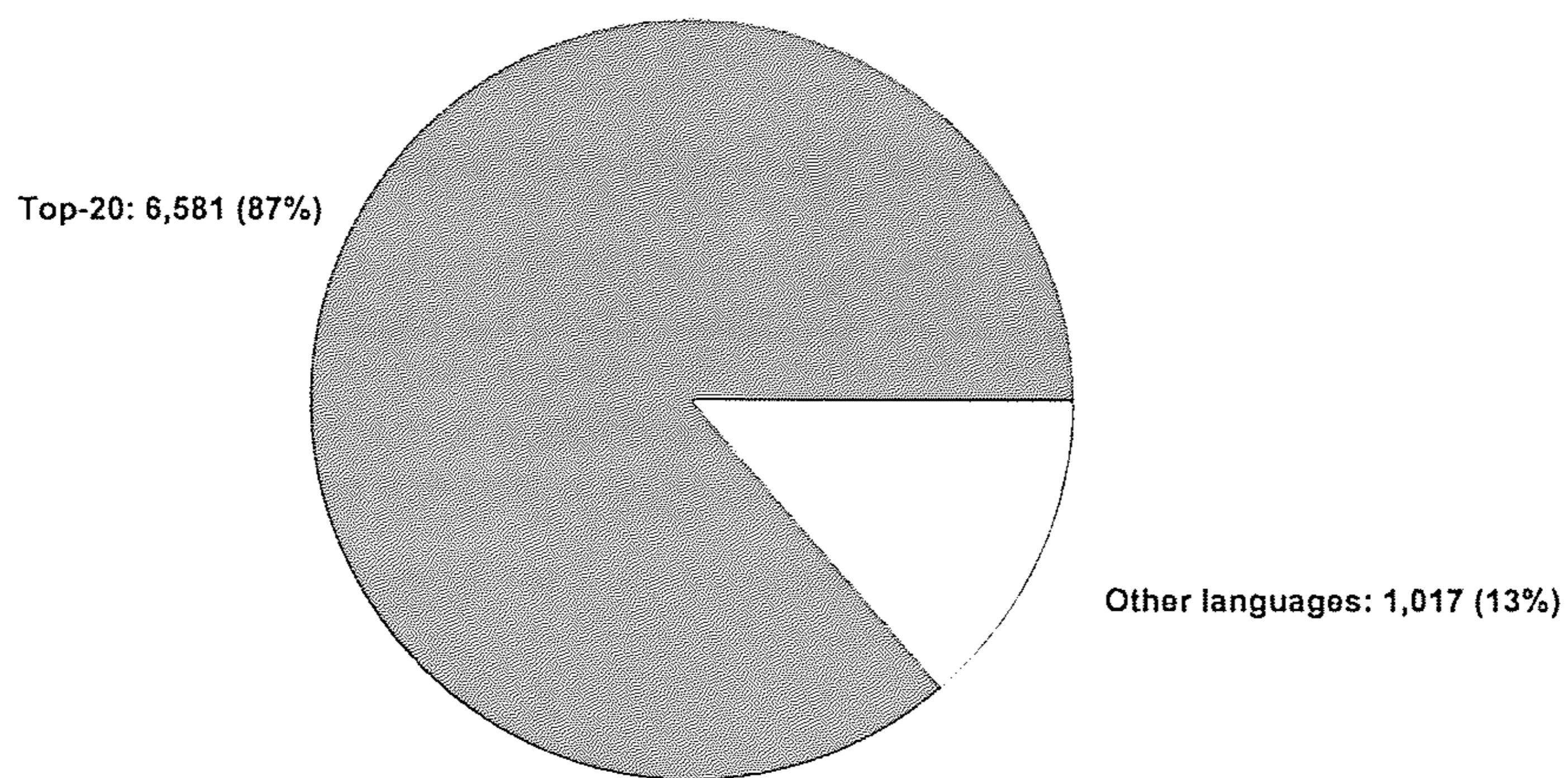


Figure 4.2 Proportion of the 20 most frequently mentioned home languages on the total number of all languages referred to

Table 4.4 offers an overview of the top-25 of world languages derived from *The Ethnologue* (www.sil.org/ethnologue) and the representation of these world languages in Figure 4.1.

Nr	Language	Speakers (in millions)	Primary country
1	Chinese-Mandarin *	1,000	China
2	English *	1,000	Great Britain
3	Hindi + Urdu	900	India
4	Spanish *	450	Spain
5	Russian *	320	Russia
6	Arabic *	250	Egypt
7	Bengali	250	Bangladesh
8	Portuguese *	200	Portugal
9	Malay + Indonesian	160	Indonesia
10	Japanese	130	Japan
11	German *	125	Germany
12	French *	125	France
13	Thai + Lao	90	Thailand
14	Panjabi	85	Pakistan
15	Chinese-Wu *	85	China
16	Javanese	80	Indonesia
17	Marathi	80	India
18	Korean	75	Korea
19	Vietnamese	75	Vietnam
20	Italian	70	Italy
21	Tamil	70	India
22	Telugu	70	India
23	Chinese-Cantonese *	70	China
24	Bhojpuri-Maithili	60	India
25	Turkish *	60	Turkey

Table 4.4 Top-25 of world languages and their representation (*) in the top-20 of the Göteborg sample

Out of the top-25 of world languages, 11 languages are represented in the top-20 of home languages in Göteborg. The languages of China in the world top-25 have not been split up in the top-20 of Göteborg.

In Table 4.5 we present an overview of the types and tokens of the second answer category referred to in Table 4.3, i.e. references to (properties of) countries that cannot be traced back to languages.

References		Frequency
1	Moroccan	10
2	Gambian	9
3	Ugandese	6
4	Iraqi	5
5	'Kosovar'	4
6	Nigerian	3
7	Zambian	2
8	Kenyan	1
Total tokens		40

Table 4.5 References made to countries

As Table 4.5 makes clear, the total list contains only few types and tokens. The same holds for the third answer category referred to in Table 4.2, i.e. references to other/unknown categories.

References		Frequency
1	Creole/Pidgin	11
2	Barawa	1
3	Blenska	1
4	Cebuano	1
5	Ivanska	1
6	Lipska	1
7	Navalanska	1
8	Sagenska	1
9	Sumanska	1
10	Tiarimsa	1
Total tokens		20

Table 4.6 References made to other/unknown categories

Apart from references to *Creole* or *Pidgin*, 9 out of 10 references are single references.

4.2 Coding and classification of languages

In this section we present a short typological description of the 75 languages that have been traced in the Göteborg language survey. The list of languages is presented in alphabetical order and contains references to languages and languages/countries (in the latter case, references to languages are presented first). For each language, information is given about the estimated number of speakers, the geographical distribution, and the typological classification (up to maximally four levels of specification). In addition, some relevant facts about each language are presented. Most of the information is derived from the current database of *The Ethnologue* (www.sil.org/ethnologue; see also Grimes 1996). For other resources we refer to Dalby (1999/2000), Campbell (2000), Giacalone Ramat & Ramat (1998), and Crystal (1997).

- 1 **Afrikaans**
 Population: 6,200,000 in South Africa (1991), of whom 1,000,000 are native bilinguals with English, 15% of the population. 4,000,000 in South Africa use it as a second or third language. Population total all countries 6,381,000. Including second language users: 10,000,000 (1999 WA).
 Region: Pretoria and Bloemfontein are principal centers of population. Cape Malays live mainly in Capetown, with some in Johannesburg, Pretoria, Durban, and Port Elizabeth. Also spoken in Australia, Botswana, Canada, Lesotho, Malawi, Namibia, New Zealand, Zambia, Zimbabwe.
 Classification: Indo-European, Germanic, West, Low Saxon-Low Franconian.
 Comments: One of the eleven official languages of South Africa. Derived from the Dutch spoken by the 17th century colonists, with some lexical and syntactic borrowings from Malay, Bantu languages, Khoisan languages, Portuguese, and other European languages.

- 2 **Akan/Twi/Ghanese**
 Population: 7,000,000 in Ghana (1995 WA), 44% of the population (1990 WA). 1,170,000 Asante Twi, 4,300,000 Fante, 230,000 Akuapem Twi (1993 UBS).
 Region: The Asante are south central, Ashanti Province. The Akuapem are southeast, in areas north of Accra. The Fante are south central, between Winneba, Takoradi, and Obuasi.
 Classification: Niger-Congo, Atlantic-Congo, Volta-Congo, Kwa.
 Comments: Official language, used at schools and in literature. Dialects are largely inherently intelligible. The speech of the Asante and Akuapem is called 'Twi'. Literacy rate in first language: 30% to 60%. Literacy rate in second language: 5% to 10%.

- 3 **Albanian/Tosk**
 Population: 2,900,000 in Albania (1989). 3,202,000 in Albania including Gheg (1989), 98% of the population (1989). Population total all countries 3,000,000 for Tosk, 5,000,000 for all Albanian (WA 1999).
 Region: Mainly south Albania to the Shkumbi River. Also spoken in Belgium, Bulgaria, Canada, Egypt, Germany, Greece, Italy, Macedonia, Romania, Slovenia, Sweden, Turkey (Europe), Ukraine, USA, Yugoslavia.
 Classification: Indo-European, Albanian, Tosk.
 Comments: National language. Reported to be inherently unintelligible with Gheg Albanian and partially intelligible with Arvanitika Albanian of Greece. Not intelligible with Arbëreshë of Italy. Tosk has been the basis of the official language for Standard Albanian since 1952. It is used in schools.

- 4 **Amharic/Ethiopian**
 Population: 17,372,913 mother tongue speakers in Ethiopia, 5,104,150 second language users, 16,007,933 in the ethnic group, 14,743,556 monolinguals in Ethiopia (1998 census). Population total all countries 17,413,000 or more. 21,000,000 including second language users (1999 WA).
 Region: North central Ethiopia, Amhara Region, and in Addis Ababa. Also spoken in Egypt, Israel, Sweden.
 Classification: Afro-Asiatic, Semitic, South, Ethiopian.
 Comments: National language. Bilingualism in English, Arabic, Oromo, Tigrinya. Used in government, public media, national business, education to seventh grade in

many areas, wide variety of literature. Literacy rate in first language: 28.1%.
Literacy rate in second language: 28.1%.

5 **Arabic**

- Population: No estimate available.
Region: Middle east, north Africa, other Muslim countries. Also spoken in 24 other countries including Algeria, Bahrain, Chad, Comoros Islands, Egypt, Eritrea, Iraq, Israel, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Morocco, Oman, Palestinian West Bank and Gaza, Qatar, Somalia, Sudan, Syria, Tanzania, Tunisia, United Arab Emirates (UAE henceforth), Yemen.
Classification: Afro-Asiatic, Semitic, Central, Arabic.
Comments: Used for education, official purposes, written materials, and formal speeches. Classical Arabic is used for religion and ceremonial purposes, having archaic vocabulary. Modern Standard Arabic is a modernized variety of Classical Arabic. In most Arab countries only the well educated have adequate proficiency in Standard Arabic, while over 100,500,000 do not. Not a mother tongue, but taught in schools.

6 **Armenian**

- Population: 3,197,000 in Armenia. 91% of the ethnic group in the former USSR spoke it as mother tongue (1979 census). Population total all countries 6,000,000 (1999 WA).
Region: Throughout the country. Also spoken in 29 other countries including Azerbaijan, Bulgaria, Canada, Cyprus, Egypt, Estonia, France, Georgia, Greece, Honduras, Hungary, India, Iran, Iraq, Israel, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Lebanon, Syria, Turkey.
Classification: Indo-European, Armenian.
Comments: National language. All dialects in all countries usually reported to be mutually intelligible. Russian second language of about 30% of Armenians in Armenia. Eastern Armenian (Ashkharik) spoken in Armenia, Turkey, Iran. Armenian script.

7 **Azerbaijani/Azeri**

The Northern variety is mainly spoken in Azerbaijan, the Southern variety mainly in Iran.

Northern variety

- Population: 6,069,453 in Azerbaijan. In the republics of the former USSR, 98% of the ethnic group speak Azerbaijani as mother tongue, 4,000,000 are monolingual (1989 census). Population total all countries 7,059,000. Including second language speakers: 15,000,000.
Region: Azerbaijan, and southern Dagestan, along the Caspian coast in the southern Caucasian Mts. Also spoken in Armenia, Estonia, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Russia (Asia), Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan.

Southern variety

- Population: 23,500,000 in Iran (1997), or 37.3% of the population (1997). Population total all countries 24,364,000.
Region: East and west Azerbaijan, Zanjan, and part of central provinces. Many in a few districts of Tehran. Some Azerbaijani-speaking groups are in Fars Province and other parts of Iran. Also spoken in Afghanistan, Azerbaijan, Iraq, Jordan, Syria, Turkey (Asia), USA.
Classification: Altaic, Turkic, Southern, Azerbaijani.

Comments: Azerbaijani in Azerbaijan is the national language. Significant differences between North and South Azerbaijani in phonology, lexicon, morphology, syntax, and loanwords. Speakers of the two varieties feel that they belong to one ethnic group, but recognize that there are differences in both the spoken and written forms. Each has problems accepting the written form of the other. North Azerbaijan has officially Roman script, but Cyrillic script is widely used as well. South Azerbaijan has Arabic-Persian script.

8 **Bahasa/Indonesian**

Population: 17,000,000 to 30,000,000 mother tongue speakers in Indonesia; over 140,000,000 second language users with varying levels of speaking and reading proficiency. Population total all countries 17,050,000 to 30,000,000.

Region: Used in all regions of Indonesia. Also spoken in the Netherlands, Philippines, Saudi Arabia, Singapore, USA.

Classification: Austronesian, Malayo-Polynesian, Western Malayo-Polynesian, Sundic.

Comments: National language. Reported to be modelled on Riau Malay of northeast Sumatra. Has regional variants. Over 80% cognate with Standard Malay. Roman and Arabic scripts.

9 **Bambili**

Population: 10,000 or fewer in Cameroon.

Region: Bambili and Bambui villages east of Bamenda, along Ring Road, Tuba Sub-division, Mezam Division, North West Province.

Classification: Niger-Congo, Atlantic-Congo, Volta-Congo, Benue-Congo.

Comments: Inherent intelligibility is low between them and Nkwen and Mendankwe. They associate more with Bafut than with Nkwen and Mendankwe. Literacy rate in first language: Below 1%. Literacy rate in second language: 15% to 25%.

10 **Bengali**

Population: 100,000,000 in Bangladesh (1994 UBS), 98% of the population (1990 WA). Population total all countries 207,000,000 first language speakers (1999 WA), 211,000,000 including second language speakers (1999 WA).

Region: Western. Also spoken in India, Malawi, Nepal, Saudi Arabia, Singapore, UAE, United Kingdom, USA.

Classification: Indo-European, Indo-Iranian, Indo-Aryan, Eastern.

Comments: National language. Bengali script.

11 **Berber**

Cover term for different Berber languages, in particular Tarifit, Tashelhit, and Tamazight in Morocco.

Population: Estimated at 5,700,000 in Morocco.
Tarifit: 1,500,000 in Morocco, worldwide 2,000,000.
Tashelhit: 2,300,000 in Morocco, worldwide 3,000,000.
Tamazight: 1,900,000 in Morocco, worldwide 3,000,000.

Region: Tarifit in Rif mountains, Tashelhit in Atlas mountains and in Algeria, Tamazight in Central Atlas and in Algeria. Also in migration context of Europe.

Classification: Afro-Asiatic, Berber, North.

Comments: Berber varieties are non-codified, also in terms of chosen or preferred script. Mutual intelligibility of different Berber varieties is limited. On the countryside most men are bilingual speakers of Berber and Arabic, whereas many women

are monolingual speakers of Berber. No reliable empirical data available on spread of Berber or degree of mono/bilingualism.

12 **Bisaya**

Population: 10,000 to 12,000 on the coast of Malaysia, 7,000 Southeast of Marudi, and 600 in Brunei.
Region: Malaysia and Brunei.
Classification: Austronesian, Malayo-Polynesian, Western Malayo-Polynesian, Borneo.
Comments: 58% lexical similarity between varieties on the coast and Southeast of Marudi.

13 **Bosnian**

Population: 4,000,000 in Bosnia-Herzegovina. Population Serbian/Croatian/Bosnian worldwide 21,000,000.
Region: Bosnia-Herzegovina. Also spoken in 23 other countries including Albania, Australia, Austria, Bulgaria, Canada, Croatia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Macedonia, Romania, Russia (Europe), Slovakia, Slovenia, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey (Europe).
Classification: Indo-European, Slavic, South, Western.
Comments: Roman script.

14 **Bulgarian**

Population: 7,986,000 in Bulgaria, 85% of the population (1986). Population total all countries 9,000,000 (1999 WA).
Region: Also spoken in Canada, Greece, Hungary, Israel, Moldova, Romania, Turkey (Europe), Ukraine, USA, Yugoslavia.
Classification: Indo-European, Slavic, South, Eastern.
Comments: National language.

15 **Catalan**

Population: 6,472,828 mother tongue speakers (1996), plus 5,000,000 second or third language speakers in Spain (1994 La Generalitat de Catalunya). Population total all countries 6,565,000 or more. Including second language users: 10,000,000 (1999 WA).
Region: Northeastern Spain, around Barcelona; Catalonia, Valencia Provinces, Balearic Islands, region of Carce, Murcia Province. Also spoken in Algeria, Andorra, Argentina, Belgium, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Dominican Republic, France, Germany, Italy, Mexico, Switzerland, Uruguay, USA, Venezuela.
Classification: Indo-European, Italic, Romance, Ibero-Romance.
Comments: Official language. The standard variety is a literary composite which no one speaks, based on several dialects. Written Catalan is closest to Barcelona speech. Central Catalan has 87% lexical similarity with Italian, 85% with Portuguese and Spanish, 76% with Rhetoromance, 75% with Sardinian, 73% with Rumanian. Literacy rate in first language: 60%. Literacy rate in second language: 96%. The high literacy in Catalan (60%) is recent.

16 **Chinese**

Cover term for different languages of China, such as Mandarin, Wu, Cantonese, Hakka or Min Nan.
Population: *Mandarin*: 867,200,000 in mainland China (1999), 70% of the population, including 8,600,000 to 20,000,000 Hui (Muslims). Population total all countries

874,000,000 first language speakers, 1,052,000,000 including second language speakers (1999 WA).

Wu: 77,175,000, 7.5% of the population (1984).

Cantonese: 46,000,000, 4.5% of the population, 5,200,000 in Hongkong, 750,000 in Malaysia, 180,000,000 in Indonesia. Worldwide 66,000,000.

Hakka: 25,725,000 in mainland China, 2.5% of the population (1984), 2,000,000 in Taiwan, 1,000,000 in Malaysia, 640,000 in Indonesia. Worldwide 33,000,000 (1999 WA).

Min Nan: 25,000,000 in mainland China, 2,000,000 in Taiwan, 1,000,000 in Malaysia, 640,000 in Indonesia. Worldwide 34,000,000.

Region: Mandarin spoken all over China, Wu especially along the Changjiang River, Cantonese in the Canton area, Hakka in Guangdong. Also spoken in Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Mauritius, Mongolia, Philippines, Russia (Asia), Singapore, Taiwan, Thailand, United Kingdom, USA, Vietnam.

Classification: Sino-Tibetan, Chinese.

Comments: Mandarin is the official language of China and taught in all schools in China and Taiwan. Written Chinese is based on the Beijing dialect, but has been heavily influenced by other varieties of Northern Mandarin. Putonghua is the official form taught in schools. Putonghua is inherently intelligible with the Beijing dialect, and other Mandarin varieties in the northeast. Mandarin varieties in the Lower Plateau in Shaanxi are not readily intelligible with Putonghua. Mandarin varieties of Guilin and Kunming are inherently unintelligible to speakers of Putonghua. Taipei Mandarin and Beijing Mandarin are fully inherently intelligible to each other's speakers. The Hui are non-Turkic, non-Mongolian, Muslims who speak Mandarin as first language. Hui is a separate official nationality.

17 Croatian

Population: 4,800,000 in Croatia. Population Serbian/Croatian/Bosnian worldwide 21,000,000.

Region: Croatia. Also spoken in 23 other countries including Albania, Australia, Austria, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Canada, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Macedonia, Romania, Russia (Europe), Slovakia, Slovenia, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey (Europe).

Classification: Indo-European, Slavic, South, Western.

Comments: Roman script. The form of Croatian spoken in Austria (Burgenland) differs extensively from that spoken in Croatia and mutual intelligibility is difficult.

18 Czech

Population: 10,004,800 in Czech Republic (1990 WA). Population total all countries 12,000,000 (1999 WA).

Region: Also spoken in Austria, Bulgaria, Canada, Israel, Poland, Slovakia, Ukraine, USA.

Classification: Indo-European, Slavic, West, Czech-Slovak.

Comments: National language. All Czech and Slovak dialects are inherently intelligible to each other's speakers.

19 Danish

Population: 5,000,000 in Denmark (1980). Population total all countries 5,326,000.

Region: Also spoken in Canada, Germany, Greenland, Norway, Sweden, UAE, USA.

Classification: Indo-European, Germanic, North, East Scandinavian.

Comments: National language. Related with Norwegian Riksmål.

- 20 **Dari/Pashto/Afghani**
 Population: Dari 5,600,000 in Afghanistan (about 25% of the population), more than 1,000,000 in Pakistan, worldwide more than 7,000,000. Pashto 8,000,000 in Afghanistan (about 50% of the population), worldwide more than 8,000,000.
 Region: See below.
 Classification: Indo-European, Indo-Iranian, Iranian, Western (Dari) and Eastern (Pashto).
 Comments: Dari is the national language of Afghanistan. Both Dari and Pashto are official school languages and are broad-casted by radio and tv. The formal style of Dari resembles Farsi in Iran, whereas the informal style of Dari resembles Tajiki in Tajikistan. Dari is written in Arabic script.
- 21 **Dutch**
 Population: 15,760,000 in the Netherlands (CBS 2000). Population total all countries 20,000,000 or more.
 Region: Also spoken in Aruba, Australia, Belgium, Canada, France, Germany, Indonesia, Israel, Netherlands Antilles, Philippines, Suriname, UAE, USA.
 Classification: Indo-European, Germanic, West, Low Saxon-Low Franconian.
 Comments: National language.
- 22 **English**
 Population: 55,000,000 first language speakers in the United Kingdom (1984 estimate). Population total all countries 341,000,000 first language speakers (1999 WA), 508,000,000 including second language speakers (1999 WA).
 Region: Also spoken in more than 100 other countries including Australia, Belize, Canada, India, Ireland, Jamaica, Malaysia, Malta, New Zealand, Singapore, South Africa, USA.
 Classification: Indo-European, Germanic, West, English.
 Comments: Official language of e.g. Great Britain, USA, and Canada. One of the major world languages.
- 23 **Estonian**
 Population: 953,032 in Estonia out of 963,281 (93%) ethnic group (1989 census). Population total all countries 1,100,000.
 Region: Also spoken in Australia, Canada, Finland, Latvia, Russia (Europe), Sweden, United Kingdom, USA.
 Classification: Uralic, Finno-Ugric, Finno-Permic, Finno-Cheremistic.
 Comments: National language. Dialects are grouped into three: Northeastern Coastal Estonian, North Estonian, and South Estonian. All the other dialects are assimilated into standard Estonian. It is spoken less in rural areas and in southern areas. 75% to 80% of the population in the northeast are Russian speakers. Most in the north speak Finnish for common topics. Estonian has remained the language of education, including universities. Some linguistic influences from Russian, German, Swedish, Latvian, Lithuanian, and Finnish. Roman script.
- 24 **Farsi**
 Population: 22,000,000 in Iran, or 36% of the population (1997). Worldwide 24,280,000.
 Region: Central and south central Iran. Also spoken in 26 other countries including Afghanistan, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bahrain, Canada, Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, India, Iraq, Israel, Netherlands, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Spain, Sweden, Tajikistan, UAE.
 Classification: Indo-European, Indo-Iranian, Iranian, Western.

Comments: National language. The literary language is virtually identical in Iran and Afghanistan, with very minor lexical differences. Dialect shading into Dari in Afghanistan and Tajiki in Tajikistan. All schools use Farsi.

25 Finnish/Suomi

Population: 4,700,000 in Finland, 93.5% of population (1993), including 30,000 speakers of Tornedalen Finnish. Population total all countries 6,000,000 (1999 WA).

Region: Also spoken in Canada, Estonia, Norway, Russia (Europe), Sweden, USA.

Classification: Uralic, Finno-Ugric, Finno-Permic, Finno-Cheremistic.

Comments: National language. Southeastern dialects called 'Karelian' in colloquial Finnish are distinct from true Karelian. Finnish is closely related to Karelian and Olonetsian. About 300,000 are bilingual in Swedish.

26 French

Population: 51,000,000 first language speakers in France. Population total all countries 77,000,000 first language speakers (1999 WA), 128,000,000 including second language speakers (1999 WA).

Region: Also spoken in 53 other countries including Algeria, Andorra, Belgium, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Canada, Central African Republic, Chad, Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Djibouti, French Guiana, French Polynesia, Gabon, Guadeloupe, Guinea, Haiti, Lebanon, Luxemburg, Madagascar, Mali, Martinique, Mauritius, Monaco, Morocco, Niger, Rwanda, Senegal, Seychelles, Switzerland, Togo, Tunisia.

Classification: Indo-European, Italic, Romance, Gallo-Romance.

Comments: Official language in e.g. France, Canada, and Switzerland. Often used as second language or lingua franca in former French colonies.

27 German

Population: 75,300,000 in Germany (1990). Population total all countries 100,000,000 first language speakers (1999 WA); 128,000,000 including second language speakers (1999 WA).

Region: Also spoken in 40 other countries including Austria, Belgium, Czechia, Denmark, Hungary, Italy, Kazakhstan, Liechtenstein, Luxemburg, Paraguay, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, Switzerland.

Classification: Indo-European, Germanic, West, High German.

Comments: Official language in Germany, Austria, and Liechtenstein. Standard German is one High German variety, which developed from the chancery of Saxony, gaining acceptance as the written standard in the 16th and 17th centuries. High German refers to dialects and languages in the upper Rhine region.

28 Greek

Population: 9,859,850 in Greece, 98.5% of the population (1986). Population total all countries 12,000,000 (1999 WA).

Region: Throughout the country. Also spoken in 35 other countries including Albania, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Bahamas, Bulgaria, Canada, Congo, Cyprus, DRC, Djibouti, Egypt, France, Georgia, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Romania, Turkey (Europe).

Classification: Indo-European, Greek, Attic.

Comments: National language. Standard language is based on Dimotiki, the spoken literary dialect.

- 29 **Gujarati**
 Population: 45,479,000 in India (1997 IMA). Population total all countries 46,100,000 or more.
 Region: Gujarat; Maharashtra; Rajasthan; Karnataka; Madhya Pradesh. Also spoken in Bangladesh, Fiji, Kenya, Malawi, Mauritius, Oman, Pakistan, Réunion, Singapore, South Africa, Tanzania, Uganda, United Kingdom, USA, Zambia, Zimbabwe.
 Classification: Indo-European, Indo-Iranian, Indo-Aryan, Central zone.
 Comments: National language. Spoken as mother tongue by the Keer. Literacy rate in second language: 30%. Gujarati script.
- 30 **Hebrew/Ivrit**
 Population: 4,847,000 in Israel (1998) or 81% of the population (1995). Population total all countries 5,150,000.
 Region: Also spoken in Australia, Canada, Germany, Palestinian West Bank and Gaza, Panama, United Kingdom, USA.
 Classification: Afro-Asiatic, Semitic, Central, South.
 Comments: National language. Not a direct offspring from Biblical or other varieties of Ancient Hebrew, but an amalgamation of different Hebrew strata plus intrinsic evolution within the living speech. Some who use it as primary language now in Israel, learned it as their second language originally. Spoken by most Israelis as first or second language.
- 31 **Hindi**
 Population: 180,000,000 in India (1991 UBS), 363,839,000 or nearly 50% of the population including second language users in India (1997 IMA). Population total all countries 366,000,000 first language speakers (1999 WA), 487,000,000 including second language users (1999 WA).
 Region: Throughout northern India: Delhi; Uttar Pradesh; Rajasthan; Punjab; Madhya Pradesh; northern Bihar; Himachal Pradesh. Also spoken in Bangladesh, Belize, Botswana, Germany, Kenya, Nepal, New Zealand, Philippines, Singapore, South Africa, Uganda, UAE, United Kingdom, USA, Yemen, Zambia.
 Classification: Indo-European, Indo-Iranian, Indo-Aryan, Central zone.
 Comments: National language. Formal vocabulary is borrowed from Sanskrit, de-Persianized, de-Arabicized. Literary Hindi, or Hindi-Urdu, has four varieties: Hindi (High Hindi, Nagari Hindi, Literary Hindi, Standard Hindi); Urdu; Dakhini; Rekhta. State language of Delhi, Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Bihar, Himachal Pradesh. Languages and dialects in the Western Hindi group are Hindustani, Haryanvi, Braj Bhasha, Kanauji, Bundeli. Hindi, Hindustani, Urdu could be considered co-dialects, but have important sociolinguistic differences. Devanagari script.
- 32 **Hungarian**
 Population: 10,298,820 in Hungary (1995), 98% of the population (1986). Population total all countries 14,500,000.
 Region: Also spoken in Australia, Austria, Canada, Israel, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Ukraine, USA, Yugoslavia.
 Classification: Uralic, Finno-Ugric, Ugric, Hungarian.
 Comments: National language. 'Magyar' is the Hungarian name.

- 33 Icelandic**
 Population: 230,000 in Iceland (1980 WA). Population total all countries 250,000.
 Region: Also spoken in Canada, USA.
 Classification: Indo-European, Germanic, North, West Scandinavian.
 Comments: National language. No appreciable dialect differences.
- 34 Irish**
 Population: 260,000 fluent or native speakers of Irish, 13% of population in Ireland (1981 census).
 Region: Irish countryside and emigrants abroad.
 Classification: Indo-European, Keltic, Insular, Goidelic.
 Comments: National language. Taught at school and stimulated by affirmative action. Most speakers are bilingual in English and Irish.
- 35 Italian**
 Population: 55,000,000 mother tongue speakers in Italy, some of whom are native bilinguals of Italian and regional varieties, and some of whom may use Italian as second language. Population total all countries 62,000,000.
 Region: Also spoken in 29 other countries including Argentina, Australia, Belgium, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Brazil, Canada, Croatia, Egypt, Eritrea, France, Germany, Israel, Libya, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Paraguay, Philippines, Puerto Rico, San Marino, Slovenia, Switzerland.
 Classification: Indo-European, Italic, Romance, Italo-Western.
 Comments: Standard Italian is the national language of Italy. Regional varieties coexist with the standard language; some are inherently unintelligible to speakers of other varieties unless they have learned them. Aquilano, Molisano, and Pugliese are very different from the other Italian 'dialects'. Piemontese and Sicilian are distinct enough to be separate languages. Venetian and Lombard are also very different. Neapolitan is reported to be unintelligible to speakers of Standard Italian. Northern varieties are closer to French and Occitan than to standard or southern varieties. Most Italians use varieties along a continuum from standard to regional to local according to what is appropriate. Possibly nearly half the population do not use Standard Italian as mother tongue. Only 2.5% of Italy's population could speak standard Italian when it became a unified nation in 1861.
- 36 Japanese**
 Population: 121,050,000 in Japan (1985). Population total all countries 125,000,000 first language speakers (1999 WA); 126,000,000 including second language speakers (1999 WA).
 Region: Throughout the country. Also spoken in 26 other countries including Argentina, Australia, Belize, Brazil, Canada, Dominican Republic, Germany, Mexico, Micronesia, Mongolia, New Zealand, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Taiwan.
 Classification: Japanese.
 Comments: National language. Possibly related to Korean. The Kagoshima dialect is 84% cognate with Tokyo dialect. Hiragana, Katakana, and Kanji (Chinese character) writing systems.

- 37 Khmer/Cambodian**
 Population: 5,932,800 in Cambodia, about 90% of the population (1990). Population total all countries 7,039,200. Including second language speakers: 8,000,000 (1999 WA).
 Region: Throughout the country. Also spoken in China, France, Laos, USA, Vietnam.
 Classification: Austro-Asiatic, Mon-Khmer, Eastern Mon-Khmer, Khmer.
 Comments: National language. Distinct from Northern Khmer of Thailand.
- 38 Korean**
 Population: 42,000,000 in South Korea (1986), 20,000,000 in North Korea. Population total all countries 78,000,000 (1999 WA).
 Region: Also spoken in 31 other countries including Australia, Bahrain, Belize, Brazil, Brunei, Canada, China, Germany, Japan, Kazakhstan, North Korea, Kyrgyzstan, Mauritania, Mongolia, New Zealand, Thailand.
 Classification: Korean.
 Comments: National language of South and North Korea. There is a difference of opinion among scholars as to whether or not Korean is related to Japanese. Some scholars suggest that both languages are possibly distantly related to Altaic. Dialect boundaries generally correspond to provincial boundaries. Some dialects are not easily intelligible with others. Korean script (Hangul) used. The McCune-Reischauer system is the official Roman orthography in South Korea used for maps and signs.
- 39 Kurdish**
 Population: 2,785,500 in Iraq, 18% of population including all Kurdish in Iraq, most of whom speak Kurdish (1986). Population total all countries 6,036,000. All Kurd speakers in all countries: 11,000,000 (1999 WA).
 Region: Also spoken in Iran, Syria, Turkey, USA.
 Classification: Indo-European, Indo-Iranian, Iranian, Western.
 Comments: Kurdish has an official status in Kurdistan (Iraq). Arabic script used in Iraq, Iran, and Syria. Roman script used in Turkey.
- 40 Lao**
 Population: 3,000,000 in Laos (1991 UBS). Population total all countries 3,188,000 or more. Including second language speakers: 4,000,000 (1999 WA).
 Region: Also spoken in Cambodia, Canada, Thailand, USA.
 Classification: Tai-Kadai, Kam-Tai, Be-Tai, Tai-Sek.
 Comments: National language. Dialect continuum with Northeastern Tai of Thailand. Literacy rate in first language: 30% to 60%. Literacy rate in second language: 50% to 75%.
- 41 Lithuanian**
 Population: 2,955,200 in Lithuania or about 80% of the population (1998). Population total all countries 4,000,000 (1993 UBS).
 Region: Lithuania. Also spoken in Argentina, Australia, Belarus, Brazil, Canada, Estonia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Poland, Russia (Europe), Sweden, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, United Kingdom, Uruguay, USA, Uzbekistan.
 Classification: Indo-European, Baltic, Eastern.
 Comments: National language. Roman script.

- 42 **Luo**
 Population: 3,185,000 in Kenya (1994) or 13.8% of the population (1987). Population total countries 3,408,000.
 Region: Nyanza Province. Also spoken in Tanzania.
 Classification: Nilo-Saharan, Eastern Sudanic, Nilotic, Western.
 Comments: Different from Lwo of Uganda or Lwo (Luo, Jur Lwo) of Sudan. Literacy rate in first language: 10% to 30%. Literacy rate in second language: 50% to 75%.
- 43 **Macedonian**
 Population: 1,386,000 in Macedonia (1986). Population total all countries 2,000,000 (1999 WA).
 Region: Also spoken in Albania, Bulgaria, Canada, Greece, Hungary, Slovenia.
 Classification: Indo-European, Slavic, South, Eastern.
 Comments: National language. The standard variety was recognized in 1944. Sociopolitical attitudes are strong: called 'Slavic' in Greece, considered to be a dialect of Bulgarian by some in Bulgaria.
- 44 **Malay**
 Population: 7,181,000 or 47% of the population of Peninsular Malaysia (1986), including 248,757 in Sarawak (1980 census), 2,000,000 in Kelantan and Trengganu, and 1,000,000 in other parts of Malaysia; 10,000,000 in Malaysia including second language speakers (1977 SIL). Population total all countries 18,000,000 or more.
 Region: Also spoken in Brunei, Indonesia (Sumatra), Myanmar, Singapore, Thailand, UAE, USA.
 Classification: Austronesian, Malayo-Polynesian, Western Malayo-Polynesian, Sundic.
 Comments: National language. 'Bazaar Malay' is used to refer to many regional nonstandard dialects. Over 80% cognate with Indonesian. Roman and Arabic (Jawi) scripts.
- 45 **Mandinka/Manding(o)**
 Population: 539,000 in Senegal (1998). Population total all countries 1,178,500.
 Region: Southeastern and south central. Also spoken in Gambia, Guinea-Bissau.
 Classification: Niger-Congo, Mande, Western, Central-Southwestern.
 Comments: National language. Mandinka and Malinke are separate languages. 65% to 75% lexical similarity with Malinke. Literacy rate in first language below 1%.
- 46 **Moldavian**
 Population: Spoken in Romania.
 Region: Area of Donau and Carpathians.
 Classification: Indo-European, Italic, Romance, Eastern.
 Comments: Formerly written in cyrillic alphabet during period of Socialist Soviet Republic.
- 47 **Nepali**
 Population: 9,900,000 in Nepal (1993), 58.3% of the population (1985). Population total all countries 16,056,000.
 Region: Eastern region and adjacent south central region. Also spoken in Bhutan, Brunei, India.
 Classification: Indo-European, Indo-Iranian, Indo-Aryan, Northern zone.
 Comments: National language. Dialects listed may be quite distinct from Standard Nepali. 4 castes: Brahmin (highest or priestly), Chetri (warrior), Vaishya (trader and farmer), Shudra (untouchable or lowest).

- 48 **Norwegian**
 Population: 4,250,000 in Norway, 99.5% of population (1991 WA). Population total all countries 5,000,000 (1999 WA).
 Region: Also spoken in Canada, Ecuador, Sweden, UAE, USA.
 Classification: Indo-European, Germanic, North, East Scandinavian (Bokmål) and West Scandinavian (Nynorsk).
 Comments: 'Norwegian' is a cover concept for two Norwegian varieties: Bokmål (or Riksmål) and Nynorsk. Both varieties are national languages of Norway. Bokmål is a Norwegian variant of Danish and mainly spoken in urban areas. Nynorsk is mainly spoken outside Oslo and based on rural dialects. In 1971 30% of the people used Nynorsk as their main written language.
- 49 **Panjabi**
 The Western variety is mainly spoken in Pakistan, the Eastern variety mainly in India.
 Population: 30,000,000 to 45,000,000 in Pakistan (1981 census), 27,125,000 in India (1997 IMA).
 Region: Western Panjabi mainly in the Punjab area of Pakistan, Eastern Panjabi mainly in the Punjab region of India. Also spoken in Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Canada, Fiji, Kenya, Malaysia, Mauritius, Singapore, UAE, United Kingdom, USA.
 Classification: Indo-European, Indo-Iranian, Indo-Aryan, Northwestern and Central zone.
 Comments: National language. Gurmukhi script, a variant of Devanagari, used in India. Perso-Arabic script used, but not often written in Pakistan. There is a continuum of varieties between Eastern and Western Panjabi, and with Western Hindi and Urdu. Several dozen dialects.
- 50 **Polish**
 Population: 36,554,000 in Poland, 98% of the population (1986). Population total all countries 44,000,000 (1999 WA).
 Region: Also spoken in Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Canada, Czech Republic, Estonia, Finland, Germany, Hungary, Israel, Kazakhstan, Latvia, Lithuania, Romania, Russia (Europe), Slovakia, Ukraine, UAE, USA.
 Classification: Indo-European, Slavic, West, Lechitic.
 Comments: National language. Roman script.
- 51 **Portuguese**
 Population: 10,000,000 in Portugal. Population total all countries 176,000,000 first language speakers (1999 WA), 191,000,000 including second language speakers (1999 WA).
 Region: Iberia, Azores, Madeira. Also spoken in 33 other countries including Andorra, Angola, Antigua and Barbuda, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, Cape Verde Islands, China, Congo, France, Germany, Guinea-Bissau, Guyana, India, Indonesia, Jamaica, Luxembourg, Malawi, Mozambique, Eastern Timor.
 Classification: Indo-European, Italic, Romance, Ibero-Romance.
 Comments: National language of Portugal and Brazil. Standard Portuguese of Portugal is based on Southern or Estremenho dialect (Lisbon and Coimbra). Literacy rate in second language: 83% to 84%.
- 52 **Quechua**
 Population: 25,000 in Peru (1993 SIL).
 Region: Southeast Ancash Department, Bolognesi Province, Chiquian District.
 Classification: Quechua.

- Comments: Rural areas are predominately monolingual. Literacy rate in first language: below 1%. Literacy rate in second language: 5% to 15%.
- 53 Romani/Sinte**
 Population: 31,000 in Yugoslavia including 30,000 Serbian, 1,000 Manouche. Population total all countries 200,000 (1980 UBS).
 Region: Kosovo. Also spoken in Austria, Croatia, Czech Republic, France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Kazakhstan, Netherlands, Poland, Slovenia, Switzerland.
 Classification: Indo-European, Indo-Iranian, Indo-Aryan, Central zone.
 Comments: Croatian, Slovenian, and Serbian Romani speakers understand each other. Those varieties may be quite distinct from the German varieties. Sinte is characterized by German influence. 'Romanes' is the self-name of the ethnic group.
- 54 Romanian**
 Population: 20,520,000 in Romania, 90% of the population (1986). Population total all countries 26,000,000 (1999 WA).
 Region: Also spoken in Australia, Azerbaijan, Canada, Finland, Hungary, Israel, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Moldova, Russia (Europe), Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Ukraine, USA, Uzbekistan, Yugoslavia.
 Classification: Indo-European, Italic, Romance, Eastern.
 Comments: National language. Romanian has 77% lexical similarity with Italian, 75% with French, 74% with Sardinian, 73% with Catalan, 72% with Portuguese and Rheto-Romance, 71% with Spanish.
- 55 Russian**
 Population: 153,655,000 in Russia and the other the republics of the former USSR. Population total all countries 167,000,000 first language speakers (1999 WA); 277,000,000 including second language users (1999 WA).
 Region: Also spoken in 30 other countries including Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bulgaria, Canada, China, Czech Republic, Estonia, Finland, Georgia, Germany, Greece, India, Israel, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Lithuania, Moldova, Mongolia, USA.
 Classification: Indo-European, Slavic, East.
 Comments: National language of Russia and lingua franca between different ethnic groups in almost all republics of the former USSR.
- 56 Serbian**
 Population: Primarily spoken in present Yugoslavia. Population Serbian/Croatian/Bosnian worldwide 21,000,000.
 Region: Serbia, Kosovo, and Montenegro. Also spoken in 23 other countries including Albania, Australia, Austria, Bulgaria, Canada, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Macedonia, Romania, Russia (Europe), Slovakia, Slovenia, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey (Europe).
 Classification: Indo-European, Slavic, South, Western.
 Comments: National language of Yugoslavia (Serbia and Montenegro). Cyrillic script.
- 57 Sign language**
 Comments: Officially recognized language, used in interaction between/with hearing-impaired or deaf people for non-verbal communication.

- 58 **Slovak(ian)**
 Population: 4,865,450 in Slovakia (1990 WA). Population total all countries 5,606,000.
 Region: Also spoken in Canada, Hungary, Poland, Romania, Ukraine, USA, Yugoslavia.
 Classification: Indo-European, Slavic, West, Czech-Slovak.
 Comments: National language. Western and central dialects of Slovak are inherently intelligible with Czech.
- 59 **Slovenian**
 Population: 1,727,360 in Slovenia (1991 census). Population total all countries 2,000,000 (1999 WA).
 Region: Also spoken in Argentina, Australia, Austria, Canada, Croatia, Hungary, Italy, USA, Yugoslavia.
 Classification: Indo-European, Slavic, South, Western.
 Comments: National language. The literary dialect is between the two main dialects, based on Dolenjsko. Dialects are diverse.
- 60 **Somali**
 Population: 5,400,000 to 6,700,000 in Somalia (1991). Population total all countries 9,472,000 to 10,770,000.
 Region: Also spoken in Djibouti, Ethiopia, Finland, Italy, Kenya, Oman, Saudi Arabia, Sweden, UAE, United Kingdom, Yemen.
 Classification: Afro-Asiatic, Cushitic, East, Somali.
 Comments: National language. The language of most of the people of the country. Literacy rate in second language: 25% in cities, 10% rural. The government adopted the Roman script in 1972. The Osmanian script is no longer used. Northern Somali is the basis for Standard Somali. It is readily intelligible to speakers of Benaadir Somali, but difficult or unintelligible to Maay and Digil speakers, except for those who have learned it through mass communications, urbanization, and internal movement.
- 61 **Sorani**
 Population: 2,785,500 in Iraq, 18% of population including all Kurdish in Iraq, most of whom speak Kurdi/Sorani (1986). Population total all countries 6,036,000.
 Region: In and around Sulamanyia. Also spoken in Iran.
 Classification: Indo-European, Indo-Iranian, Iranian, Western.
 Comments: Sorani is mainly spoken in Iraq. Official language. Literacy rate in second language 27%.
- 62 **Spanish**
 Population: 28,173,600 in Spain, 72.8% of the population (1986). Population total all countries 322,200,000 to 358,000,000 first language users (1999 WA, source for the second figure), 417,000,000 including second language users (1999 WA).
 Region: Central and southern Spain and the Canary Islands. Also spoken in 43 other countries including Andorra, Argentina, Australia, Belgium, Belize, Bolivia, Canada, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Equatorial Guinea, France, Gibraltar, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Morocco, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Puerto Rico, Uruguay, USA, Venezuela.
 Classification: Indo-European, Italic, Romance, Ibero-Romance.
 Comments: National language of Spain and many countries in Central and South America. 89% lexical similarity with Portuguese, 85% with Catalan, 82% with Italian,

76% with Sardinian, 75% with French, 74% with Rheto-Romance, 71% with Rumanian. Most mother tongue speakers of other languages in Spain use Spanish as second language.

63 Swahili

Population: 313,200 monolinguals or 1.8%, 93.4% bilinguals in Tanzania (1982). Population total all countries 5,000,000 first language speakers (1989); 30,000,000 second language users (1989).

Region: Also spoken in Burundi, Kenya, Mayotte, Mozambique, Oman, Rwanda, Somalia, South Africa, Uganda, UAE, USA.

Classification: Niger-Congo, Atlantic-Congo, Volta-Congo, Benue-Congo.

Comments: National language. Used through secondary education and in some university courses. Rural people are second language users; they use the local language for most activities, but Swahili with outsiders.

64 Tagalog/Filipino

Population: 16,911,871 first language speakers (1990 census), about 23.8% of the population of the Philippines. Used to some degree by 39,000,000 (1991 WA). Population total all countries 17,000,000. Including second language speakers: 57,000,000 (1999 WA).

Region: Manila, most of Luzon, and Mindoro. Also spoken in Canada, Guam, Midway Islands, Saudi Arabia, UAE, United Kingdom, USA.

Classification: Austronesian, Malayo-Polynesian, Western Malayo-Polynesian, Philippine.

Comments: National language. Roman script.

65 Telugu

Population: 69,634,000 in India (1997 IMA). Population total all countries 69,666,000 or more. Including second language speakers: 75,000,000 (1999 WA).

Region: Andhra Pradesh and neighbouring states. Also spoken in Bahrain, Fiji, Malaysia, Mauritius, Singapore, UAE.

Classification: Dravidian, South-Central, Telugu.

Comments: National language. Telugu script.

66 Thai

Population: 20,000,000 to 25,000,000 in Thailand (1990), including 400,000 Khorat (1984), 4,704,000 mother tongue Thai speakers who are ethnic Chinese, or 80% of the Chinese (1984). Population total all countries 20,047,000 to 25,000,000.

Region: Central Thailand, centered in Bangkok. Also spoken in Midway Islands, Singapore, UAE, USA.

Classification: Tai Kadai, Kam Tai, Be-Tai, Tai-Sek.

Comments: National language. People sometimes called 'Siamese'.

67 Tigrigna/Eritrean

Population: 1,900,000 in Eritrea, 4,100,000 in Ethiopia. Population total all countries 5,135,000.

Region: Also spoken in Tigray (Ethiopia) and in Israel.

Classification: Afro-Asiatic, Semitic, South, Ethiopian.

Comments: Official language of Eritrea. Ethiopic script. Literacy rate 5% to 25%.

- 68 **Turkish**
 Population: 46,278,000 in Turkey, 90% of the population (1987). Population total all countries 61,000,000 (1999 WA).
 Region: Spoken throughout Turkey as first or second language. Also spoken in 35 other countries including Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Belgium, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Canada, Cyprus, Denmark, El Salvador, Finland, France, Georgia, Germany, Greece, Honduras, Iran, Iraq, Israel, Macedonia, Romania, Uzbekistan.
 Classification: Altaic, Turkic, Southern, Turkish.
 Comments: National language. Roman script used since 1923.
- 69 **Turkmen(ian)**
 Population: 3,430,000 in Turkmenistan (1995), 99% of the ethnic group of 3,465,000 (1995). Population total all countries 6,400,000.
 Region: Also spoken in Afghanistan, Germany, Iran, Iraq, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Pakistan, Russia (Asia), Tajikistan, Turkey (Asia), USA, Uzbekistan.
 Classification: Altaic, Turkic, Southern, Turkmenian.
 Comments: National language. The so-called "Turkmen" in Syria, and possibly Iraq and Jordan, actually speak an ancient form of Turkmen. Cyrillic script.
- 70 **Turoyo**
 Population: 3,000 in Turkey (1994) out of 50,000 to 70,000 population. Population total all countries 70,000 (1994).
 Region: Southeastern Turkey, Mardin Province (originally). Also spoken in Argentina, Australia, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, Germany, Iraq, Lebanon, Netherlands, Sweden, Syria, USA.
 Classification: Afro-Asiatic, Semitic, Central, Aramaic.
 Comments: Related to, but distinct from Northeastern Aramaic varieties. Turoyo subdialects exhibit a cleavage between Town Turoyo, Village Turoyo, and Mixed (Village-Town) Turoyo. The latter is spoken mainly by the younger generation and is gaining ground throughout the Jacobite diaspora in other countries. All speakers are bilingual in their national languages or local lingua francas, and some are multilingual.
- 71 **Uigur**
 Population: 7,215,000 in China (1990 census), including 4,700,000 Central Uyghur, 1,150,000 Hotan, 25,000 Lop, Population total all countries 7,600,000 or more.
 Region: Throughout the Xinjiang Autonomous Region of China. Also spoken in Afghanistan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Mongolia, Pakistan, Tajikistan, Turkey, Uzbekistan.
 Classification: Altaic, Turkic, Eastern.
 Comments: Uigur is the Easternmost branch of the extended family of Turkic peoples and languages. Different dialects. Most speakers are Muslim. One of the five main official nationalities in China. Literacy rate in second language 56%. Roman, Cyrillic, and Arabic script has been used.
- 72 **Urdu/Pakistani**
 Population: 10,719,000 mother tongue speakers in Pakistan (1993), 75.7% of the population. Population total all countries 60,290,000 or more. Including second language speakers: 104,000,000 (1999 WA).

- Region: Also spoken in Afghanistan, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Botswana, Fiji, Germany, Guyana, India, Malawi, Mauritius, Nepal, Norway, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, South Africa, Thailand, UAE, United Kingdom, Zambia.
- Classification: Indo-European, Indo-Iranian, Indo-Aryan, Central zone.
- Comments: National language. Arabic script in Nastaliq style with several extra characters used. Intelligible with Hindi, but has formal vocabulary borrowed from Arabic and Persian. The second or third language of most Pakistanis for whom it is not the mother tongue.
- 73 Vietnamese**
- Population: 65,051,000 in Vietnam, 86.7% of the population (1993). Population total all countries 68,000,000 (1999 WA).
- Region: Also spoken in Australia, Cambodia, Canada, China, Côte d'Ivoire, Finland, Franca, Germany, Laos, Martinique, Netherlands, New Caledonia, Norway, Philippines, Senegal, Thailand, United Kingdom, USA, Vanuatu.
- Classification: Austro-Asiatic, Mon-Khmer, Viet-Muong, Veitnamese.
- Comments: National language. Literacy rate in second language: 80%. Roman script.
- 74 Wolof/Senegalese**
- Population: 3,170,200 in Senegal (1998). Population total all countries 3,215,000 or more first language speakers (1998); 7,000,000 including second language speakers (1999 WA).
- Region: Also spoken in Franca, Gambia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Mali, Mauritania.
- Classification: Niger-Congo, Atlantic-Congo, Atlantic, Northern.
- Comments: National language. Predominantly urban. Literacy rate in first language: 10%. Literacy rate in second language: 30%. 'Wolof' is also the name for the ethnic group.
- 75 Zaza**
- Population: 140,000 in Turkey, worldwide 1,500,000 or more.
- Region: 100,000 in province Tunceli and 40,000 in province Erzincan.
- Classification: Indo-European, Indo-Iranian, West, North-West.
- Comments: 70% lexical similarity with Dimili. Used in informal interaction with family members and friends. Turkish used in other contexts. Older women and younger children are often monolingual speakers of Zaza.

5 Home language profiles

Based on Table 4.3 in Chapter 4 we give an outline of the home language profiles of the 20 most frequently ($N > 70$) reported home languages other than Swedish (section 5.1). Moreover, we offer a crosslinguistic comparison of the language groups under consideration (section 5.2). In the final section we look at home language as an indicator of multicultural population groups (section 5.3).

5.1 Profiles of the top-20 language groups

In this section we present pseudolongitudinal profiles of the top-20 of reported language groups. The concept of language group is based on the pupils' answers to the question whether, and if so, which other languages are used at home next to or instead of Swedish. On the basis of their answer patterns, pupils may belong to more than one language group. For each language group, four language dimensions will be presented and commented upon on the basis of pseudolongitudinal figures. These dimensions are the language proficiency (a), language choice (b), language dominance (c), and language preference (d) reported by the combined age groups of 6/7, 8/9, 10/11, and 12/13 years. Younger children have not been included in the figures because of their very small numbers. Apart from these four figures per language group we present tabulated information about the number of pupils in each of the age groups (a), the most frequently mentioned birth countries of pupils and parents (b), and the most frequently mentioned languages other than the one under consideration per language group (c). Given the possible non-response of pupils on specific language dimensions, all figures will be commented upon in proportional values per dimension.

5.1.1 English language group

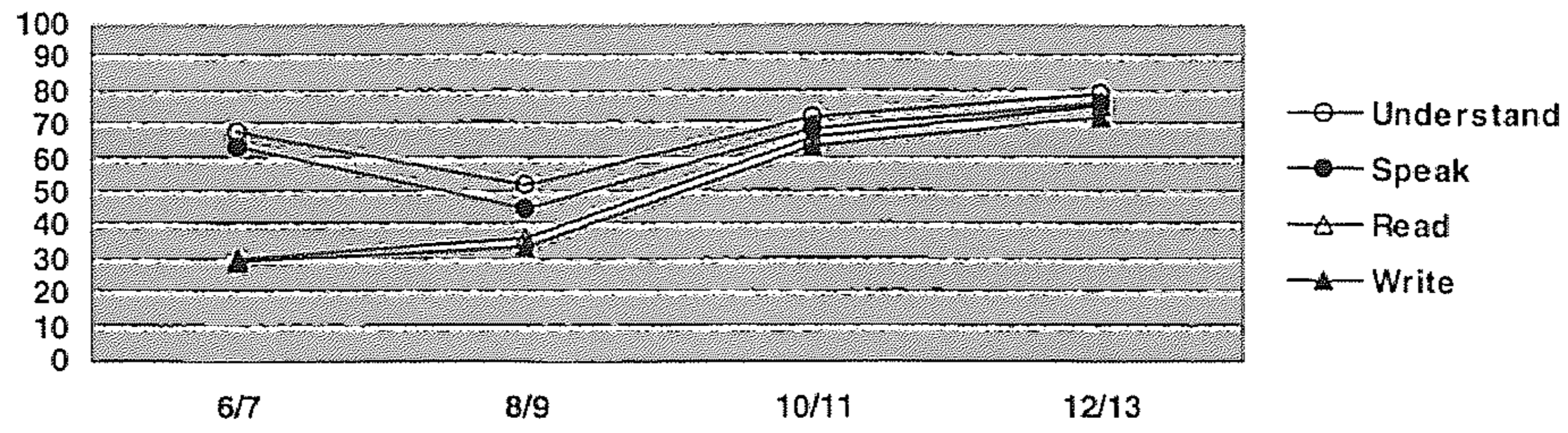


Figure 5.1a Language proficiency in English

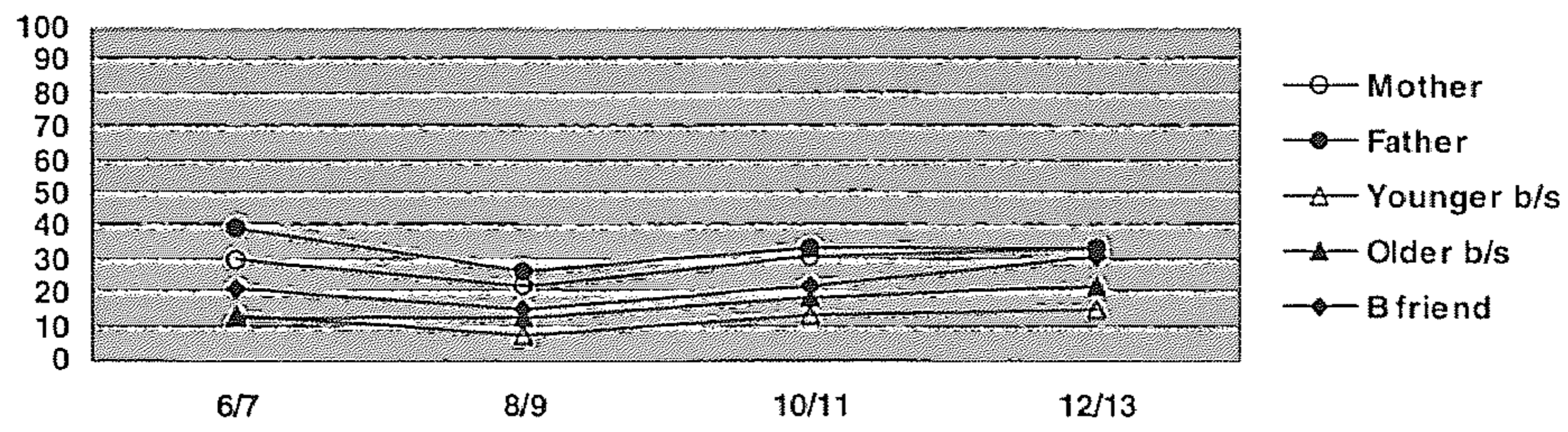


Figure 5.1b Language choice for English

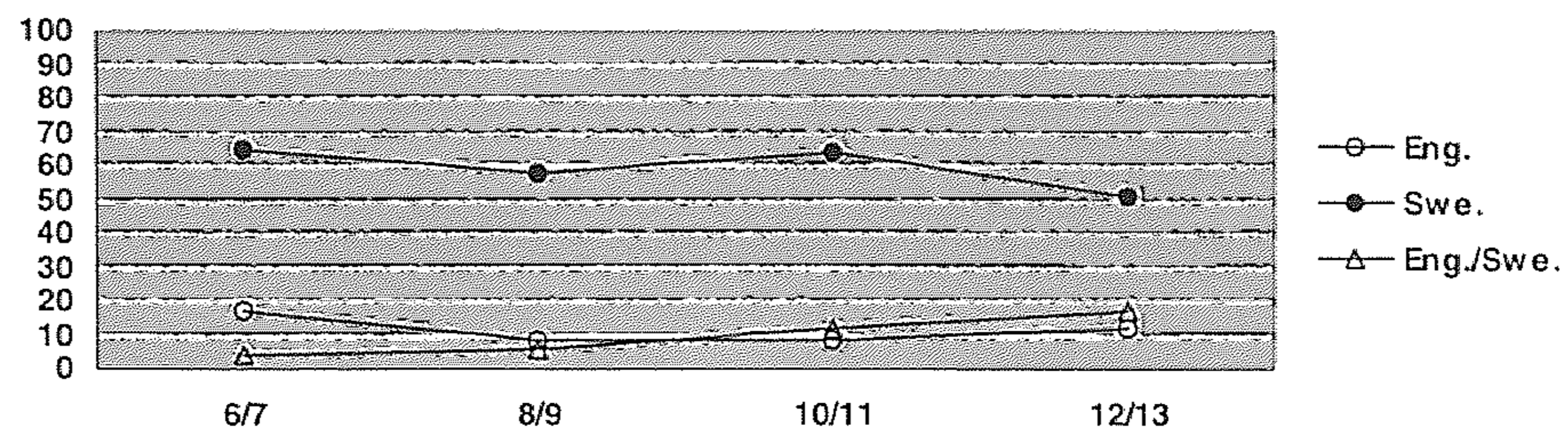


Figure 5.1c Language dominance in English and Swedish

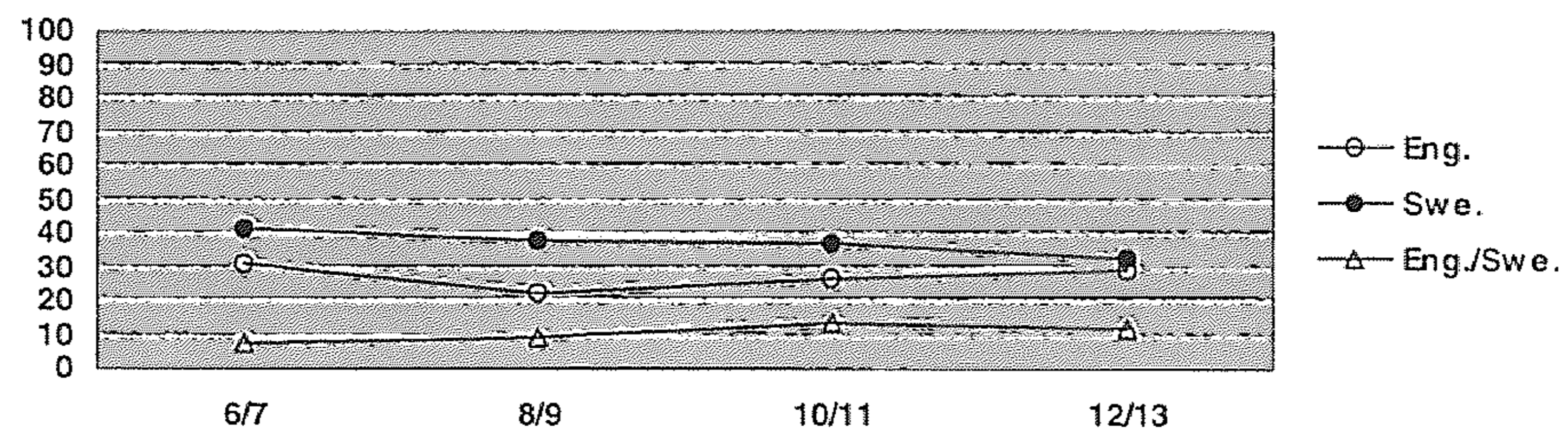


Figure 5.1d Language preference for English and Swedish

Age group	4/5	6/7	8/9	10/11	12/13	Unknown	Total
Number of pupils	18	242	348	449	193	26	1,276

Table 5.1a Number of pupils per age group with English as a home language

Birth country	Pupil		Mother		Father	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Sweden	1,052	82%	774	61%	675	53%
England	22	2%	45	4%	92	7%
USA	20	2%	18	1%	33	3%
Somalia	12	1%	24	2%	22	2%
Irak	8	1%	13	1%	15	1%
Philippines	8	1%	17	1%	4	-
Other countries	141	11%	338	26%	378	30%
Unknown	13	1%	47	4%	57	4%
Total	1,276	100%	1,276	100%	1,276	100%

Table 5.1b Birth country of pupils and their parents whose home language is English

German	67	Finnish	35
French	58	Somali	26
Spanish	53	54 other languages	270
Arabic	46		

Table 5.1c Languages other than English used at home by the English language group

Most pupils were born in Sweden and, to a lesser degree, also most parents. Apart from English, German is used in 5% of the pupils' homes. Also French and Spanish are relatively often referred to as additional home languages.

Language proficiency (Fig. 5.1a). Understanding and speaking skills in English are reported by 53-80% and 46-77% of all children respectively. Reading and writing skills in English are increasingly reported by 31-76% and 30-73% of all children respectively.

Language choice (Fig. 5.1b). At home, 23-34% of all children report commonly speaking English with their mother, 27-40% with their father, 8-16% with their younger brothers/sisters, 13-23% with their older brothers/sisters, and 16-32% with their best friends.

Language dominance (Fig. 5.1c). Dominance in Swedish is reported by 51-65%, and dominance in English by 9-17% of all children. Balanced bilingualism is increasingly reported by 4-17% of all age groups.

Language preference (Fig. 5.1d). Preference for Swedish is decreasingly reported by 42-33%, and preference for English by 23-31% of all children. No preference is reported by 8-14% of all children.

5.1.2 Arabic language group

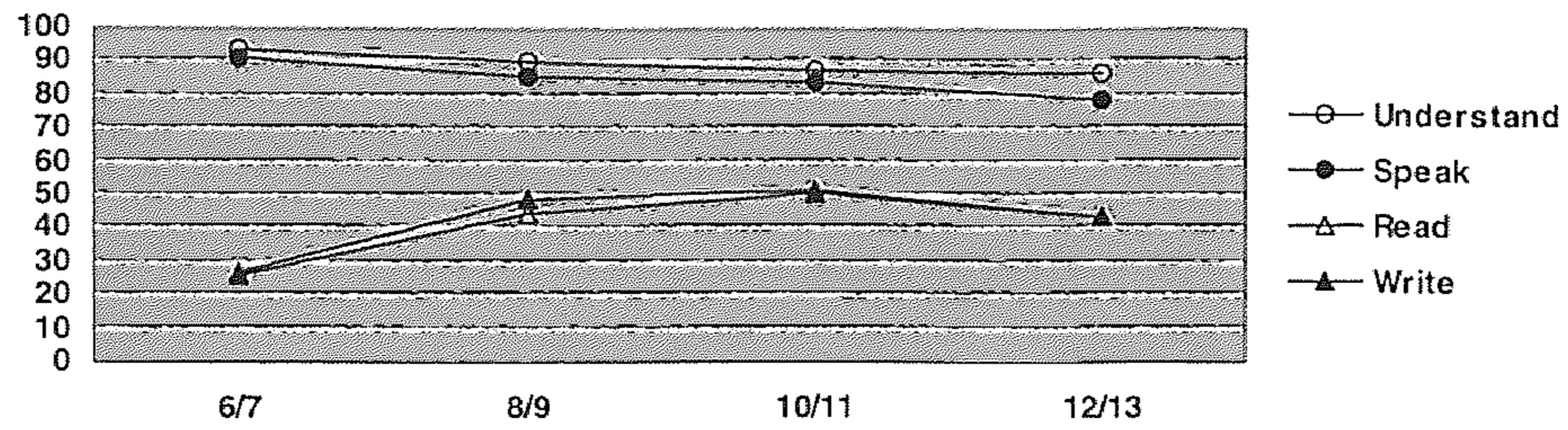


Figure 5.2a Language proficiency in Arabic

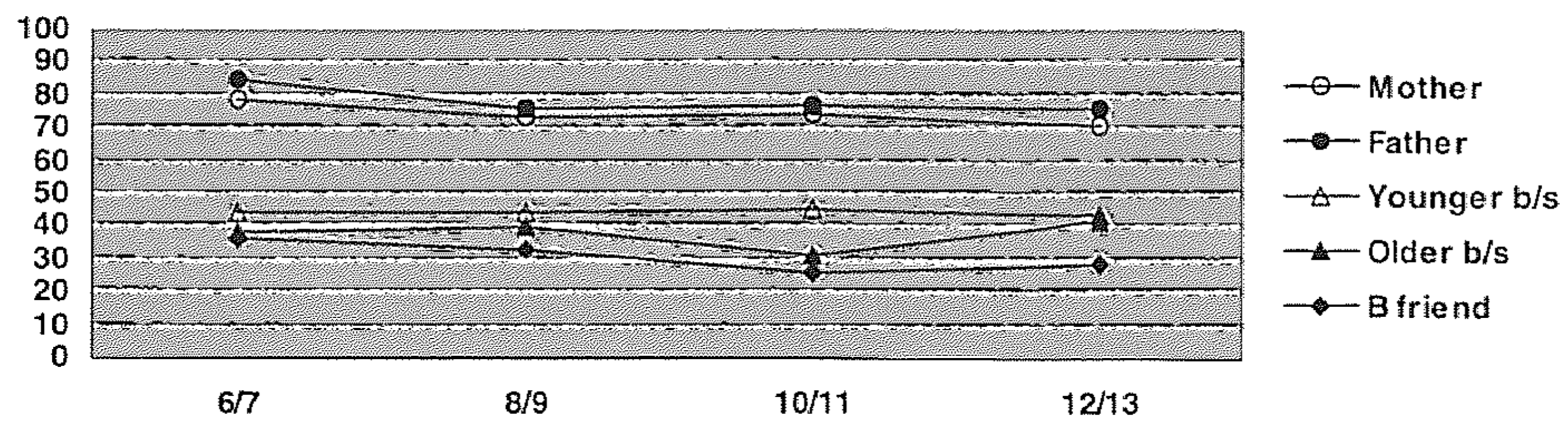


Figure 5.2b Language choice for Arabic

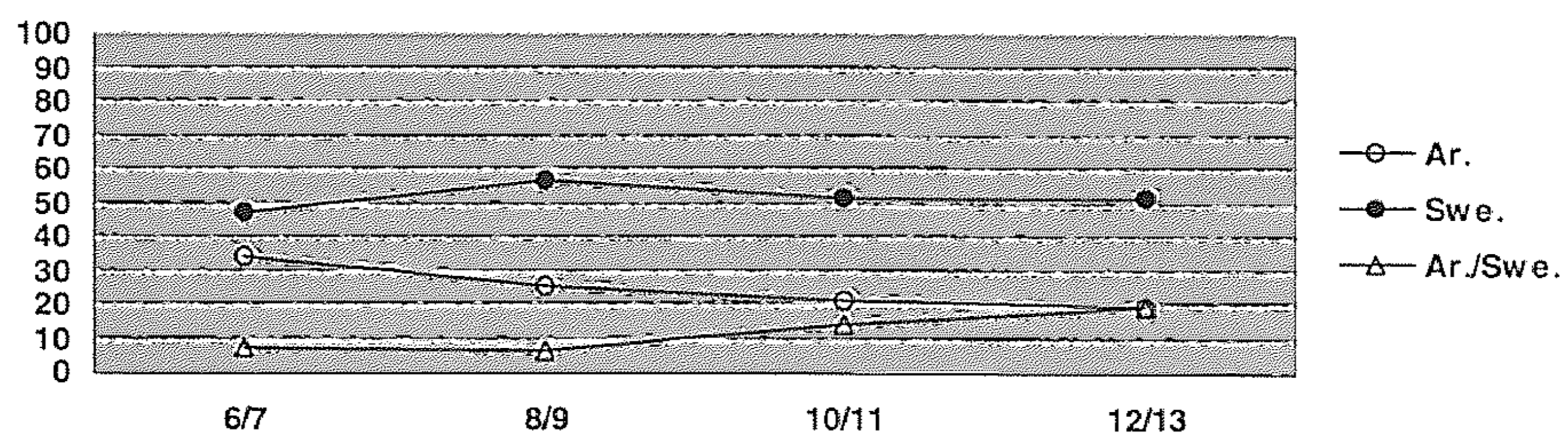


Figure 5.2c Language dominance in Arabic and Swedish

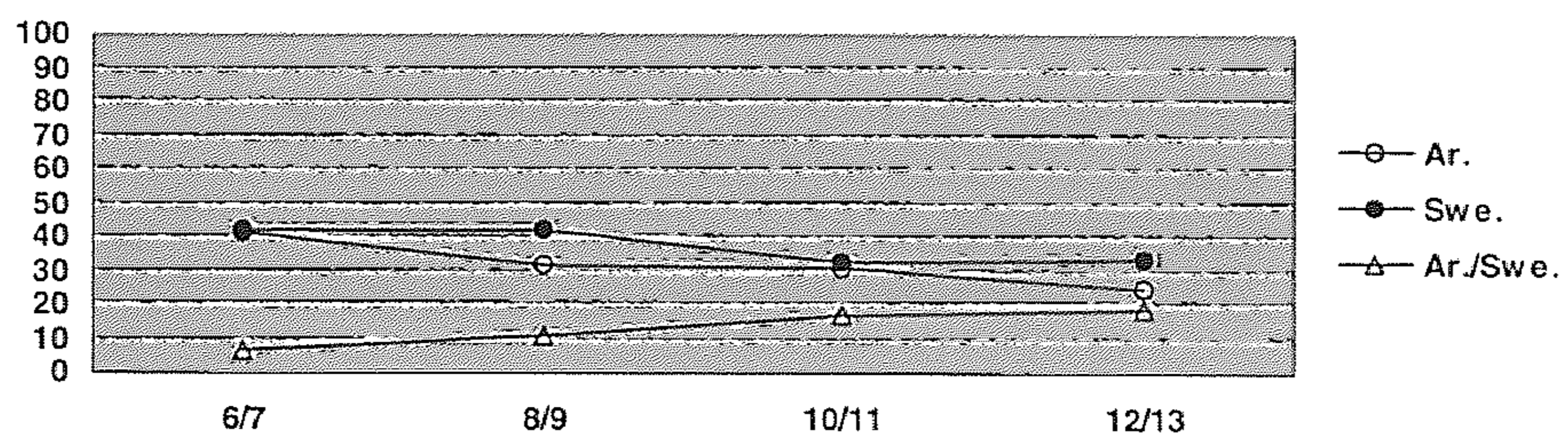


Figure 5.2d Language preference for Arabic and Swedish

Age group	4/5	6/7	8/9	10/11	12/13	Unknown	Total
Number of pupils	2	220	273	275	91	10	871

Table 5.2a Number of pupils per age group with Arabic as a home language

Birth country	Pupil		Mother		Father	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Sweden	627	72%	62	7%	18	2%
Irak	113	13%	185	21%	220	25%
Lebanon	26	3%	225	26%	251	29%
Syria	23	3%	98	11%	79	9%
Kurdistan	9	1%	10	1%	10	1%
Iran	6	1%	18	2%	18	2%
Other countries	53	6%	224	26%	229	26%
Unknown	14	2%	49	6%	46	5%
Total	871	100%	871	100%	971	100%

Table 5.2b Birth country of pupils and their parents whose home language is Arabic

Kurdish	58	French	14
English	46	Somali	14
Syrian	18	28 other languages	77
Albanian	16		

Table 5.2c Languages other than Arabic used at home by the Arabic language group

Most pupils were born in Sweden. Most parents have been born abroad, in particular in Iraq and Lebanon. Apart from Arabic, Kurdish and English are used in 7% and 5% of the pupils' homes respectively.

Language proficiency (Fig. 5.2a). Understanding and speaking skills in Arabic are decreasingly reported by 94-87% and 91-79% of all children respectively. Reading and writing skills in Arabic are increasingly reported by 26-51% and 27-52% of the children from 6-11 years respectively.

Language choice (Fig. 5.2b). At home, 71-79% of all children report commonly speaking Arabic with their mother, 76-85% with their father, 44-46% with their younger brothers/sisters, 32-42% with their older brothers/sisters, and 26-37% with their best friends.

Language dominance (Fig. 5.2c). Dominance in Swedish is reported by 48-57% of all children. Dominance in Arabic is decreasingly reported by 35-20% of all age groups. Balanced bilingualism is increasingly reported by 8-20% of all age groups.

Language preference (Fig. 5.2d). Preference for Arabic is decreasingly reported by 42-25%, and preference for Swedish decreasingly by 43-34% of all age groups. No preference is reported by an increasing 7-19% of all age groups.

5.1.3 Kurdish language group

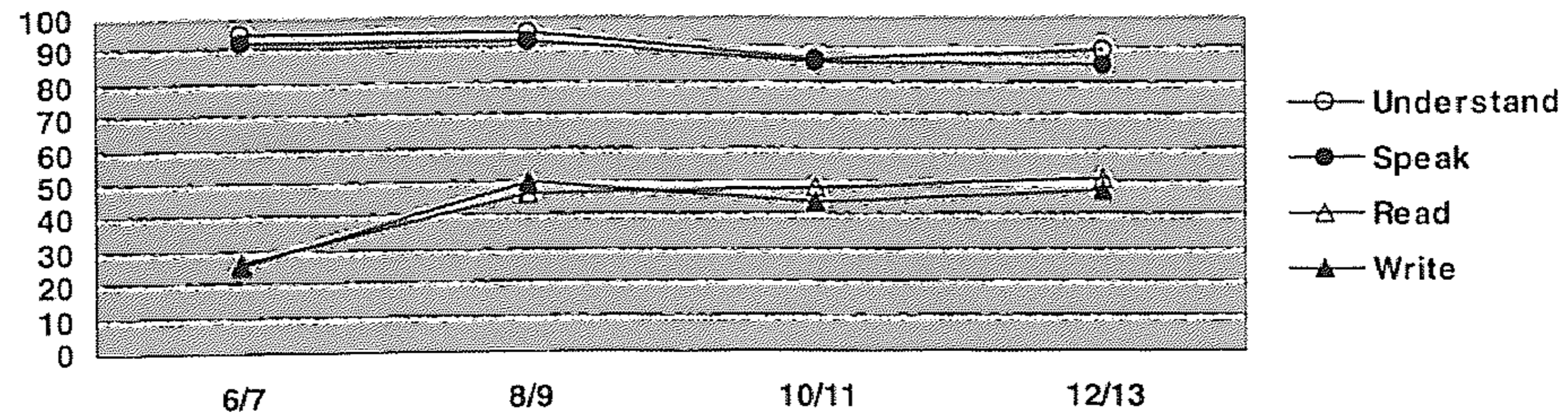


Figure 5.3a Language proficiency in Kurdish

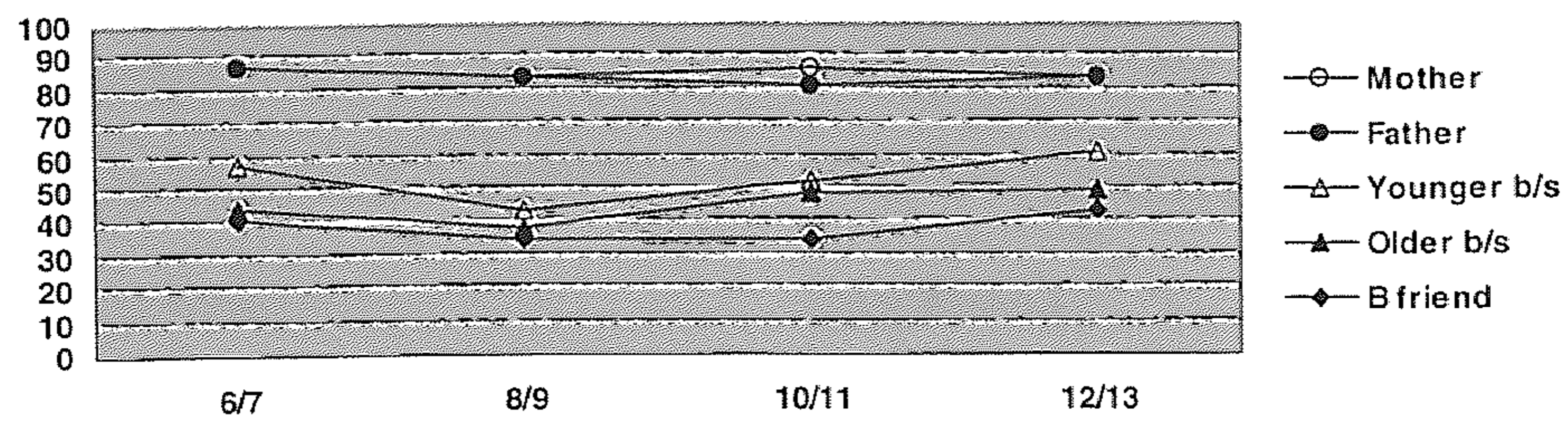


Figure 5.3b Language choice for Kurdish

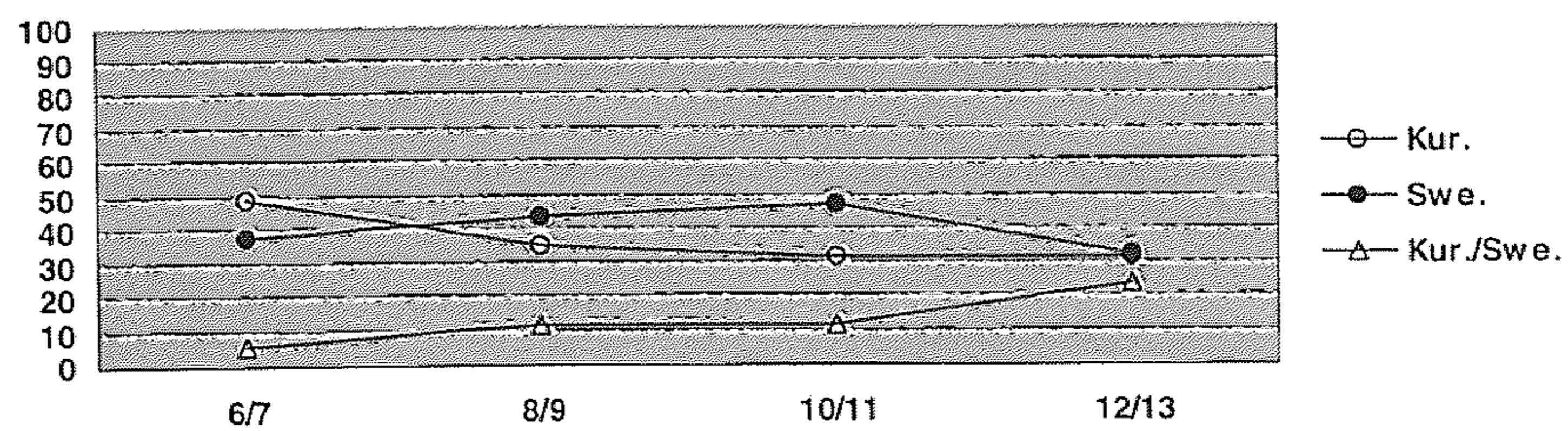


Figure 5.3c Language dominance in Kurdish and Swedish

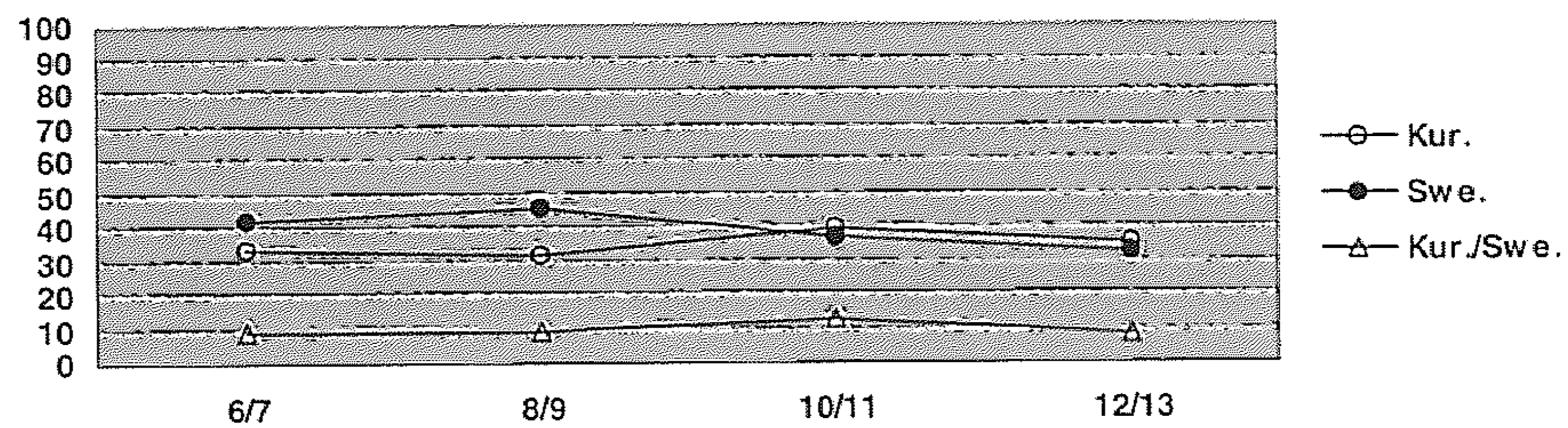


Figure 5.3d Language preference for Kurdish and Swedish

Age group	4/5	6/7	8/9	10/11	12/13	Unknown	Total
Number of pupils	2	131	165	172	88	9	567

Table 5.3a Number of pupils per age group with Kurdish as a home language

Birth country	Pupil		Mother		Father	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Sweden	222	39%	12	2%	5	1%
Iraq	175	31%	223	39%	243	43%
Kurdistan	86	15%	124	22%	139	25%
Iran	31	5%	73	13%	65	11%
Turkey	27	5%	79	14%	76	13%
Syria	4	1%	12	2%	10	2%
Other countries	10	2%	16	3%	3	1%
Unknown	12	2%	28	5%	26	5%
Total	567	100%	567	100%	567	100%

Table 5.3b Birth country of pupils and their parents whose home language is Kurdish

Turkish	60	Croatian	6
Arabic	58	German	4
English	15	13 other languages	21
Spanish	7		

Table 5.3c Languages other than Kurdish used at home by the Kurdish language group

Most pupils were born abroad and very few parents have been born in Sweden. Apart from Kurdish, Turkish and Arabic are used in 11% and 10% of the pupils' homes respectively.

Language proficiency (Fig. 5.3a). Understanding and speaking skills in Kurdish are reported by 88-96% and 86-93% of all children respectively. Reading and writing skills in Kurdish are increasingly reported by 27-52% and 26-48% of all age groups respectively.

Language choice (Fig. 5.3b). At home, 84-88% of all children report commonly speaking Kurdish with their mother, 82-88% with their father, 44-61% with their younger brothers/sisters, 39-50% with their older brothers/sisters, and 35-44% with their best friends.

Language dominance (Fig. 5.3c). Dominance in Kurdish is reported by a decreasing 50-32% of all age groups, and dominance in Swedish by 33-48% of all children. Balanced bilingualism is reported by an increasing 6-24% of all age groups.

Language preference (Fig. 5.3d). Preference for Kurdish is reported by 32-40%, and preference for Swedish by 33-46% of all children. No preference is reported by 9-13% of all children.

5.1.4 Turkish language group

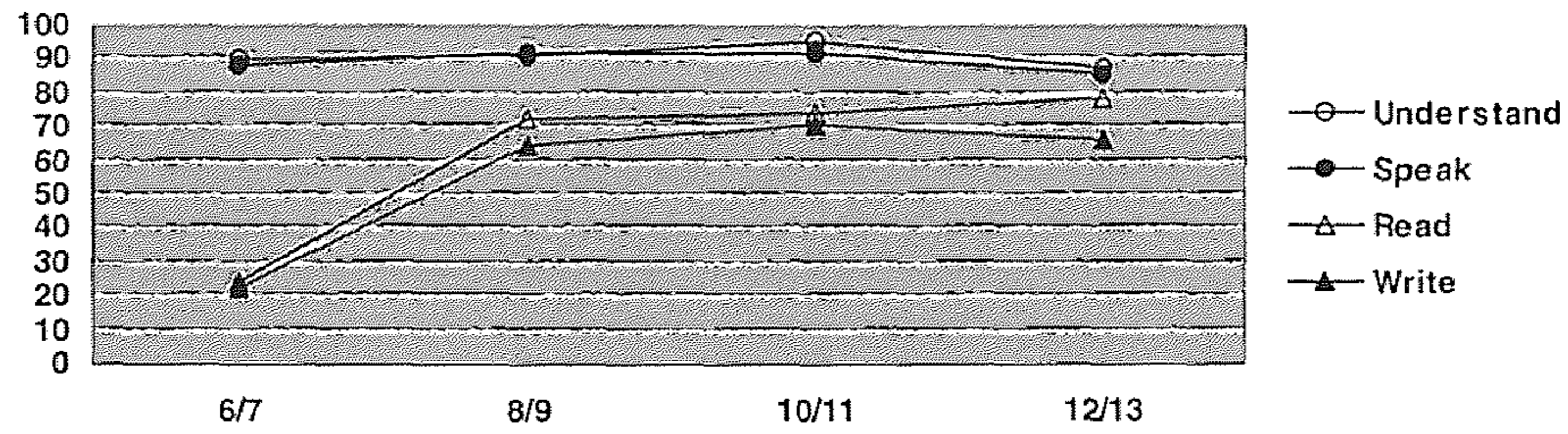


Figure 5.4a Language proficiency in Turkish

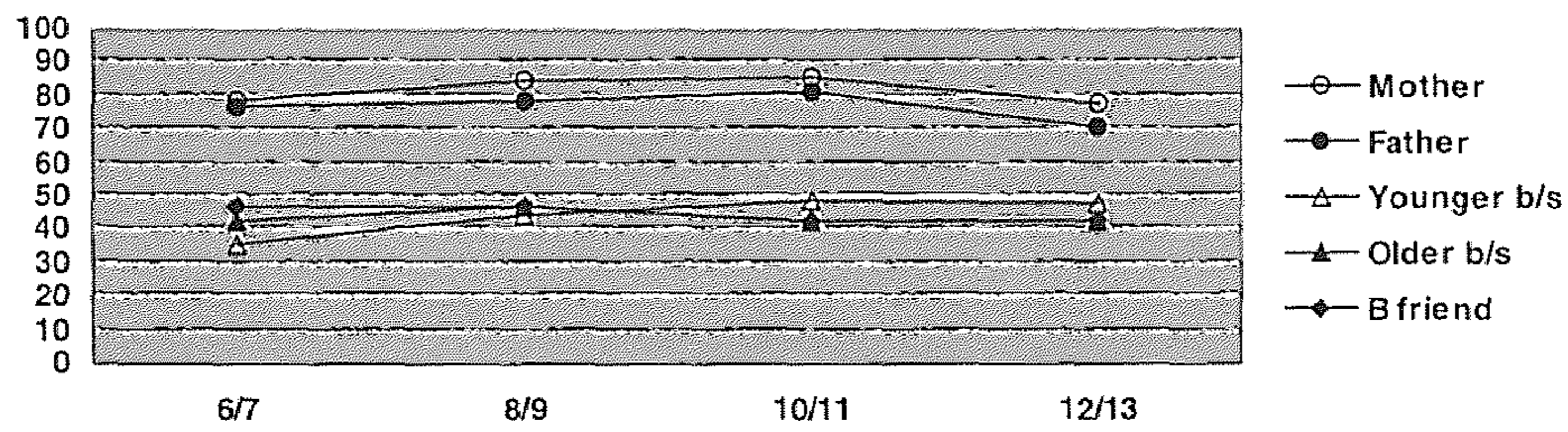


Figure 5.4b Language choice for Turkish

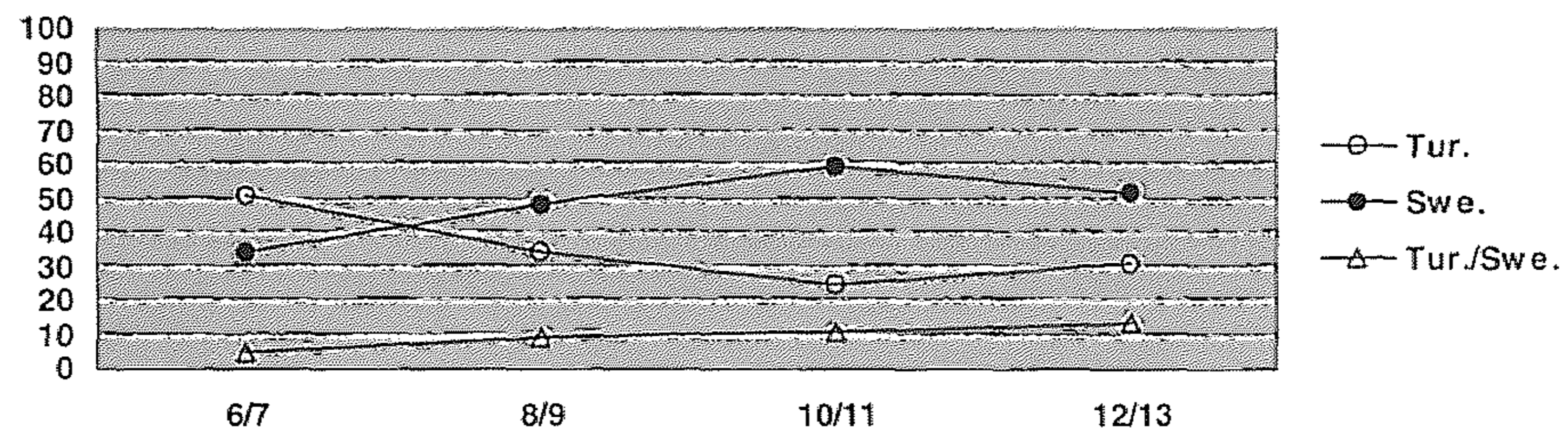


Figure 5.4c Language dominance in Turkish and Swedish

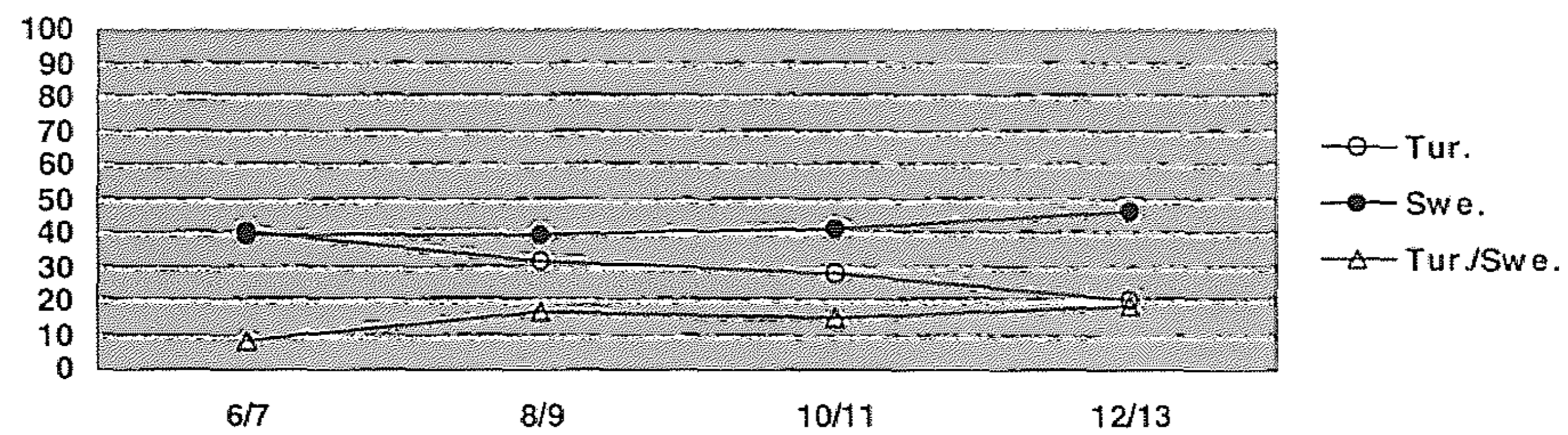


Figure 5.4d Language preference for Turkish and Swedish

Age group	4/5	6/7	8/9	10/11	12/13	Unknown	Total
Number of pupils	4	124	115	146	58	7	454

Table 5.4a Number of pupils per age group with Turkish as a home language

Birth country	Pupil		Mother		Father	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Sweden	382	84%	55	12%	33	7%
Turkey	49	11%	331	73%	340	75%
Iraq	7	2%	12	3%	16	4%
Iran	3	1%	10	2%	21	5%
Bulgaria	3	1%	7	2%	6	1%
Germany	1	-	5	1%	4	1%
Other countries	7	2%	19	4%	22	5%
Unknown	2	-	15	3%	12	3%
Total	454	100%	454	100%	454	100%

Table 5.4b Birth country of pupils and their parents whose home language is Turkish

Kurdish	60	Bulgarian	3
English	21	Chinese	2
Arabic	13	14 other languages	15
German	5		

Table 5.4c Languages other than Turkish used at home by the Turkish language group

Most pupils were born in Sweden and most parents in Turkey. Apart from Turkish, Kurdish and English are used in 13% and 5% of the pupils' homes.

Language proficiency (Fig. 5.4a). Understanding and speaking skills in Turkish are reported by 88-96% and 86-92% of all children respectively. Reading and writing skills in Turkish are reported by an increasing 25-79% and 23-67% of all age groups respectively.

Language choice (Fig. 5.4b). At home, 78-86% of all children report commonly speaking Turkish with their mother, 71-82% with their father, 36-49% with their younger brothers/sisters, 43-47% with their older brothers/sisters, and also 43-47% with their best friends.

Language dominance (Fig. 5.4c). Dominance in Swedish is reported by an increasing 35-52%, and dominance in Turkish by a decreasing 51-31% of all age groups. Balanced bilingualism is reported by an increasing 5-14% of all age groups.

Language preference (Fig. 5.4d). Preference for Swedish is reported by an increasing 40-47%, and preference for Turkish by a decreasing 41-21% of all age groups. No preference is reported by an increasing 9-19% of all age groups.

5.1.5 Bosnian language group

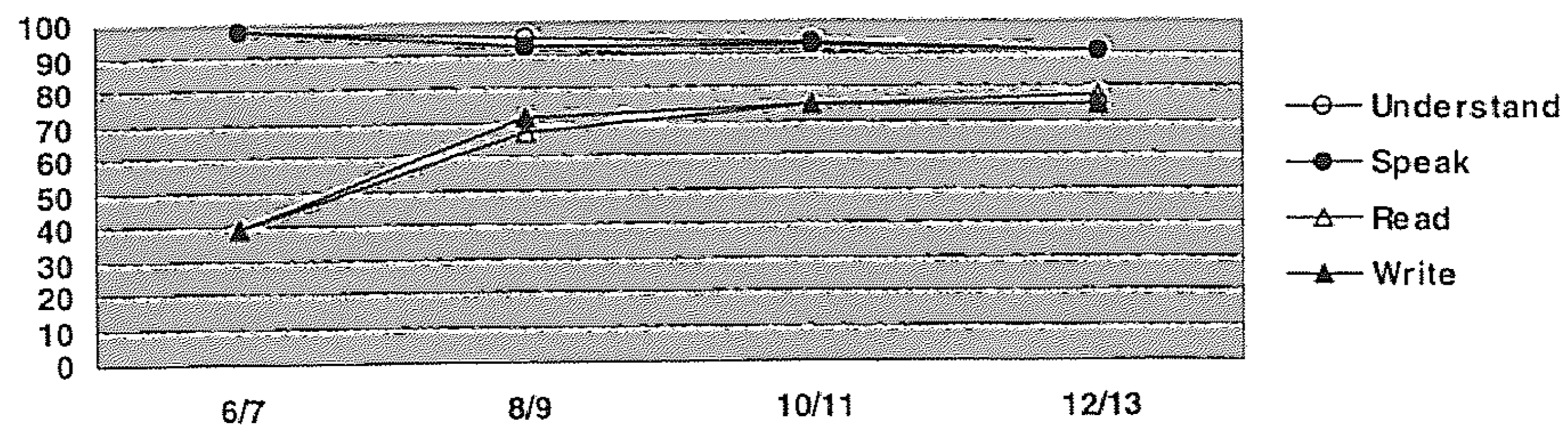


Figure 5.5a Language proficiency in Bosnian

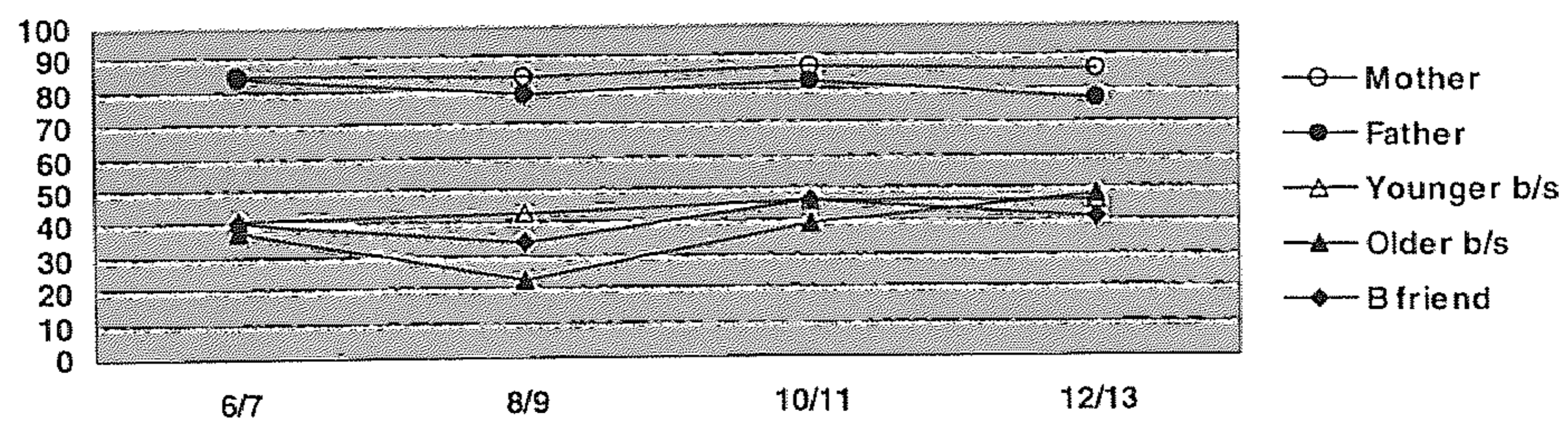


Figure 5.5b Language choice for Bosnian

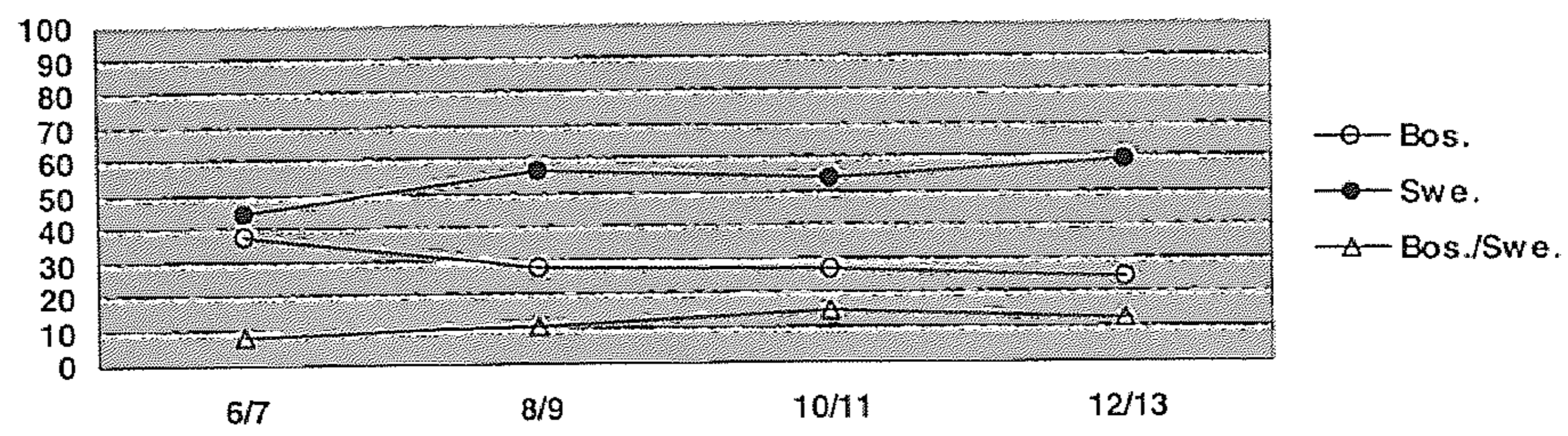


Figure 5.5c Language dominance in Bosnian and Swedish

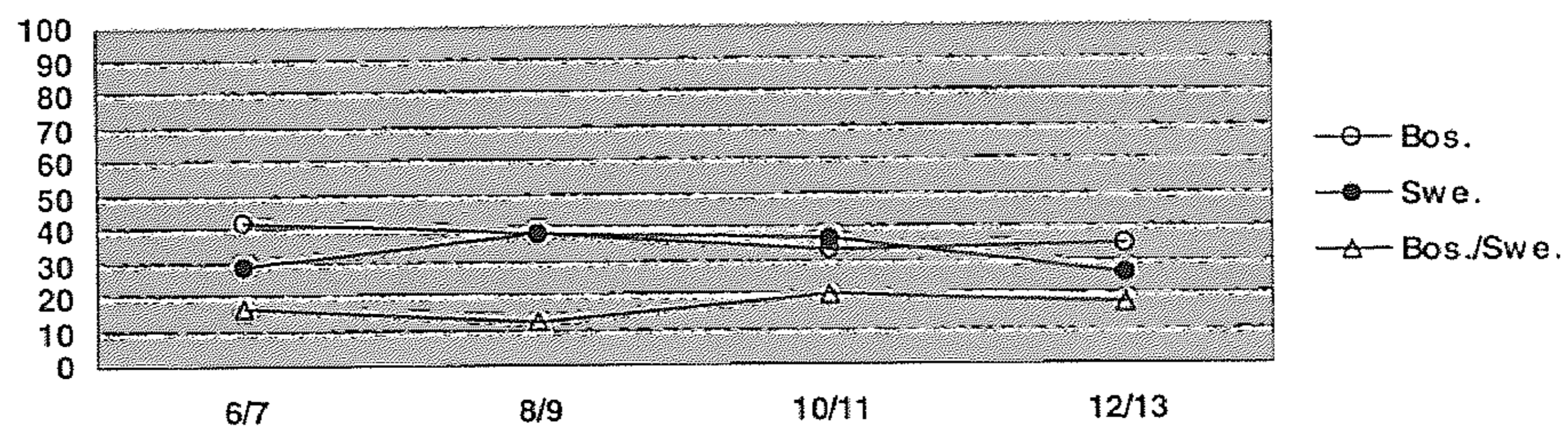


Figure 5.5d Language preference for Bosnian and Swedish

Age group	4/5	6/7	8/9	10/11	12/13	Unknown	Total
Number of pupils	4	115	112	144	55	7	437

Table 5.5a Number of pupils per age group with Bosnian as a home language

Birth country	Pupil		Mother		Father	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Bosnia	232	53%	364	83%	370	85%
Sweden	174	40%	11	3%	1	-
Croatia	9	2%	15	3%	13	3%
Germany	6	1%	2	-	1	-
Albania	3	1%	8	2%	8	2%
Yugoslavia	2	-	13	3%	19	4%
Other countries	10	2%	10	2%	16	4%
Unknown	1	-	14	3%	9	2%
Total	437	100%	437	100%	437	100%

Table 5.5b Birth country of pupils and their parents whose home language is Bosnian

Serbian/Croatian	39	German	9
English	17	Albanian	8
Romani/Sinte	14	10 other languages	17

Table 5.5c Languages other than Bosnian used at home by the Bosnian language group

More than half of the pupils were born in Sweden, and most parents in Bosnia. Apart from Bosnian, Serbian or Croatian is used in 9% of the pupils' homes.

Language proficiency (Fig. 5.5a). Understanding and speaking skills in Bosnian are reported by a decreasing 98-91% of all age groups. Reading and writing skills in Bosnian are reported by an increasing 40-76% and 40-76% of all age groups respectively.

Language choice (Fig. 5.5b). At home, 85-88% of all children report commonly speaking Bosnian with their mother, 78-85% with their father, 42-47% with their younger brothers/sisters, 24-49% with their older brothers/sisters, and 35-47% with their best friends.

Language dominance (Fig. 5.5c). Dominance in Swedish is reported by an increasing 45-60%, and dominance in Bosnian by a decreasing 38-25% of all age groups. Balanced bilingualism is reported by 9-16% of all children.

Language preference (Fig. 5.5d). Preference for Bosnian is reported by a slightly decreasing 43-36% of all age groups, and preference for Swedish by 27-39% of all children. No preference is reported by 13-21% of all children.

5.1.6 Spanish language group

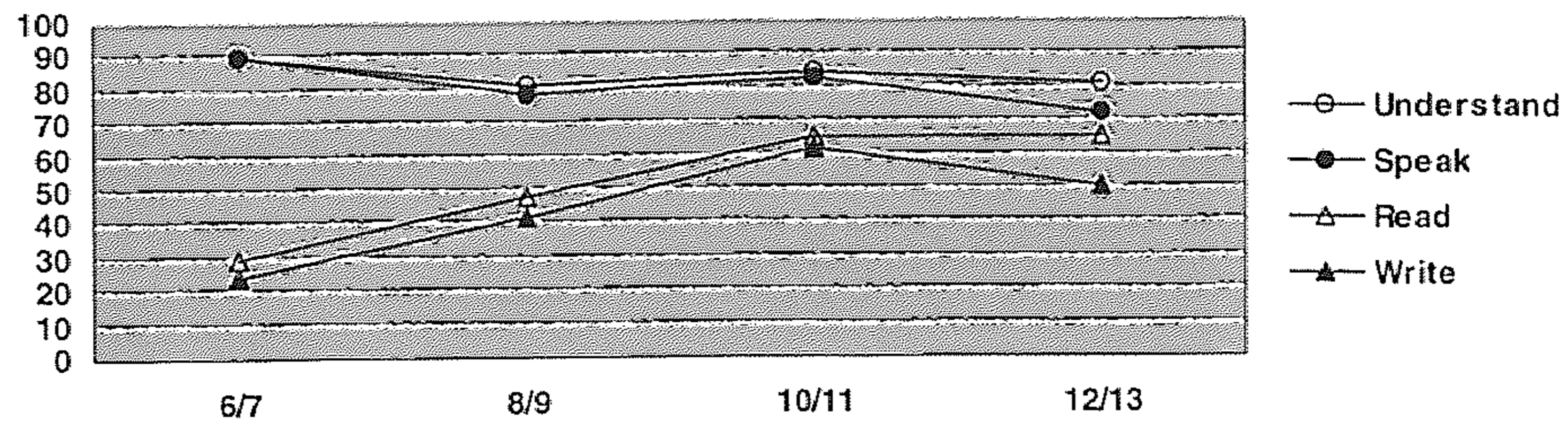


Figure 5.6a Language proficiency in Spanish

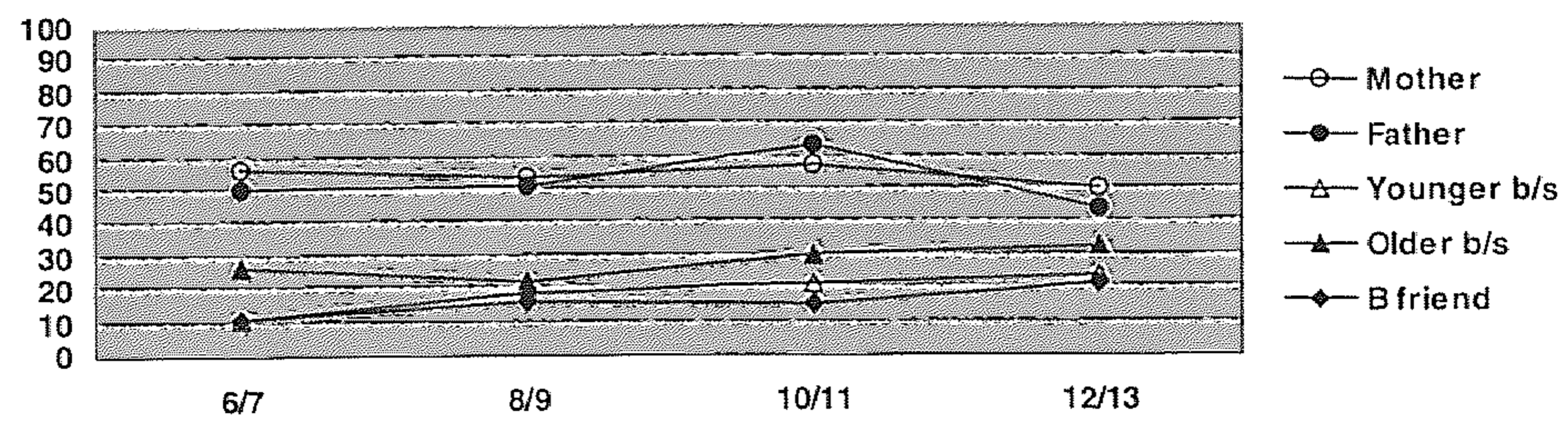


Figure 5.6b Language choice for Spanish

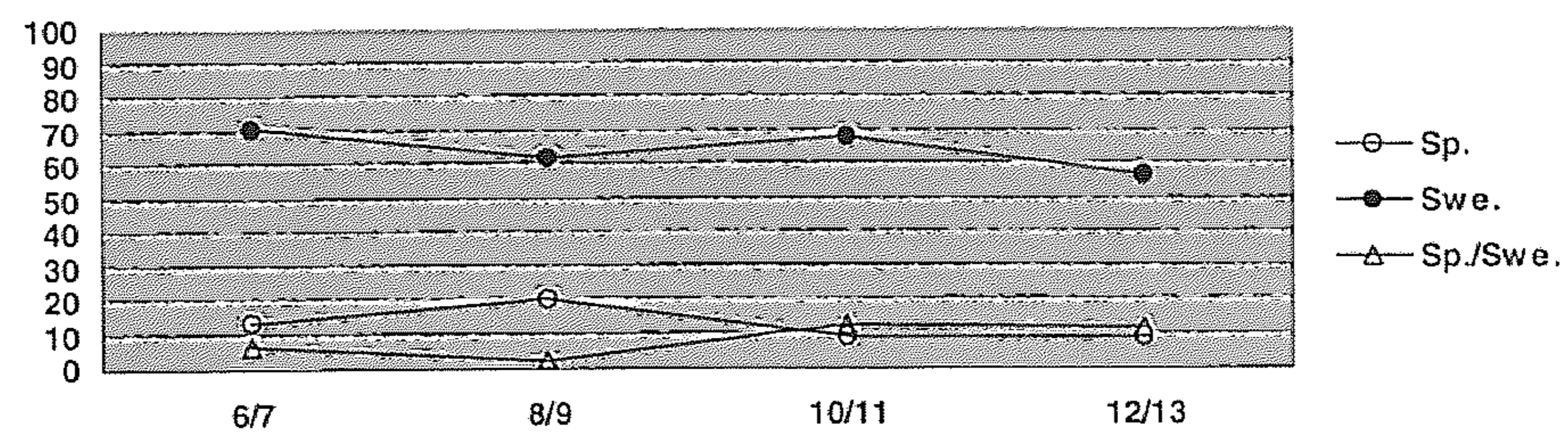


Figure 5.6c Language dominance in Spanish and Swedish

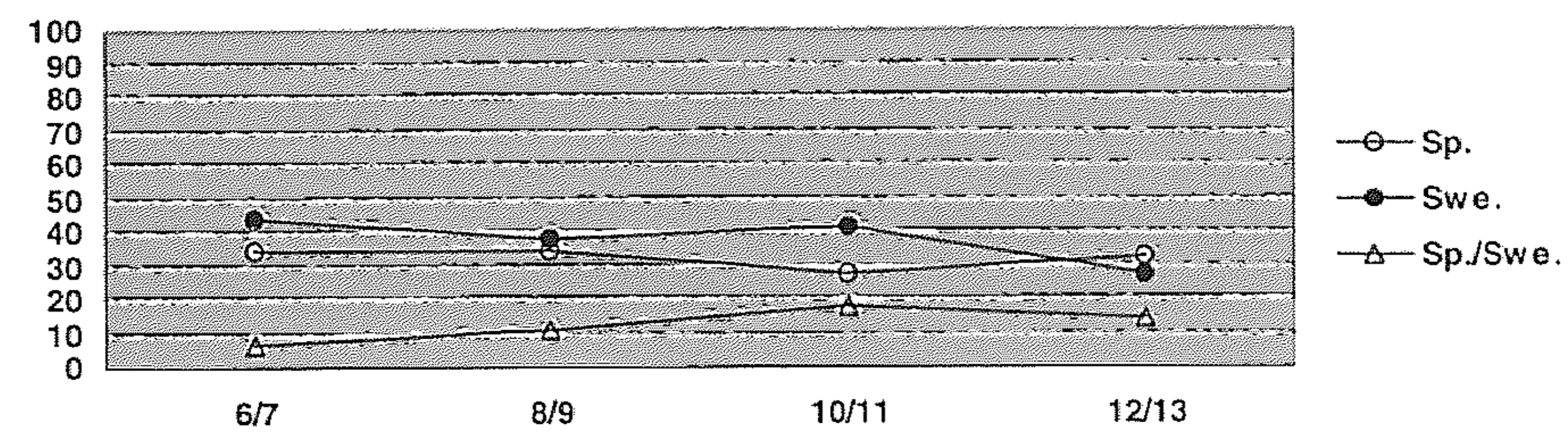


Figure 5.6d Language preference for Spanish and Swedish

Age group	4/5	6/7	8/9	10/11	12/13	Unknown	Total
Number of pupils	1	96	102	130	67	6	402

Table 5.6a Number of pupils per age group with Spanish as a home language

Birth country	Pupil		Mother		Father	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Sweden	342	85%	142	35%	113	28%
Chile	16	4%	112	28%	117	29%
Bolivia	12	3%	19	5%	25	6%
Peru	2	-	12	3%	16	4%
Colombia	3	1%	12	3%	6	1%
Spain	2	-	14	3%	15	4%
Other countries	22	5%	66	16%	85	21%
Unknown	3	1%	25	6%	25	6%
Total	402	100%	402	100%	402	100%

Table 5.6b Birth country of pupils and their parents whose home language is Spanish

English	53	Portuguese	6
German	9	Chinese	3
French	7	15 other languages	25
Kurdish	7		

Table 5.6c Languages other than Spanish used at home by the Spanish language group

Most pupils were born in Sweden, and most parents abroad. Apart from Spanish, English is used in 13% of the pupils' homes.

Language proficiency (Fig. 5.6a). Understanding and speaking skills in Spanish are reported by a decreasing 90-82% and 90-73% of all age groups respectively. Reading and writing skills in Spanish are reported by an increasing 30-66% and 25-51% of all age groups respectively.

Language choice (Fig. 5.6b). At home, 51-58% of all children report commonly speaking Spanish with their mother, 45-64% with their father, 11-25% with their younger brothers/sisters, 23-33% with their older brothers/sisters, and an increasing 11-22% of all age groups with their best friends.

Language dominance (Fig. 5.6c). Dominance in Swedish is reported by a decreasing 71-57% of all age groups, and dominance in Spanish by 10-21% of all children. Balanced bilingualism is reported by 3-13% of all children.

Language preference (Fig. 5.6d). Preference for Spanish is reported by 28-35%, and preference for Swedish by 28-44% of all children. No preference is reported by 7-18% of all children.

5.1.7 Finnish language group

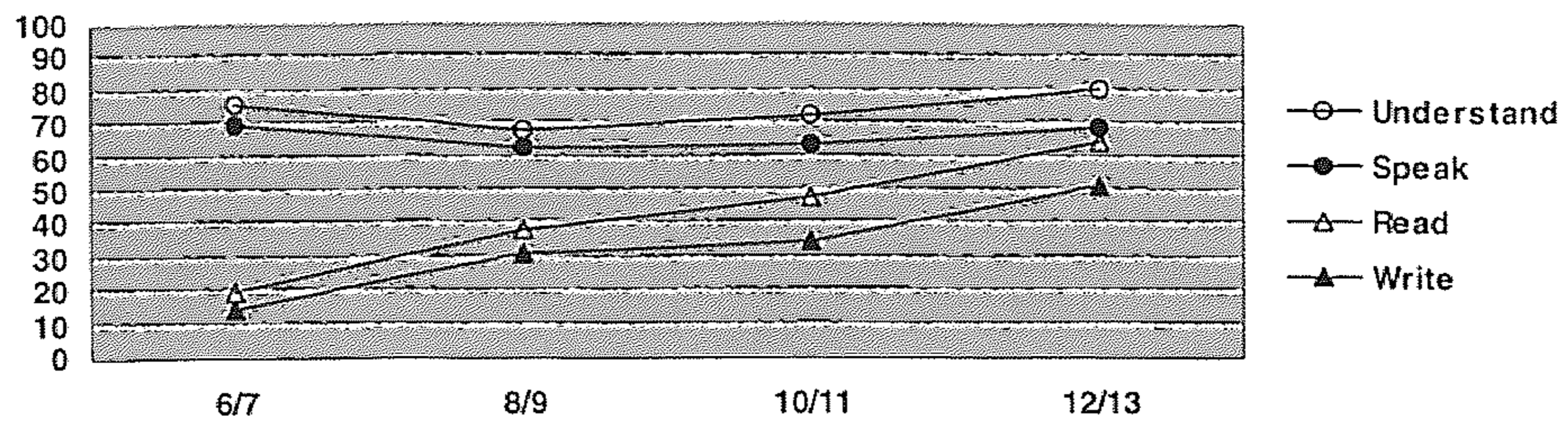


Figure 5.7a Language proficiency in Finnish

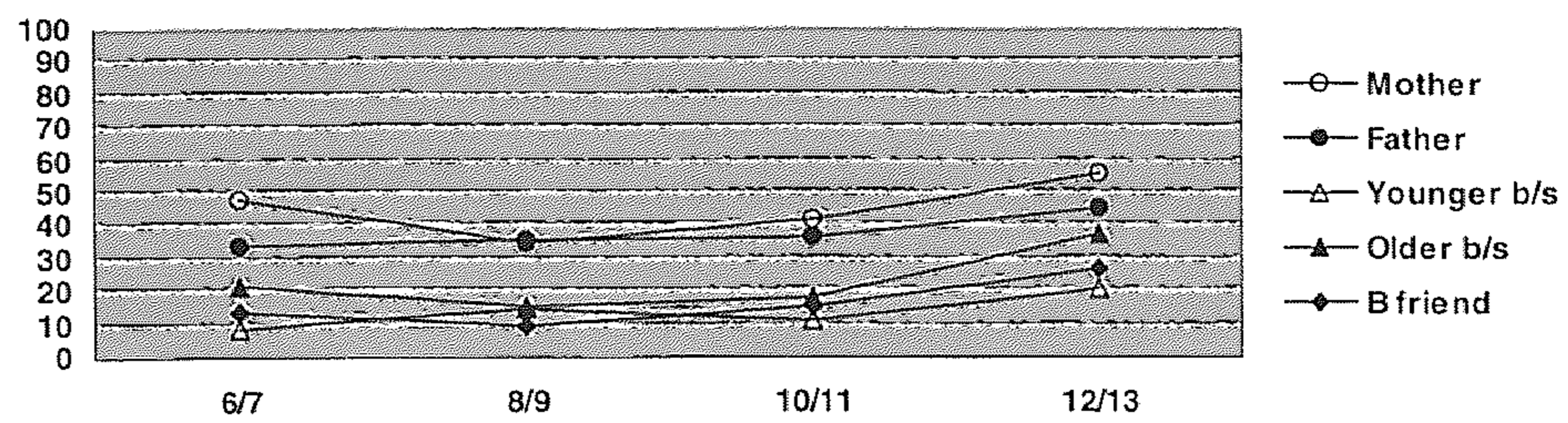


Figure 5.7b Language choice for Finnish

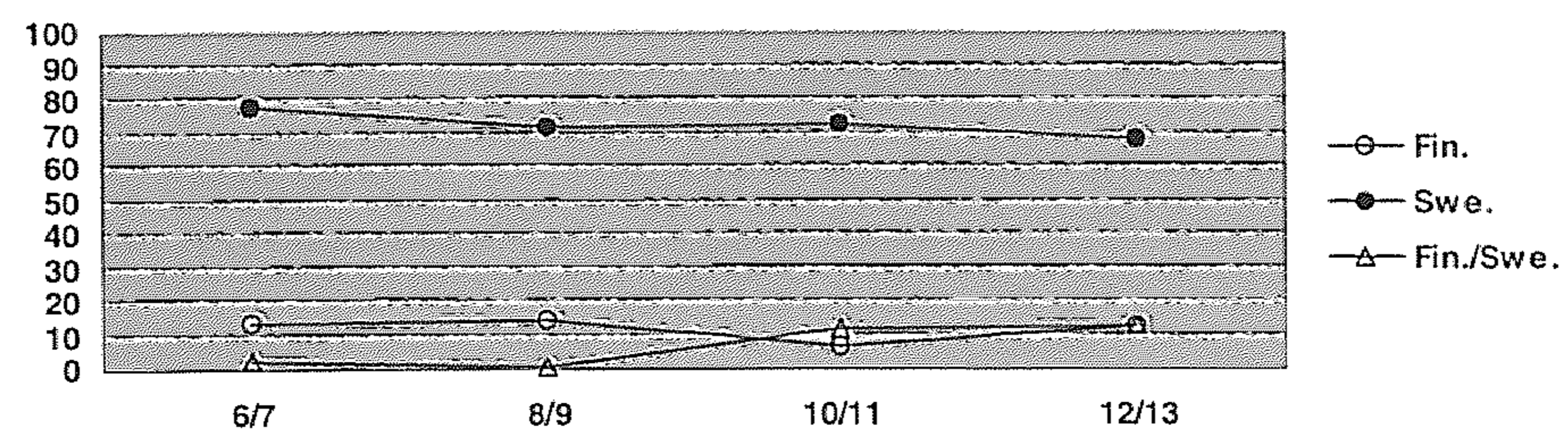


Figure 5.7c Language dominance in Finnish and Swedish

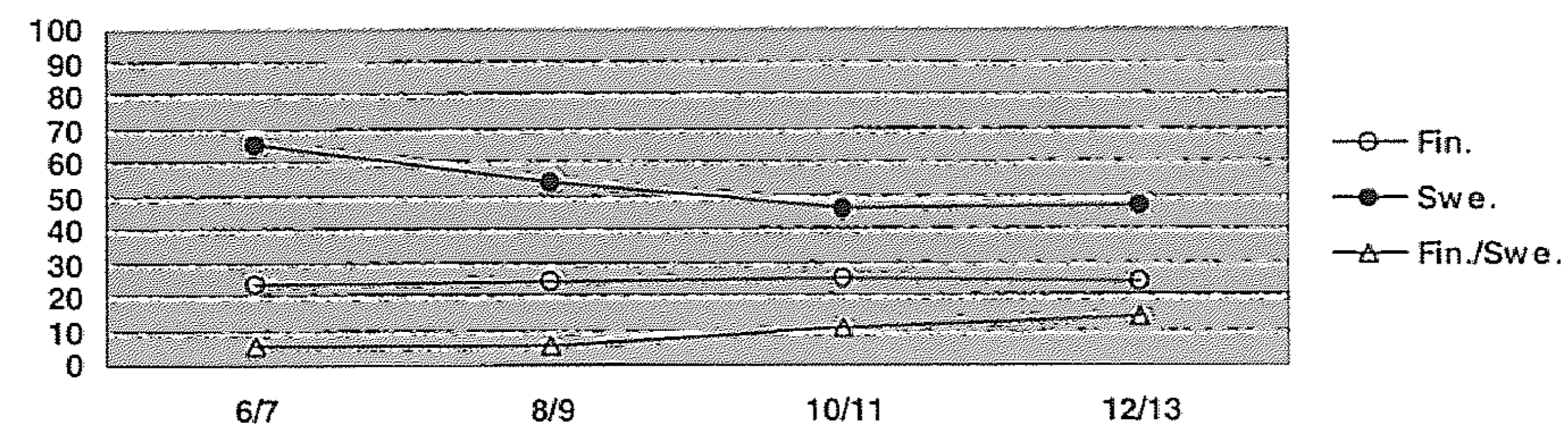


Figure 5.7d Language preference for Finnish and Swedish

Age group	4/5	6/7	8/9	10/11	12/13	Unknown	Total
Number of pupils	2	87	102	132	52	3	378

Table 5.7a Number of pupils per age group with Finnish as a home language

Birth country	Pupil		Mother		Father	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Sweden	359	95%	152	40%	146	39%
Finland	16	4%	204	54%	177	47%
Somalia	1	-	3	1%	2	1%
Sri Lanka	1	-	-	-	-	-
Iran	-	-	-	-	9	2%
Belize	-	-	-	-	4	1%
Other countries	-	-	12	3%	28	7%
Unknown	1	-	7	2%	12	3%
Total	378	100%	378	100%	378	100%

Table 5.7b Birth country of pupils and their parents whose home language is Finnish

English	35	Norwegian	4
French	5	Somali	3
Arabic	4	18 other languages	24
German	4		

Table 5.7c Languages other than Finnish used at home by the Finnish language group

Almost all pupils and about half of their parents were born in Sweden. Apart from Finnish, English is used in 9% of the pupils' homes.

Language proficiency (Fig. 5.7a). Understanding and speaking skills in Finnish are reported by 68-81% and 63-70% of all children respectively. Reading and writing skills in Finnish are reported by a strongly increasing 20-65% and 15-52% of all age groups respectively.

Language choice (Fig. 5.7b). At home, 35-56% of all children report commonly speaking Finnish with their mother, 34-46% with their father, 9-21% with their younger brothers/sisters, 16-38% with their older brothers/sisters, and 10-27% with their best friends. In interaction with all interlocutors, there is an increase of choosing Finnish with age.

Language dominance (Fig. 5.7c). Dominance in Finnish is reported by a decreasing 78-69% of all age groups, and dominance in Swedish by 7-15% of all children. Balanced bilingualism is reported by 1-13% of all children.

Language preference (Fig. 5.7d). Preference for Finnish is reported by 24-26% of all children, and preference for Swedish by a decreasing 66-48% of all age groups. No preference is reported by an increasing 6-15% of all age groups.

5.1.8 Somali language group

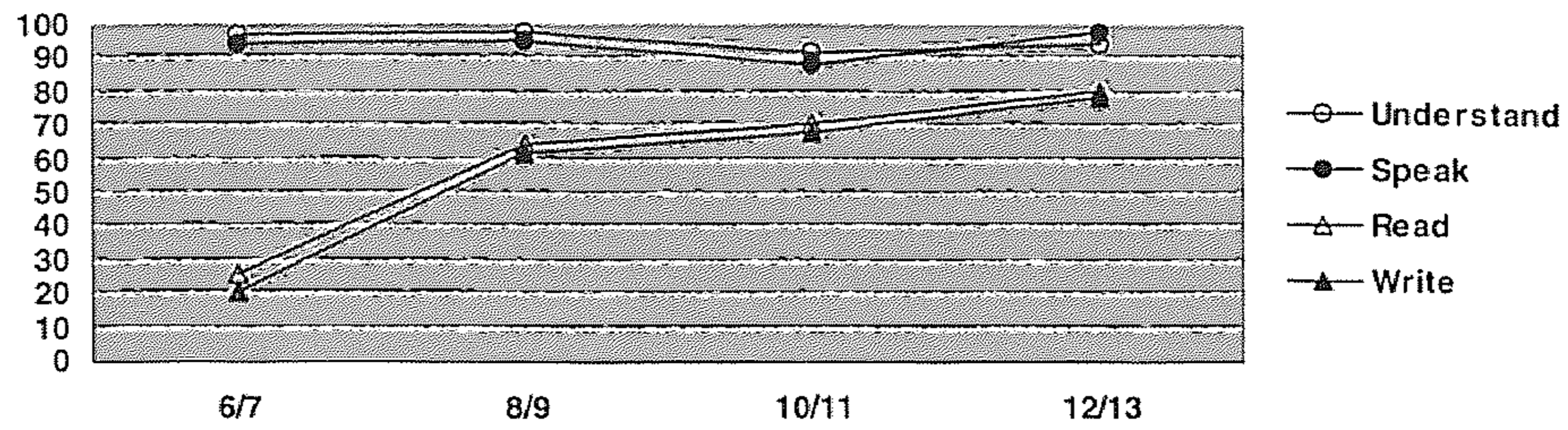


Figure 5.8a Language proficiency in Somali

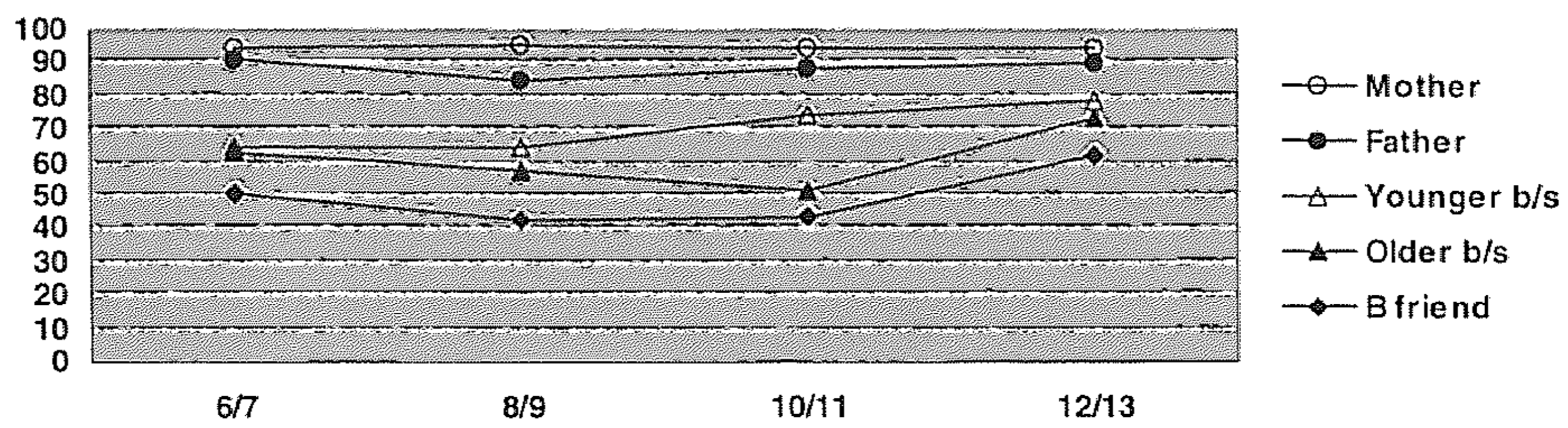


Figure 5.8b Language choice for Somali

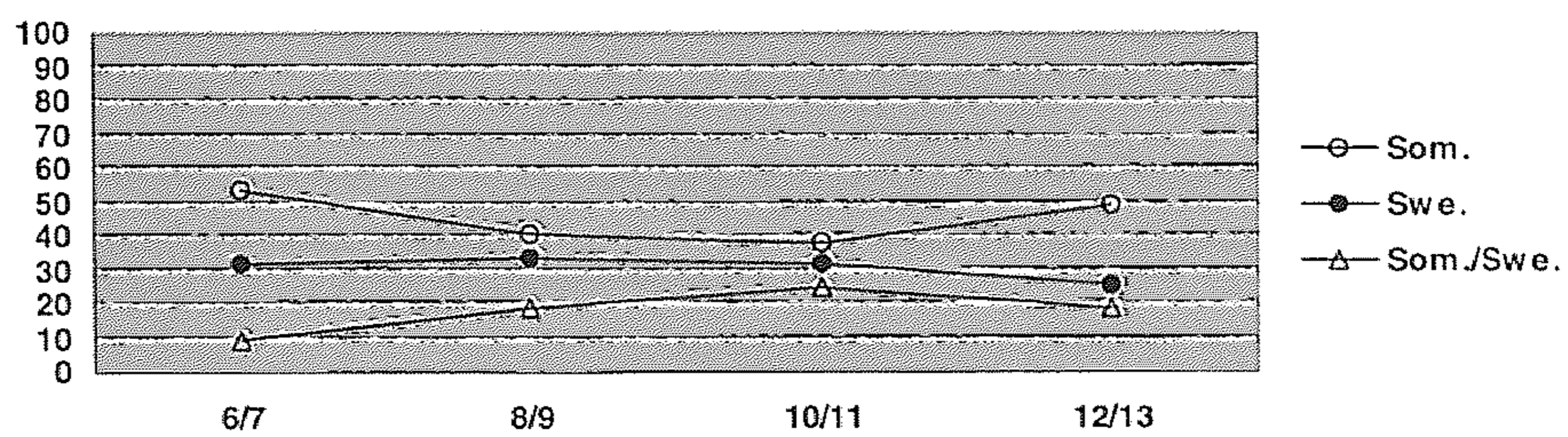


Figure 5.8c Language dominance in Somali and Swedish

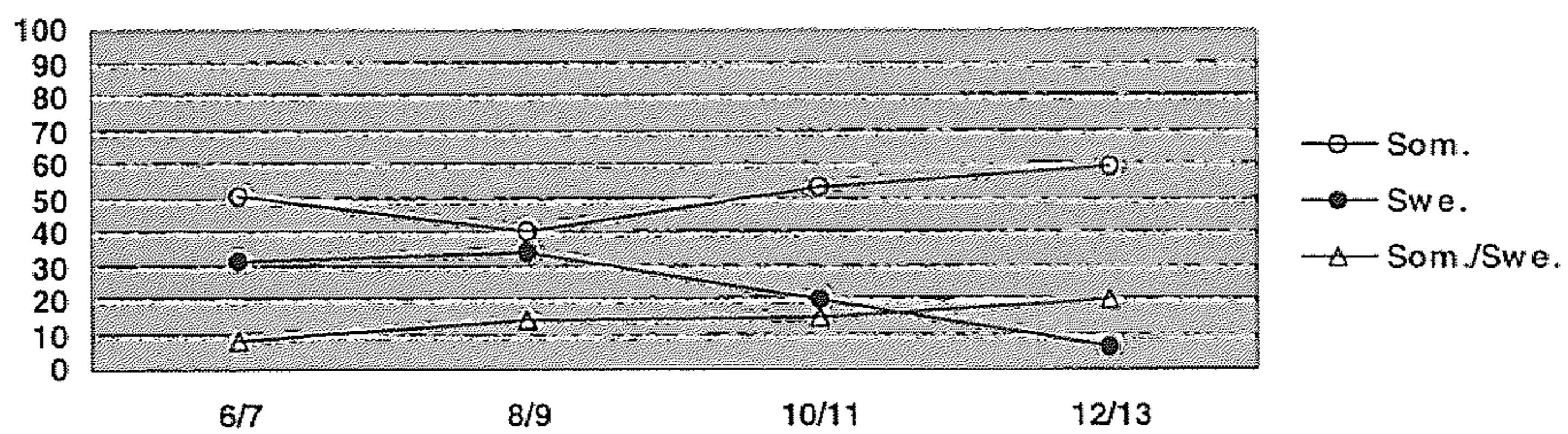


Figure 5.8d Language preference for Somali and Swedish

Age group	4/5	6/7	8/9	10/11	12/13	Unknown	Total
Number of pupils	2	150	102	63	42	10	369

Table 5.8a Number of pupils per age group with Somali as a home language

Birth country	Pupil		Mother		Father	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Sweden	246	67%	6	2%	2	1%
Somalia	113	31%	341	92%	340	92%
Saudi Arabia	2	1%	-	-	-	-
Ethiopia	-	-	3	1%	4	1%
England	-	-	1	-	1	-
Egypt	1	-	-	-	-	-
Other countries	4	1%	5	1%	9	2%
Unknown	3	1%	13	4%	13	4%
Total	369	100%	369	100%	369	100%

Table 5.8b Birth country of pupils and their parents whose home language is Somali

English	26	Albanian	2
Arabic	14	Italian	2
Finnish	3	3 other languages	3
Spanish	3		

Table 5.8c Languages other than Somali used at home by the Somali language group

Most pupils were born in Sweden and almost all of their parents in Somalia. Apart from Somali, English and Arabic are used in 7% and 4% of the pupils' homes respectively.

Language proficiency (Fig. 5.8a). Understanding and speaking skills in Somali are reported by 92-98% and 89-98% of all children respectively. Reading and writing skills in Somali are reported by a strongly increasing 26-81% and 21-79% of all age groups respectively.

Language choice (Fig. 5.8b). At home, 95-96% of all children report commonly speaking Somali with their mother, 85-91% with their father, 65-79% with their younger brothers/sisters, 52-74% with their older brothers/sisters, and 43-62% with their best friends.

Language dominance (Fig. 5.8c). Dominance in Somali is reported by 38-54%, and dominance in Swedish by 26-34% of all children. Balanced bilingualism is reported by 10-25% of all children.

Language preference (Fig. 5.8d). Preference for Somali is reported by an increasing 41-60%, and preference for Swedish by a decreasing 35-7% of the children from 8-13 years. No preference is reported by an increasing 9-21% of all age groups.

5.1.9 Chinese language group

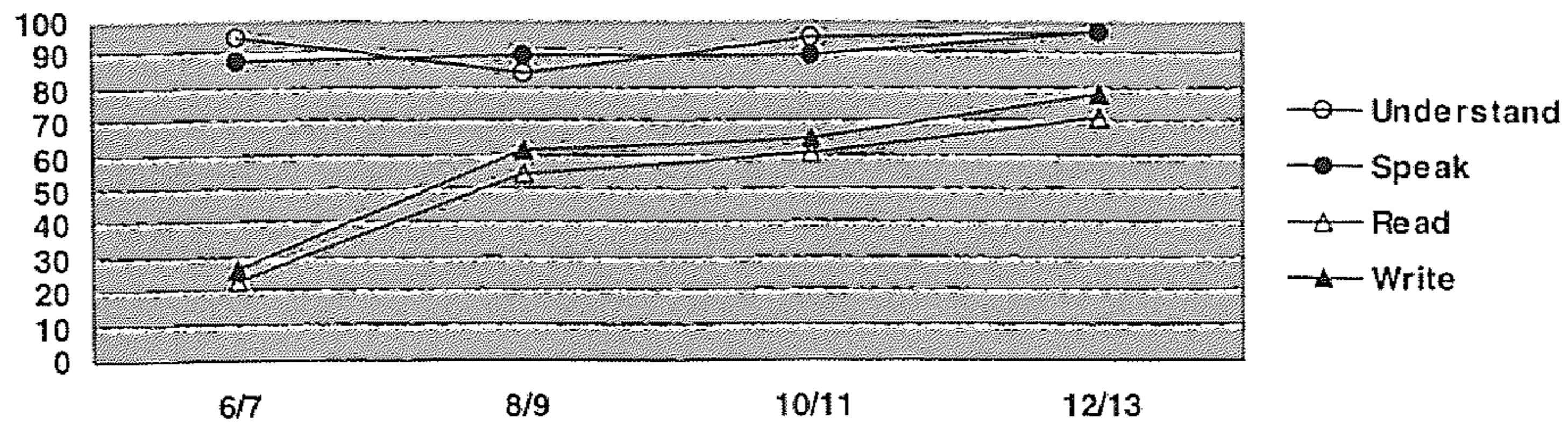


Figure 5.9a Language proficiency in Chinese

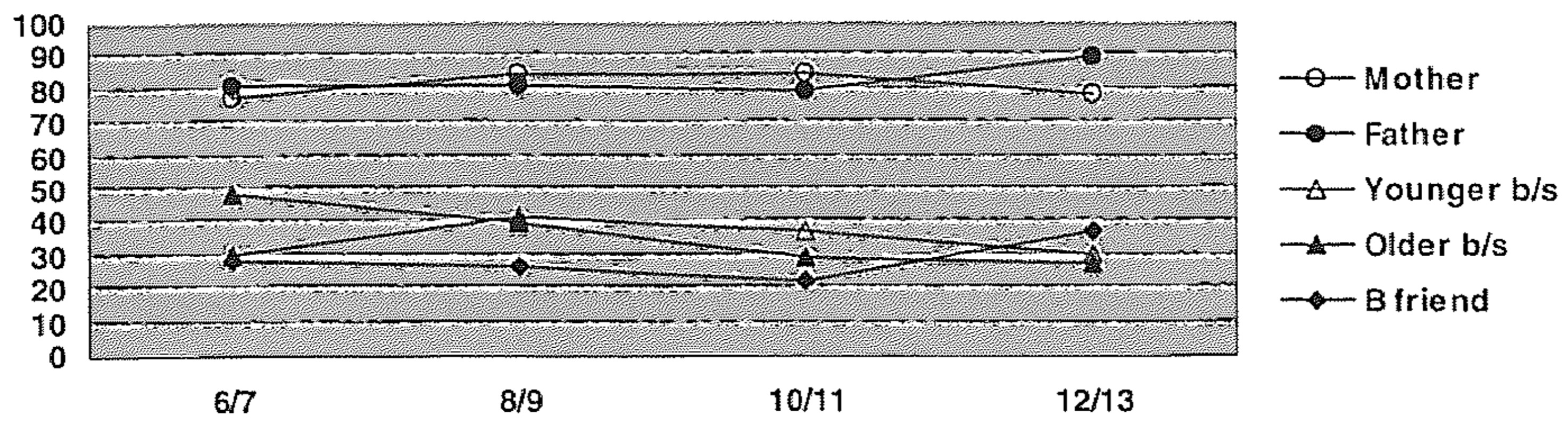


Figure 5.9b Language choice for Chinese

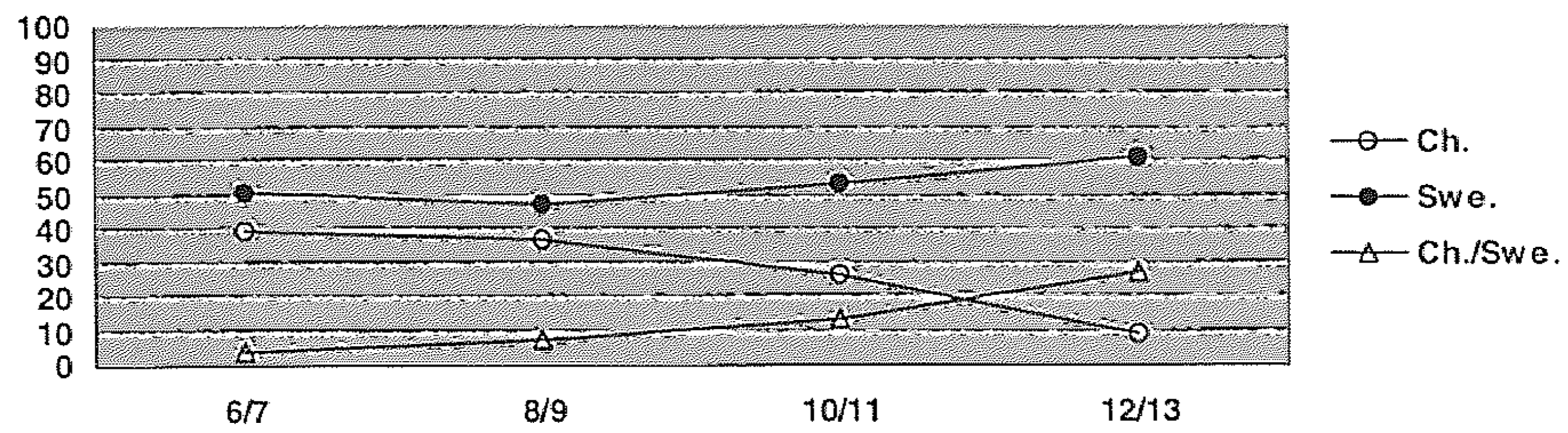


Figure 5.9c Language dominance in Chinese and Swedish

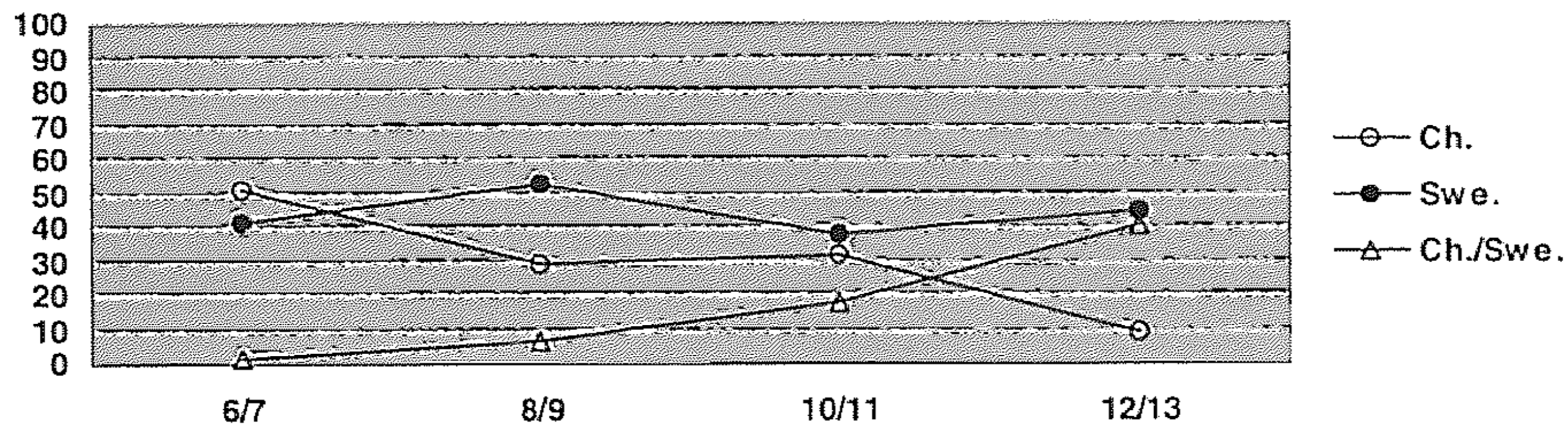


Figure 5.9d Language preference for Chinese and Swedish

Age group	4/5	6/7	8/9	10/11	12/13	Unknown	Total
Number of pupils	2	45	60	79	29	4	219

Table 5.9a Number of pupils per age group with Chinese as a home language

Birth country	Pupil		Mother		Father	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Sweden	188	86%	6	3%	12	5%
China	21	10%	114	52%	117	53%
Vietnam	1	-	51	23%	46	21%
Malaysia	-	-	7	3%	8	4%
Taiwan	-	-	4	2%	3	1%
India	-	-	10	5%	8	4%
Other countries	6	3%	20	9%	18	8%
Unknown	3	1%	7	3%	7	3%
Total	219	100%	219	100%	219	100%

Table 5.9b Birth country of pupils and their parents whose home language is Chinese

English	18	Hindi	2
Vietnamese	11	German	2
French	3	10 other languages	10
Spanish	3		

Table 5.9c Languages other than Chinese used at home by the Chinese language group

Most pupils were born in Sweden and more than half of their parents in China. Apart from Chinese, English and Vietnamese are used in 8% and 5% of the pupils' homes respectively.

Language proficiency (Fig. 5.9a). Understanding and speaking skills in Chinese are reported by 85-97% and 89-97% of all children respectively. Reading and writing skills in Chinese are reported by a strongly increasing 24-72% and 27-79% of all age groups respectively.

Language choice (Fig. 5.9b). At home, 78-85% of all children report commonly speaking Chinese with their mother, 80-90% with their father, 31-42% with their younger brothers/sisters, a decreasing 49-28% with their older brothers/sisters, and 23-38% with their best friends.

Language dominance (Fig. 5.9c). Dominance in Chinese is reported by a decreasing 40-10%, and dominance in Swedish by an increasing 51-62% of all age groups. Balanced bilingualism is reported by an increasing 4-28% of all age groups.

Language preference (Fig. 5.9d). Preference for Chinese is reported by a sharply decreasing 51-10% of all age groups, and preference for Swedish by 38-53% of all children. No preference is reported by a sharply increasing 2-41% of all age groups.

5.1.10 Albanian language group

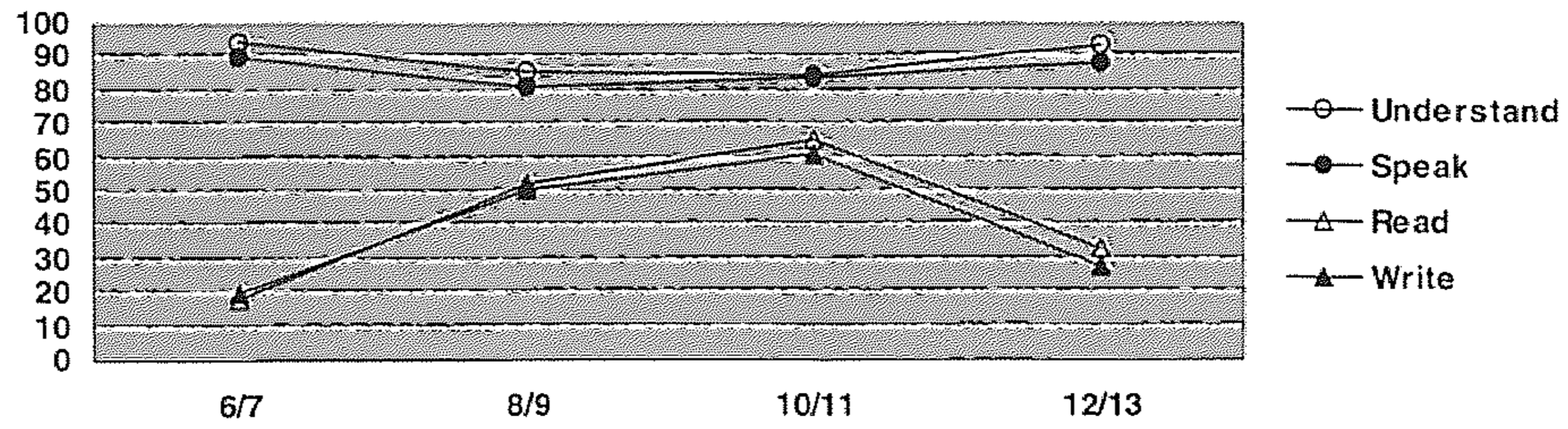


Figure 5.10a Language proficiency in Albanian

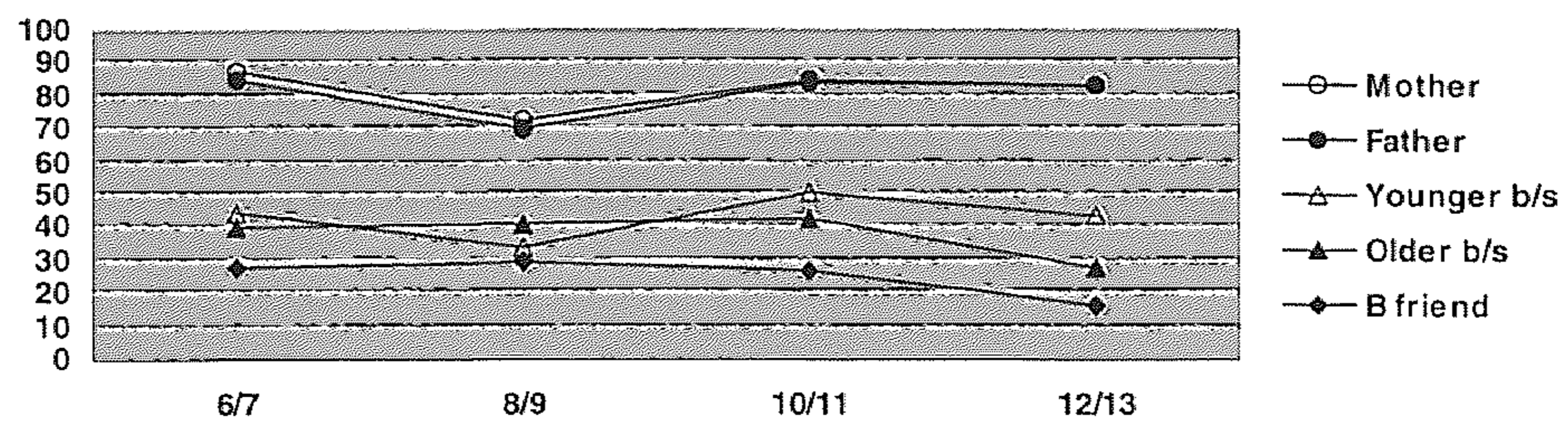


Figure 5.10b Language choice for Albanian

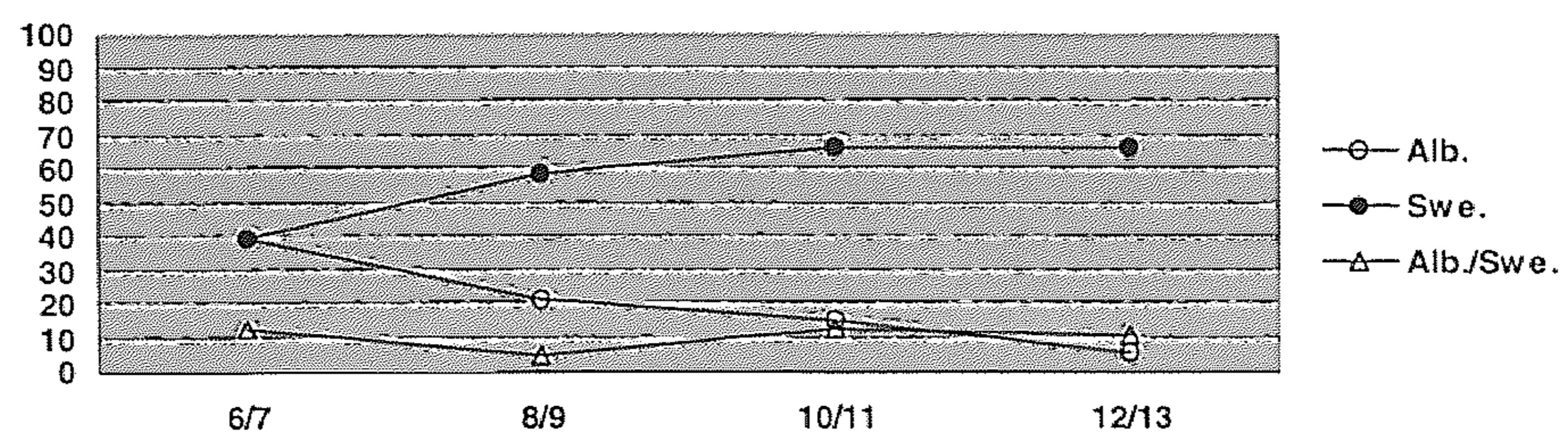


Figure 5.10c Language dominance in Albanian and Swedish

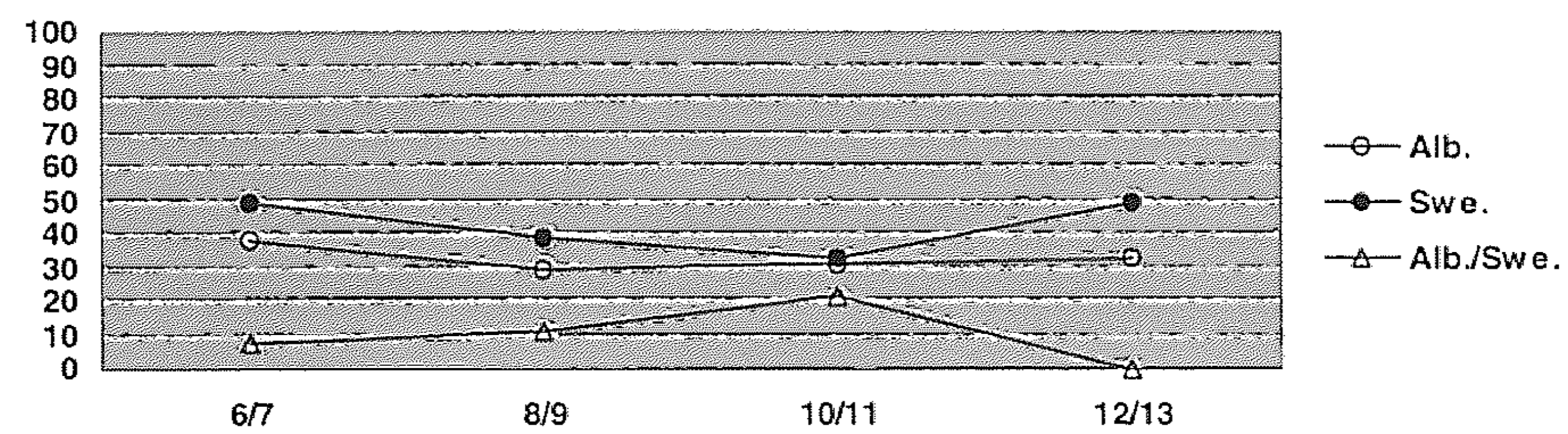


Figure 5.10d Language preference for Albanian and Swedish

Age group	4/5	6/7	8/9	10/11	12/13	Unknown	Total
Number of pupils	2	40	79	67	18	6	212

Table 5.10a Number of pupils per age group with Albanian as a home language

Birth country	Pupil		Mother		Father	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Sweden	128	60%	16	8%	11	5%
Albania	39	18%	91	43%	94	44%
Kosovo	28	13%	60	28%	54	25%
Iraq	3	1%	3	1%	3	1%
Yugoslavia	3	1%	9	4%	11	5%
Macedonia	3	1%	8	4%	13	6%
Other countries	7	3%	15	7%	16	8%
Unknown	1	-	10	5%	10	5%
Total	212	100%	212	100%	212	100%

Table 5.10b Birth country of pupils and their parents whose home language is Albanian

Arabic	16	French	2
Serbian/Croatian/Bosnian	14	German	2
English	11	12 other languages	14

Table 5.10c Languages other than Albanian used at home by the Albanian language group

Most pupils were born in Sweden and most of their parents in Albania or Kosovo. Apart from Albanian, Arabic and Serbian/Croatian/Bosnian are used in 8% and 7% of the pupils' homes respectively.

Language proficiency (Fig. 5.10a). Understanding and speaking skills in Albanian are reported by 85-95% and 82-90% of all children respectively. Reading and writing skills in Albanian are reported in an U-shape pattern by 18-66% and 20-61% of all age groups respectively.

Language choice (Fig. 5.10b). At home, 73-88% of all children report commonly speaking Albanian with their mother, 70-85% with their father, 34-51% with their younger brothers/sisters, 28-43% with their older brothers/sisters, and 17-30% with their best friends.

Language dominance (Fig. 5.10c). Dominance in Albanian is reported by a sharply decreasing 40-6%, and dominance in Swedish by an increasing 40-67% of all age groups. Balanced bilingualism is reported by 5-13% of all children.

Language preference (Fig. 5.10d). Preference for Albanian is reported by 30-38%, and preference for Swedish by 33-50% of all children. No preference is reported by 0-22% of all children.

5.1.11 Serbian language group

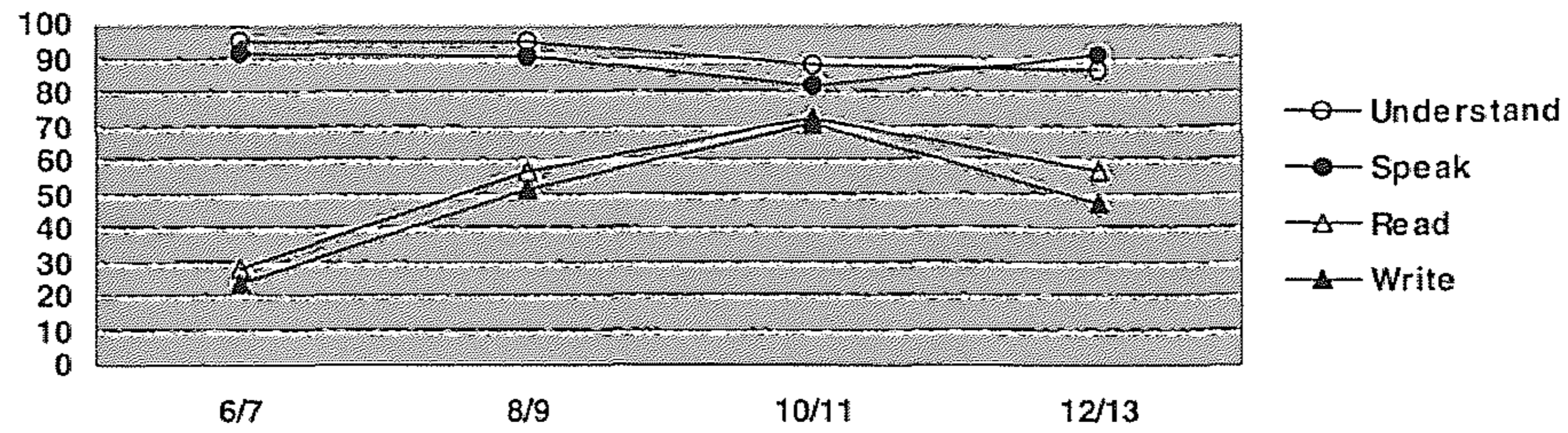


Figure 5.11a Language proficiency in Serbian

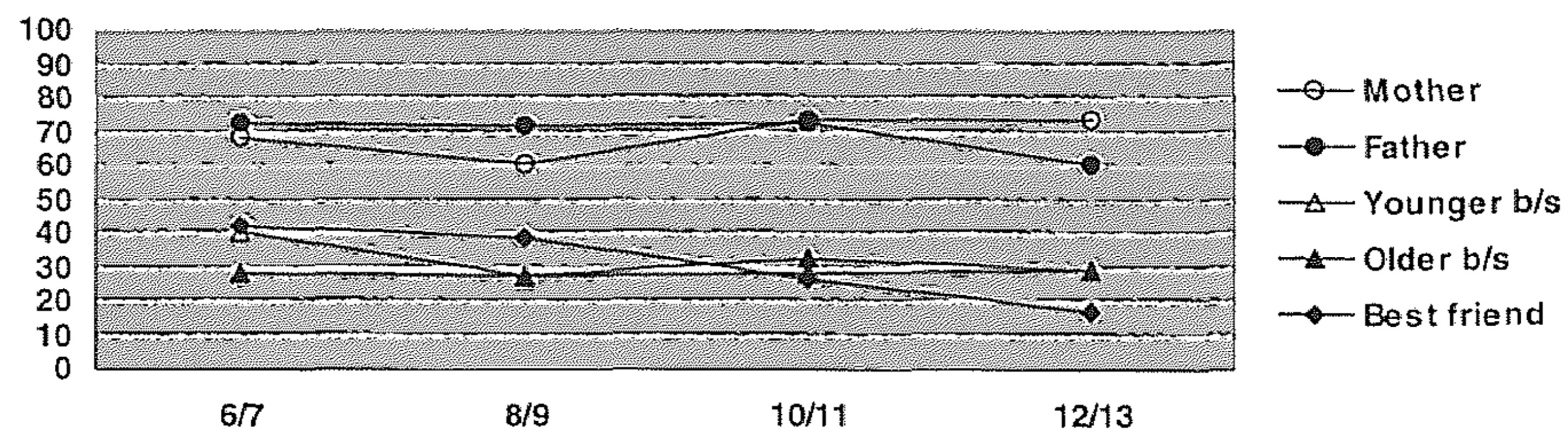


Figure 5.11b Language choice for Serbian

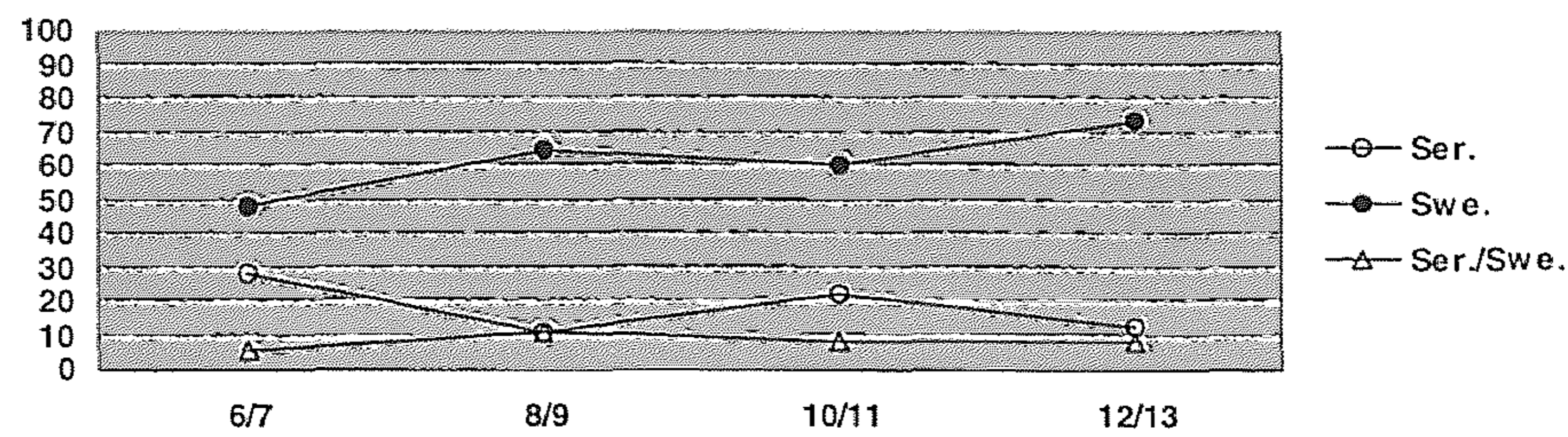


Figure 5.11c Language dominance in Serbian and Swedish

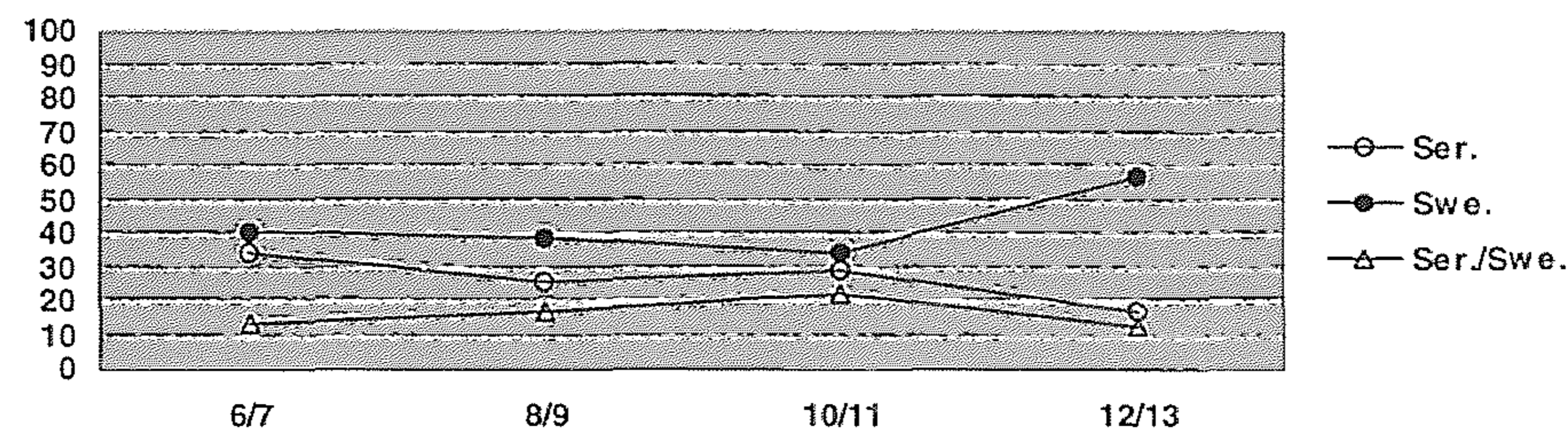


Figure 5.11d Language preference for Serbian and Swedish

Age group	4/5	6/7	8/9	10/11	12/13	Unknown	Total
Number of pupils	1	49	46	66	23	6	191

Table 5.11a Number of pupils per age group with Serbian as a home language

Birth country	Pupil		Mother		Father	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Sweden	141	75%	32	17%	12	7%
Yugoslavia	33	17%	111	60%	132	73%
Bosnia	7	4%	13	7%	22	12%
Albania	3	2%	3	2%	5	3%
Macedonia	-	-	13	7%	3	2%
Other countries	5	3%	14	7%	8	4%
Unknown	2	1%	5	3%	9	5%
Total	191	100%	191	100%	191	100%

Table 5.11b Birth country of pupils and their parents whose home language is Serbian

Bosnian	17	German	5
Macedonian	13	Romani/Sinte	4
English	7	8 other languages	12
Albanian	6		

Table 5.11c Languages other than Serbian used at home by the Serbian language group

Most pupils were born in Sweden and most of their parents in Yugoslavia. Apart from Serbian, Bosnian and Macedonian are used in 9% and 7% of the pupils' homes respectively.

Language proficiency (Fig. 5.11a). Understanding and speaking skills in Serbian are reported by 87-96% and 83-92% of all children respectively. Reading and writing skills in Serbian are reported in an U-shape pattern by 29-73% and 24-71% of all age groups respectively.

Language choice (Fig. 5.11b). At home, 61-74% of all children report commonly speaking Serbian with their mother, 61-73% with their father, 28-41% with their younger brothers/sisters, 28-33% with their older brothers/sisters, and a decreasing 43-17% with their best friends.

Language dominance (Fig. 5.11c). Dominance in Serbian is reported by a decreasing 29-13%, and dominance in Swedish by an increasing 49-74% of all age groups. Balanced bilingualism is reported by 6-11% of all children.

Language preference (Fig. 5.11d). Preference for Serbian is reported by a decreasing 35-17%, and preference for Swedish by an increasing 35-57% of all age groups. No preference is reported by 13-23% of all children.

5.1.12 Polish language group

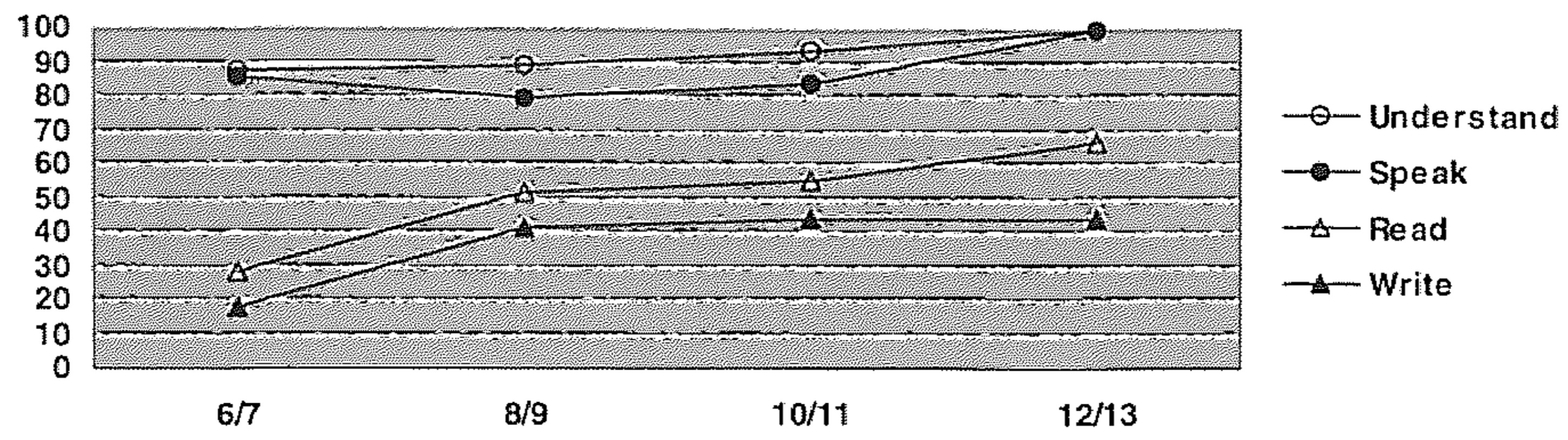


Figure 5.12a Language proficiency in Polish

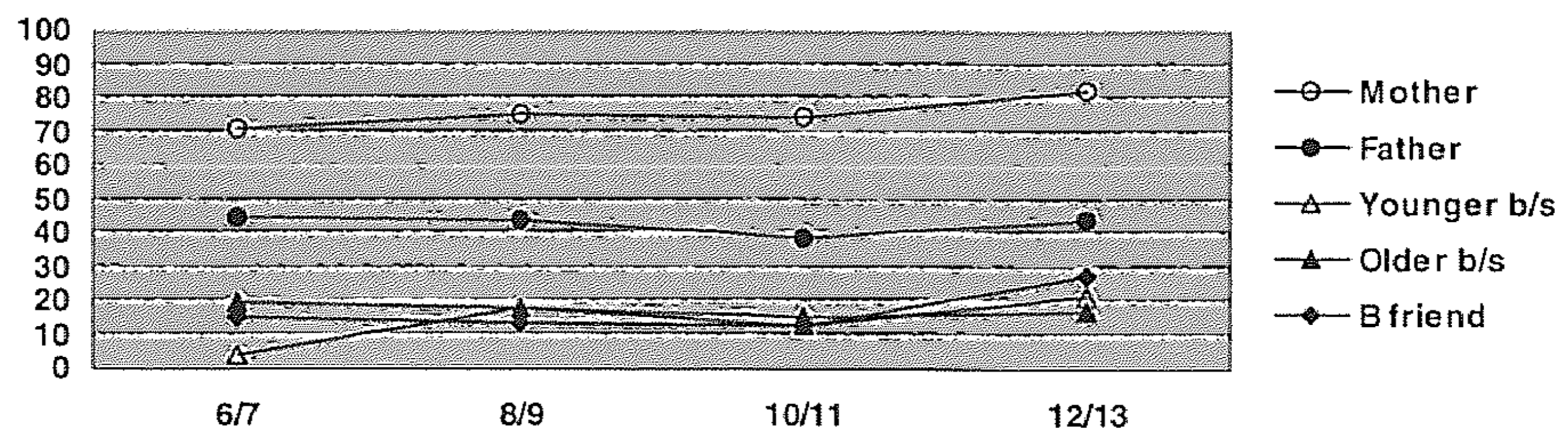


Figure 5.12b Language choice for Polish

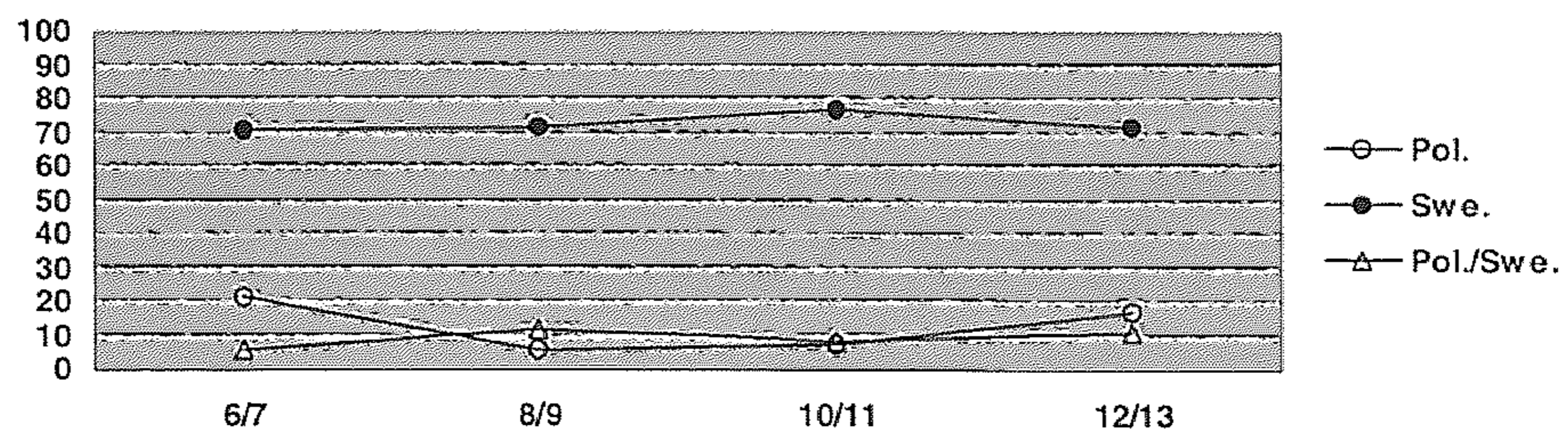


Figure 5.12c Language dominance in Polish and Swedish

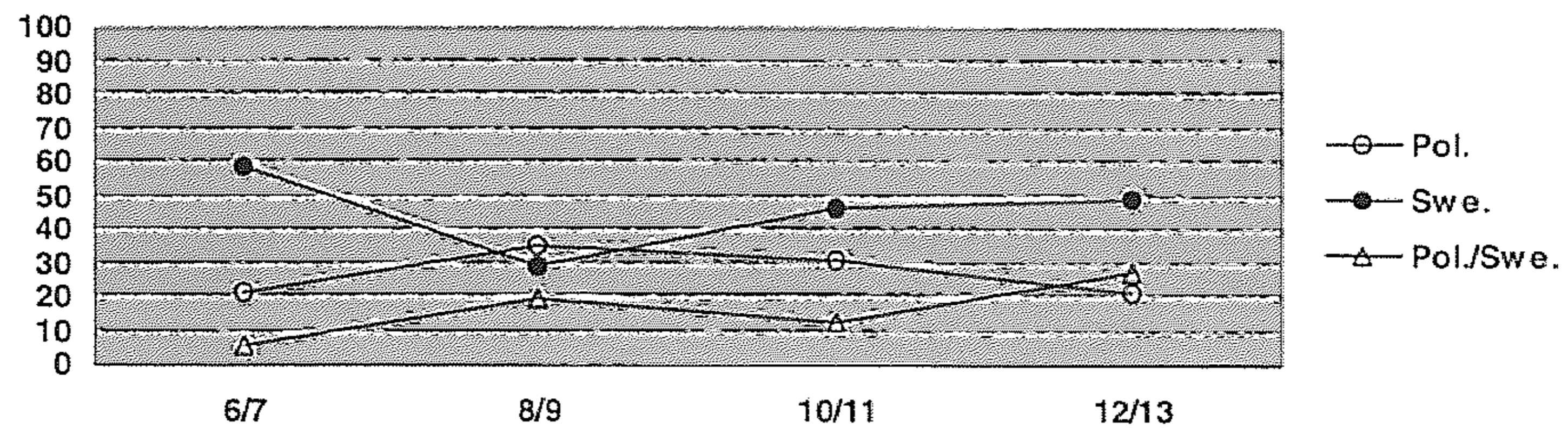


Figure 5.12d Language preference for Polish and Swedish

Age group	4/5	6/7	8/9	10/11	12/13	Unknown	Total
Number of pupils	2	49	50	64	18	1	184

Table 5.12a Number of pupils per age group with Polish as a home language

Birth country	Pupil		Mother		Father	
Sweden	158	86%	16	9%	61	33%
Poland	22	12%	156	85%	77	42%
Germany	1	1%	2	1%	4	2%
Kurdistan	1	1%	1	1%	2	1%
Irak	-	-	-	-	5	3%
Iran	-	-	1	1%	6	3%
Other countries	1	1%	4	2%	23	13%
Unknown	1	1%	4	2%	6	3%
Total	184	100%	184	100%	184	100%

Table 5.12b Birth country of pupils and their parents whose home language is Polish

English	12	Finnish	2
Arabic	5	Slovak(ian)	2
Russian	3	14 other languages	14

Table 5.12c Languages other than Polish used at home by the Polish language group

Most pupils were born in Sweden, most mothers in Poland and most fathers in either one of these two countries. Apart from Polish, English is used in 7% of the pupils' homes.

Language proficiency (Fig. 5.12a). Understanding and speaking skills in Polish are reported by 88-100% and 80-100% of all children respectively. Reading and writing skills in Polish are reported by an increasing 29-67% and 18-44% of all age groups respectively.

Language choice (Fig. 5.12b). At home, 71-83% of all children report commonly speaking Polish with their mother, 39-45% with their father, an increasing 4-22% with their younger brothers/sisters, 16-20% with their older brothers/sisters, and 13-28% with their best friends.

Language dominance (Fig. 5.12c). Dominance in Polish is reported by 6-22%, and dominance in Swedish by 71-77% of all children. Balanced bilingualism is reported by 6-12% of all children.

Language preference (Fig. 5.12d). Preference for Polish is reported by 22-36%, and preference for Swedish by 30-59% of all children. No preference is reported by an increasing 6-28% of all age groups.

5.1.13 German language group

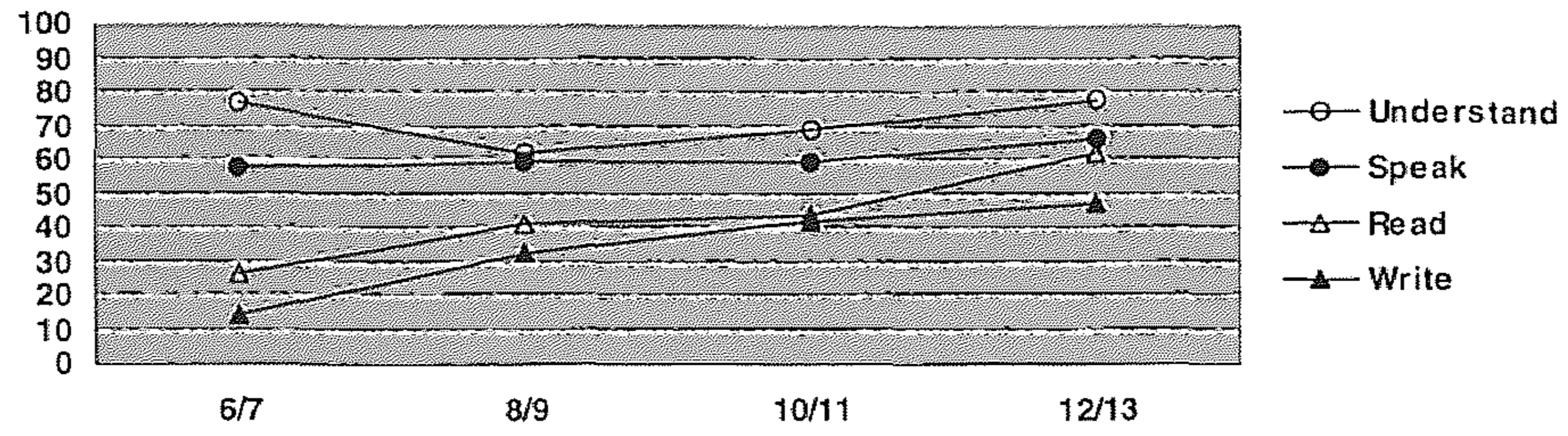


Figure 5.13a Language proficiency in German

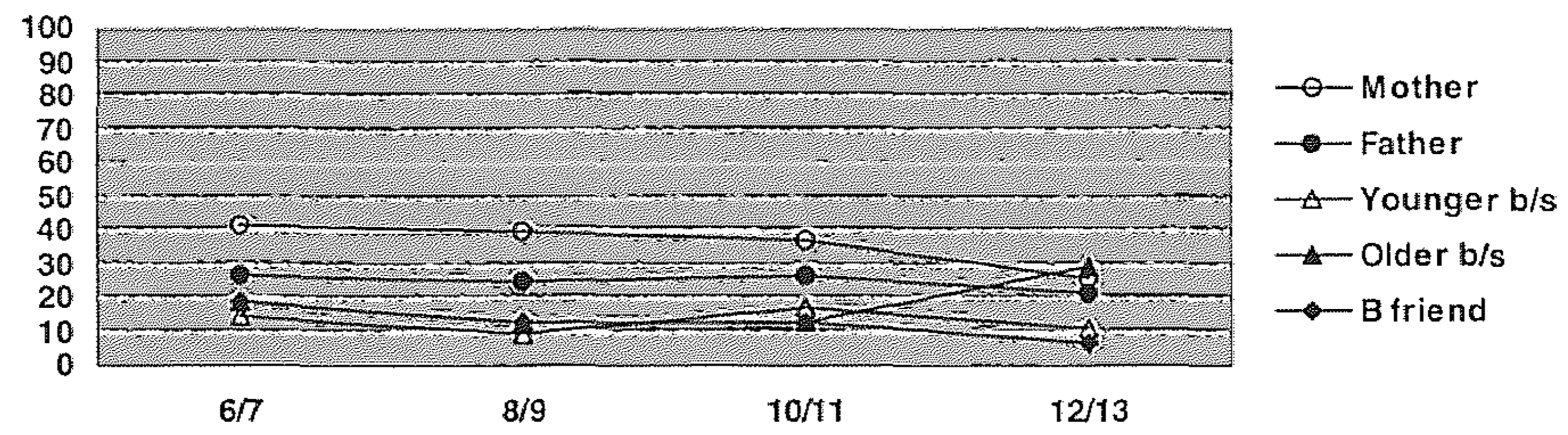


Figure 5.13b Language choice for German

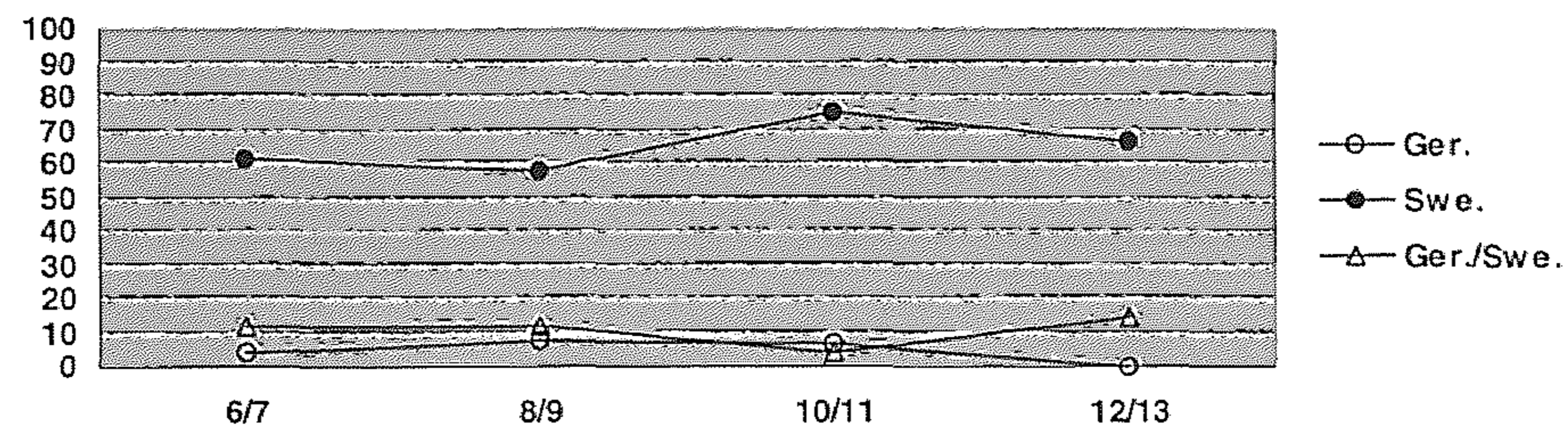


Figure 5.13c Language dominance in German and Swedish

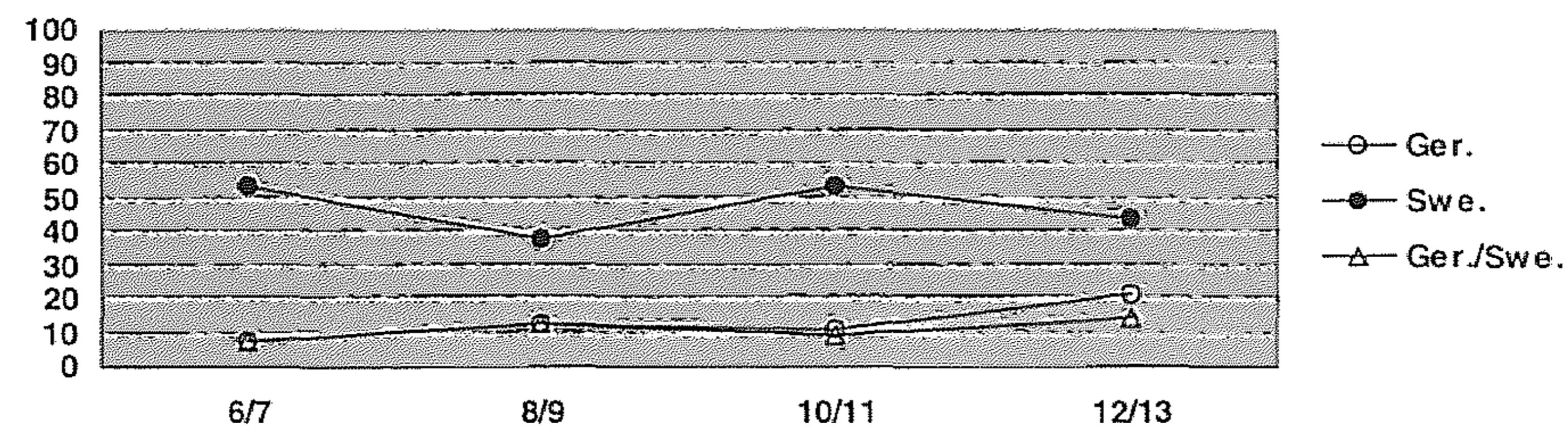


Figure 5.13d Language preference for German and Swedish

Age group	4/5	6/7	8/9	10/11	12/13	Unknown	Total
Number of pupils	1	26	52	70	27	3	179

Table 5.13a Number of pupils per age group with German as a home language

Birth country	Pupil		Mother		Father	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Sweden	135	75%	101	56%	97	54%
Germany	20	11%	34	19%	28	16%
Austria	4	2%	6	3%	4	2%
Bosnia	2	1%	5	3%	7	4%
Iraq	2	1%	2	1%	2	1%
Albania	2	1%	2	1%	2	1%
Other countries	12	7%	24	13%	32	18%
Unknown	2	1%	5	3%	7	4%
Total	179	100%	179	100%	179	100%

Table 5.13b Birth country of pupils and their parents whose home language is German

English	66	Arabic	6
French	13	Russian	6
Bosnian	9	16 other languages	42
Spanish	9		

Table 5.13c Languages other than German used at home by the German language group

Most pupils and, although to a lesser degree, most of their parents were born in Sweden. Apart from German, English and French are used in 37% and 7% of the pupils' homes respectively.

Language proficiency (Fig. 5.13a). Understanding and speaking skills in German are reported by 63-78% and 58-67% of all children respectively. Reading and writing skills in German are reported by a sharply increasing 27-63% and 15-48% of all age groups respectively.

Language choice (Fig. 5.13b). At home, a decreasing 42-26% of all age groups report commonly speaking German with their mother, 27-22% with their father, 11-17% with their younger brothers/sisters, 13-30% with their older brothers/sisters, and a decreasing 19-7% with their best friends.

Language dominance (Fig. 5.13c). Dominance in German is reported by 0-8%, and dominance in Swedish by 58-76% of all children. Balanced bilingualism is reported by 4-15% of all children.

Language preference (Fig. 5.13d). Preference for German is reported by an increasing 8-22%, and preference for Swedish by 38-54% of all children. No preference is reported by 8-15% of all children.

5.1.14 Croatian language group

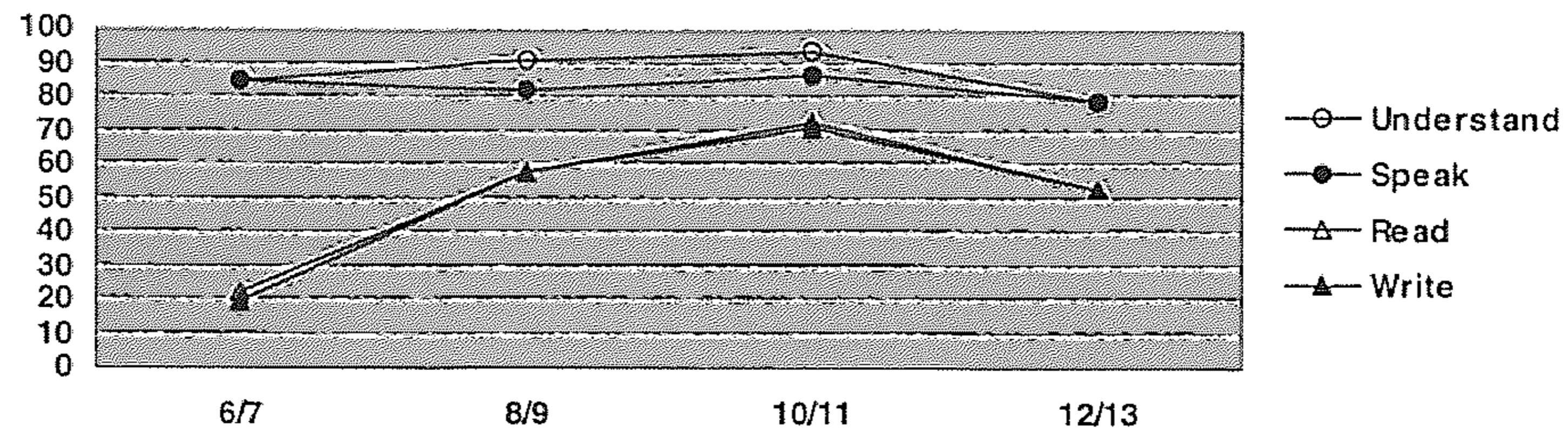


Figure 5.14a Language proficiency in Croatian

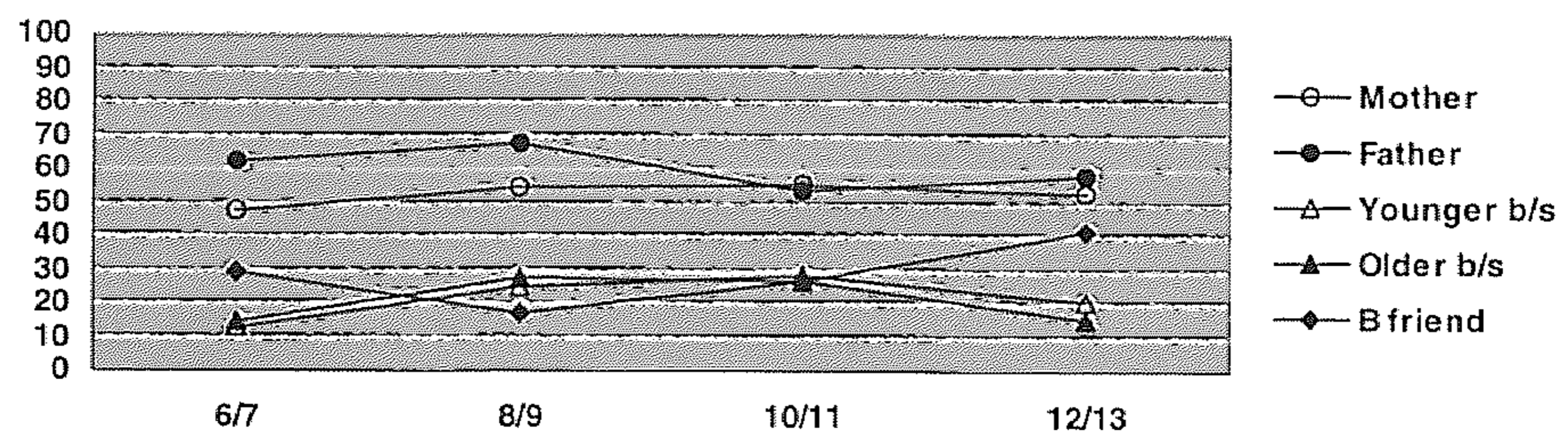


Figure 5.14b Language choice for Croatian

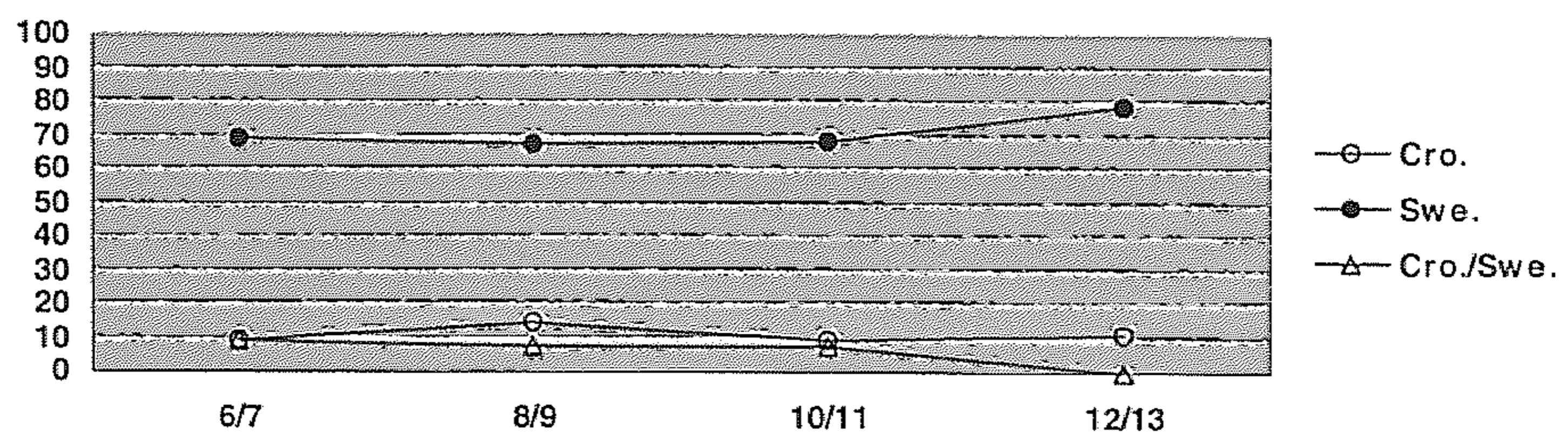


Figure 5.14c Language dominance in Croatian and Swedish

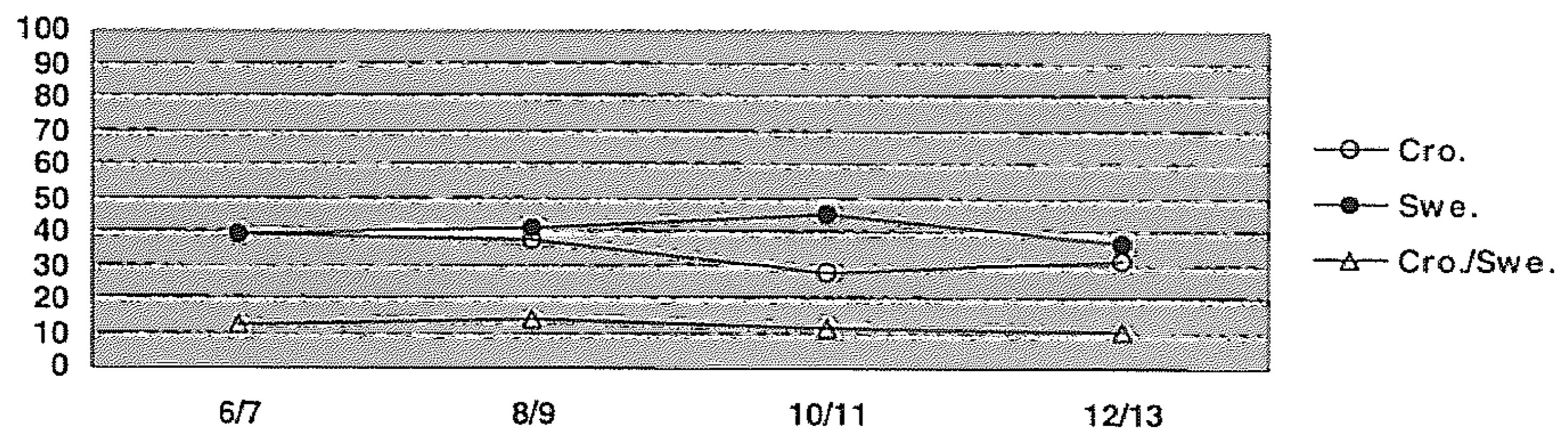


Figure 5.14d Language preference for Croatian and Swedish

Age group	4/5	6/7	8/9	10/11	12/13	Unknown	Total
Number of pupils	1	40	53	52	19	2	167

Table 5.14a Number of pupils per age group with Croatian as a home language

Birth country	Pupil		Mother		Father	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Sweden	119	71%	46	28%	20	12%
Bosnia	20	12%	26	16%	27	16%
Croatia	16	10%	69	41%	91	54%
Iraq	4	2%	4	2%	4	2%
Yugoslavia	1	1%	3	2%	6	4%
Turkey	1	1%	2	1%	2	1%
Other countries	4	2%	14	8%	11	7%
Unknown	2	1%	3	2%	6	4%
Total	167	100%	167	100%	167	100%

Table 5.14b Birth country of pupils and their parents whose home language is Croatian

Serbian/Bosnian	30	Hungarian	3
Kurdish	6	Italian	3
English	5	12 other languages	14

Table 5.14c Languages other than Croatian used at home by the Croatian language group

Most pupils were born in Sweden and most of their parents in Croatia, Bosnia or Sweden. Apart from Croatian, Serbian or Bosnian are used in 18% of the pupils' homes.

Language proficiency (Fig. 5.14a). Understanding and speaking skills in Croatian are reported by 79-94% and 79-87% of all children respectively. Reading and writing skills in Croatian are reported by 23-73% and 20-71% of all children respectively.

Language choice (Fig. 5.14b). At home, 48-56% of all children report commonly speaking Croatian with their mother, 54-68% with their father, 13-29% with their younger brothers/sisters, 15-28% with their older brothers/sisters, and 17-42% with their best friends.

Language dominance (Fig. 5.14c). Dominance in Croatian is reported by 10-15%, and dominance in Swedish by 68-79% of all children. Balanced bilingualism is reported by a decreasing 10-0% of all age groups.

Language preference (Fig. 5.14d). Preference for Croatian is reported by 29-40%, and preference for Swedish by 37-46% of all children. No preference is reported by 11-15% of all children.

5.1.15 French language group

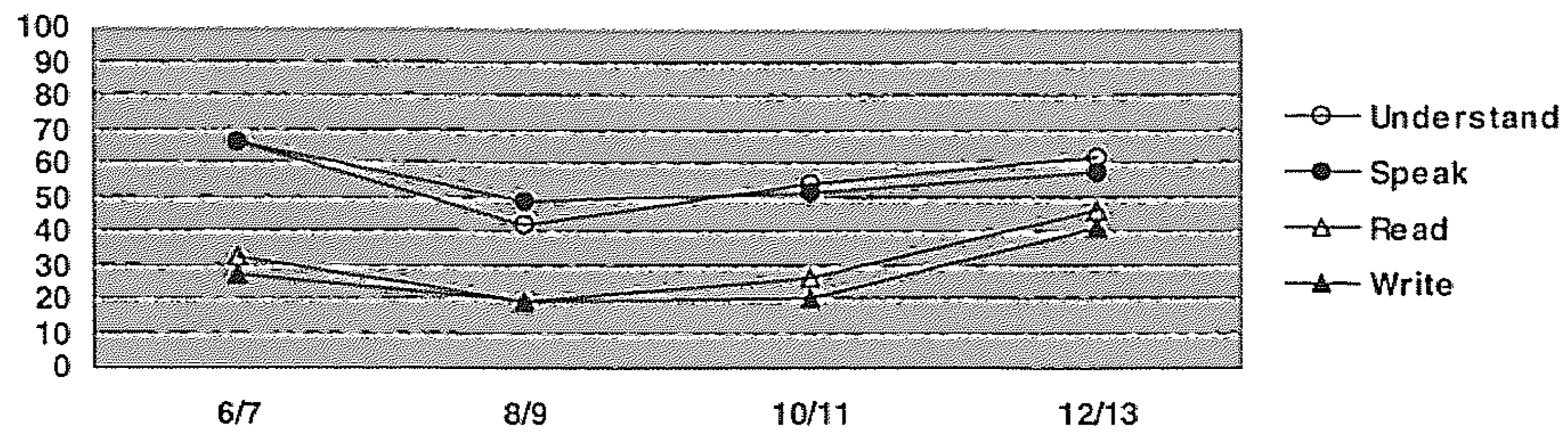


Figure 5.15a Language proficiency in French

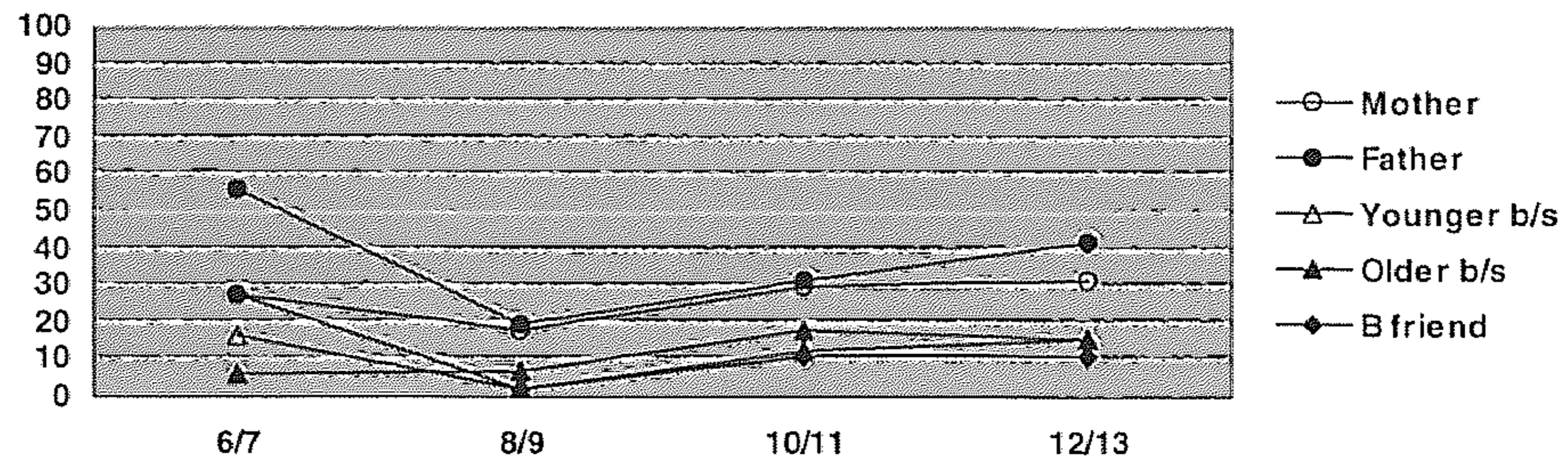


Figure 5.15b Language choice for French

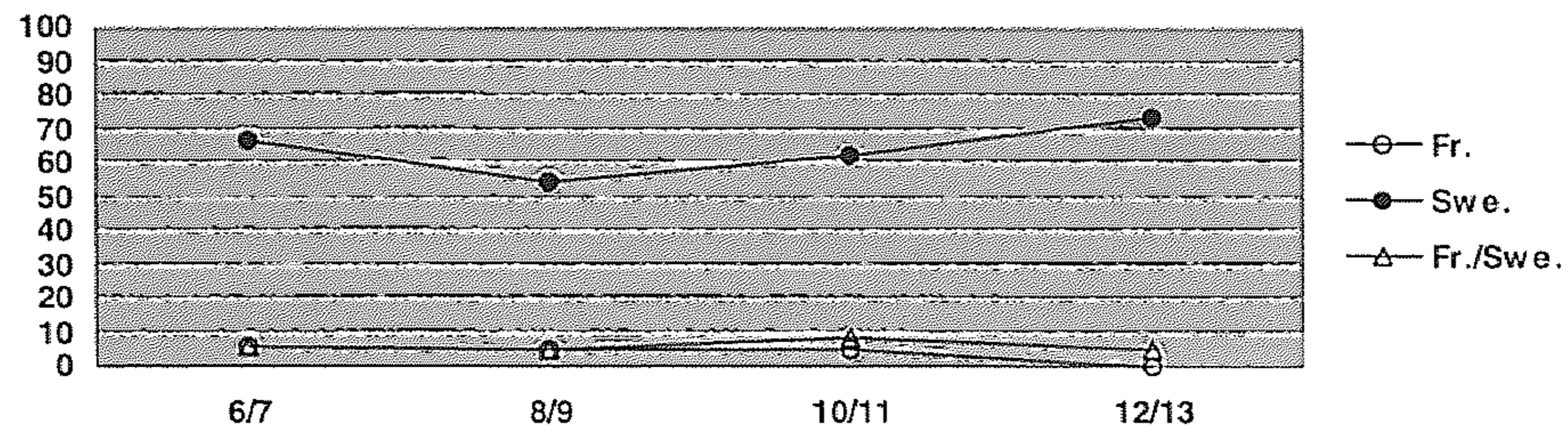


Figure 5.15c Language dominance in French and Swedish

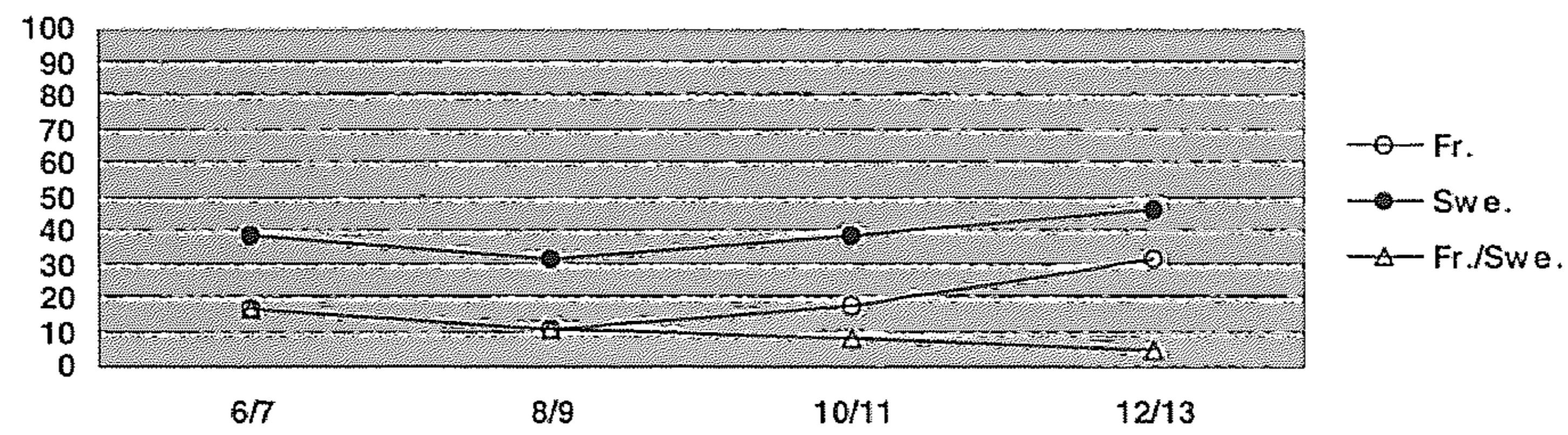


Figure 5.15d Language preference for French and Swedish

Age group	6/7	8/9	10/11	12/13	Unknown	Total
Number of pupils	18	44	56	19	4	141

Table 5.15a Number of pupils per age group with French as a home language

Birth country	Pupil		Mother		Father	
Sweden	113	80%	88	62%	72	51%
France	8	6%	10	7%	15	11%
Ivory Coast	4	3%	4	3%	2	1%
Albania	2	1%	2	1%	2	1%
Lebanon	1	1%	4	3%	3	2%
Algeria	-	-	5	4%	6	4%
Other countries	12	9%	23	16%	35	25%
Unknown	1	1%	5	4%	6	4%
Total	141	100%	141	100%	141	100%

Table 5.15b Birth country of pupils and their parents whose home language is French

English	58	Finnish	5
Arabic	14	Greek	5
German	13	17 other languages	33
Spanish	7		

Table 5.15c Languages other than French used at home by the French language group

Most pupils, and although to a lesser degree, most of their parents were born in Sweden. Apart from French, English, Arabic, and German are used in 41%, 10%, and 9% of the pupils' homes respectively.

Language proficiency (Fig. 5.15a). Understanding and speaking skills in French are reported by 43-67% and 50-67% of all children respectively. Reading and writing skills in French are reported by 20-47% and 20-42% of all children respectively.

Language choice (Fig. 5.15b). At home, 18-32% of all children report commonly speaking French with their mother, 20-56% with their father, 2-17% with their younger brothers/sisters, 6-18% with their older brothers/sisters, and 2-28% with their best friends.

Language dominance (Fig. 5.15c). Dominance in French is reported by 0-6%, and dominance in Swedish by 55-74% of all children. Balanced bilingualism is reported by 5-9% of all children.

Language preference (Fig. 5.15d). Preference for French is reported by 11-32%, and preference for Swedish by 32-47% of all children. No preference is reported by a decreasing 17-5% of all age groups.

5.1.16 Macedonian language group

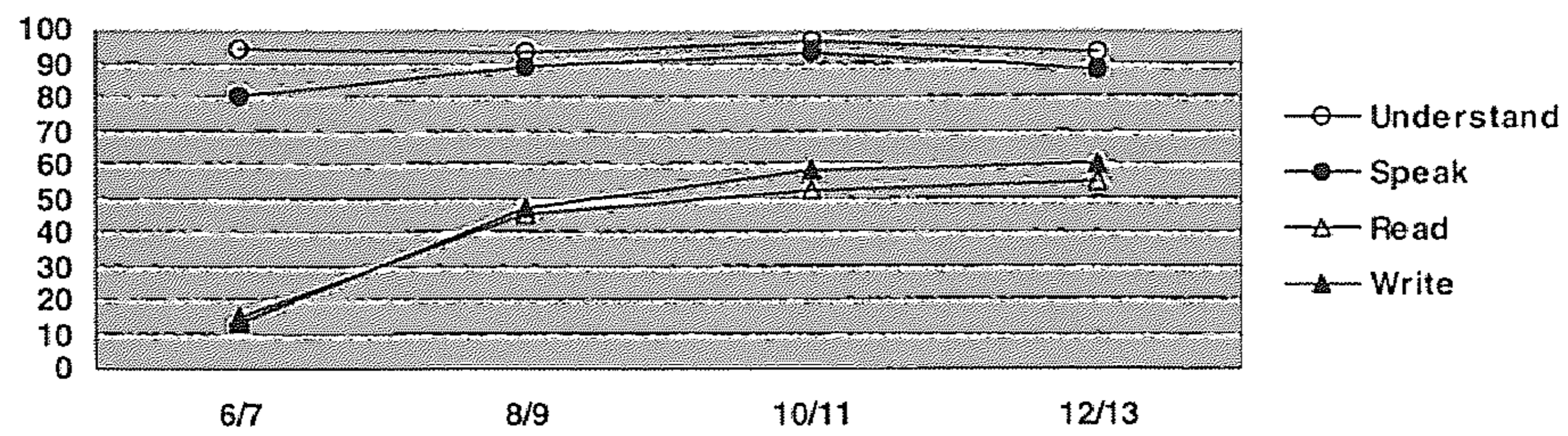


Figure 5.16a Language proficiency in Macedonian

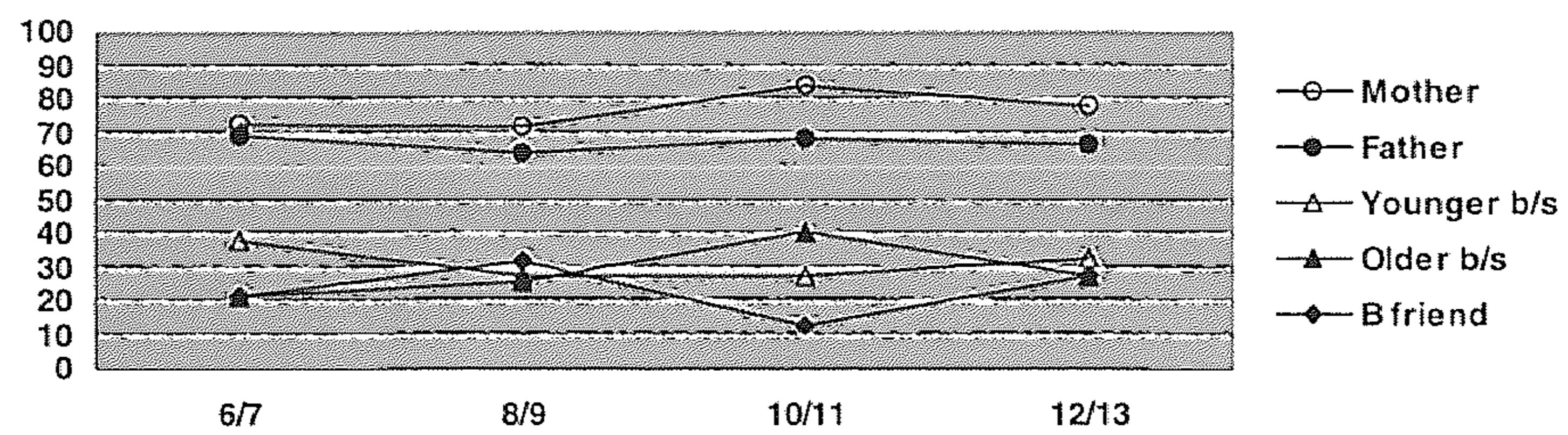


Figure 5.16b Language choice for Macedonian

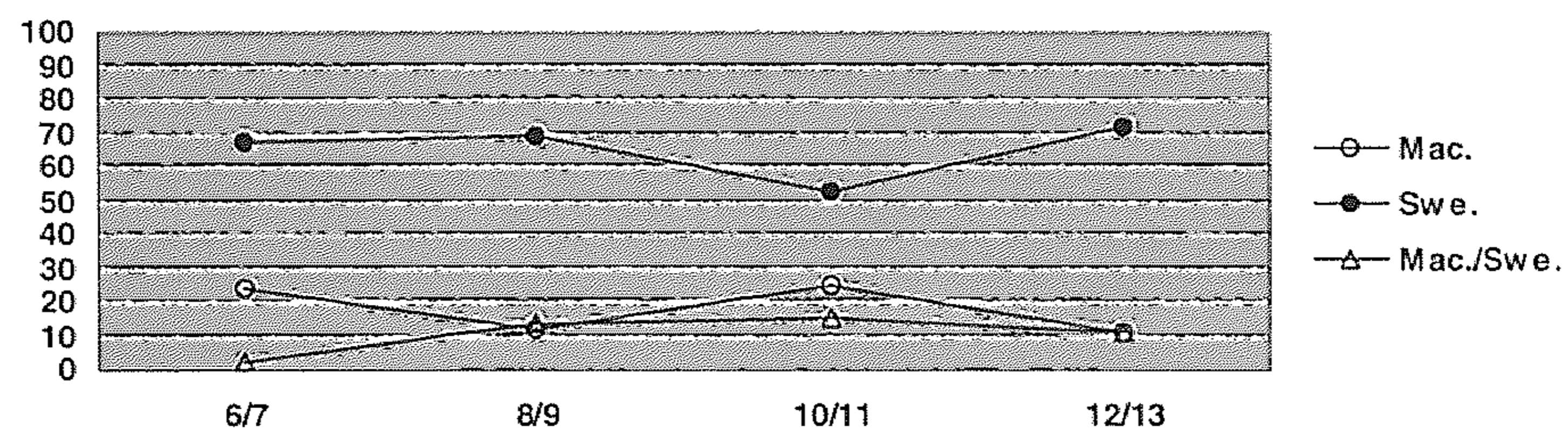


Figure 5.16c Language dominance in Macedonian and Swedish

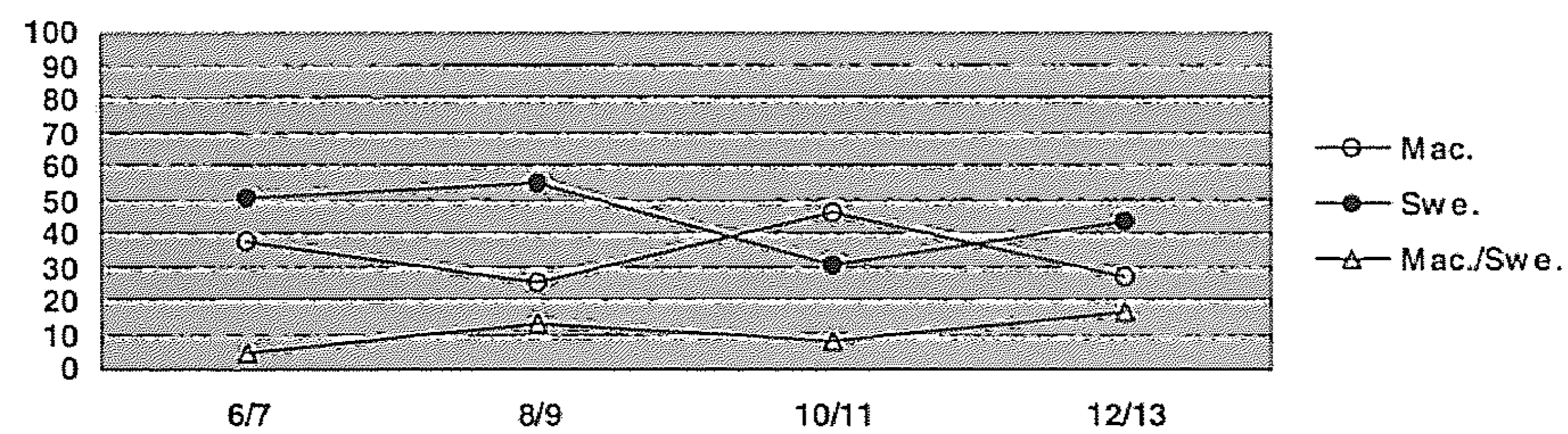


Figure 5.16d Language preference for Macedonian and Swedish

Age group	4/5	6/7	8/9	10/11	12/13	Unknown	Total
Number of pupils	2	37	50	32	18	-	139

Table 5.16a Number of pupils per age group with Macedonian as a home language

Birth country	Pupil		Mother		Father	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Sweden	128	92%	34	24%	18	13%
Macedonia	9	6%	86	62%	92	66%
Finland	1	1%	4	3%	-	-
Yugoslavia	-	-	5	4%	11	8%
Bosnia	-	-	1	1%	2	1%
Croatia	-	-	1	1%	1	1%
Other countries	1	1%	6	4%	9	6%
Unknown	-	-	2	1%	6	4%
Total	139	100%	139	100%	139	100%

Table 5.16b Birth country of pupils and their parents whose home language is Macedonian

Serbian/Croatian/Bosnian	17	Romani/Sinte	2
English	5	5 other languages	5
French	3		

Table 5.16c Languages other than Macedonian used at home by the Macedonian language group

Almost all pupils were born in Sweden and, to a lesser degree, most of their parents in Macedonia. Apart from Macedonian, Serbian, Croatian or Bosnian is used in 12% of the pupils' homes respectively.

Language proficiency (Fig. 5.16a). Understanding and speaking skills in Macedonian are reported by 94-97% and 81-94% of all children respectively. Reading and writing skills in Macedonian are reported by an increasing 16-56% and 14-61% of all age groups respectively.

Language choice (Fig. 5.16b). At home, 72-84% of all children report commonly speaking Macedonian with their mother, 64-70% with their father, 28-38% with their younger brothers/sisters, 22-41% with their older brothers/sisters, and 13-32% with their best friends.

Language dominance (Fig. 5.16c). Dominance in Macedonian is reported by 11-25%, and dominance in Swedish by 53-72% of all children. Balanced bilingualism is reported by 3-16% of all children.

Language preference (Fig. 5.16d). Preference for Macedonian is reported by 26-47%, and preference for Swedish by 31-56% of all children. No preference is reported by 5-17% of all children.

5.1.17 Norwegian language group

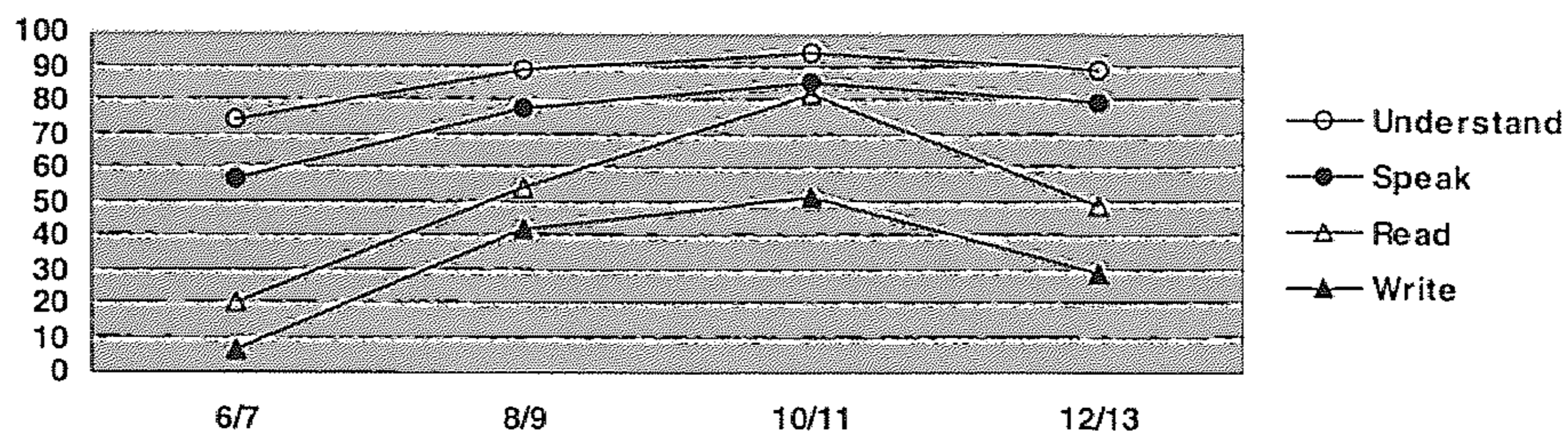


Figure 5.17a Language proficiency in Norwegian

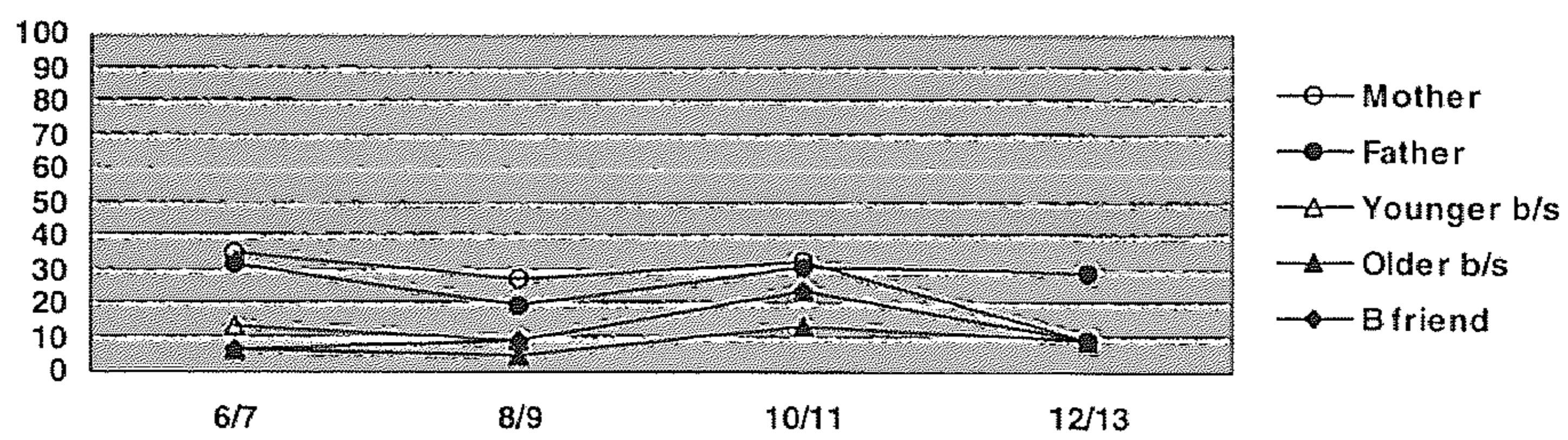


Figure 5.17b Language choice for Norwegian

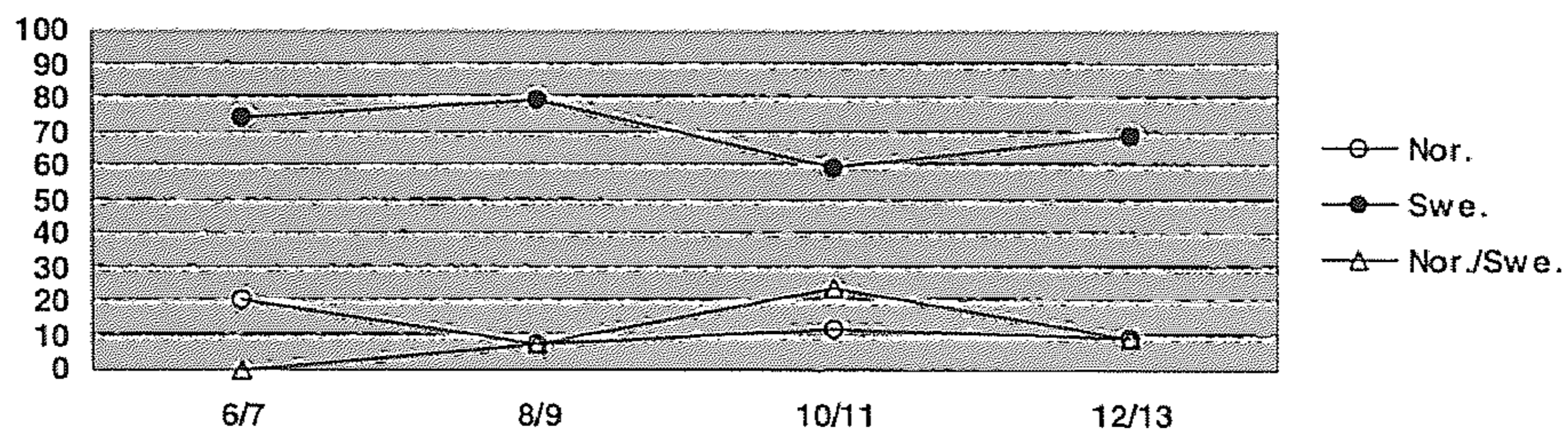


Figure 5.17c Language dominance in Norwegian and Swedish

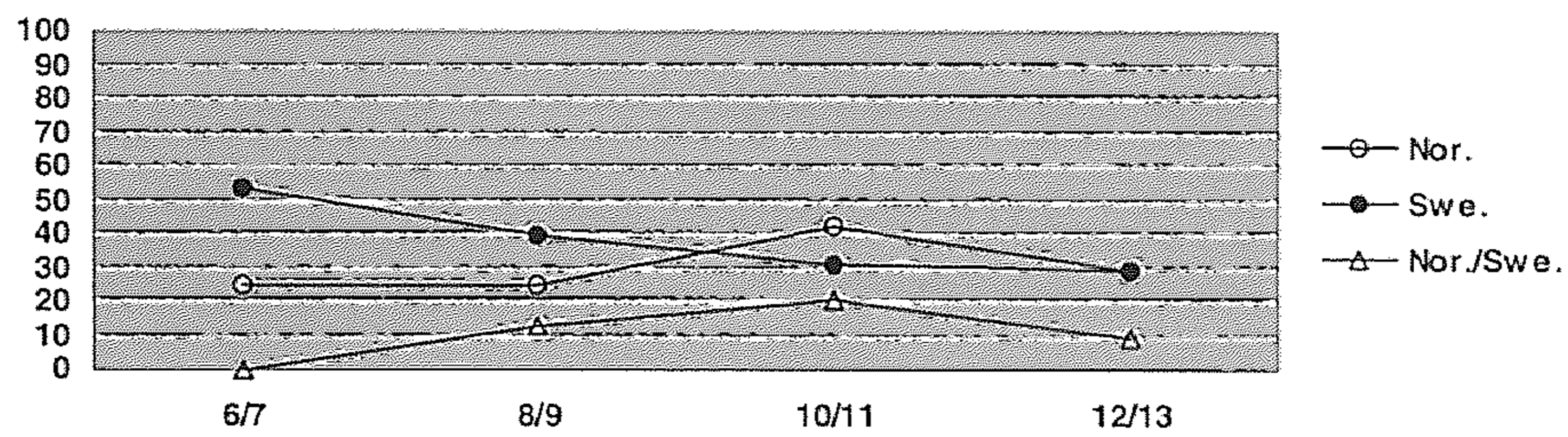


Figure 5.17d Language preference for Norwegian and Swedish

Age group	4/5	6/7	8/9	10/11	12/13	Unknown	Total
Number of pupils	1	28	40	42	10	1	122

Table 5.17a Number of pupils per age group with Norwegian as a home language

Birth country	Pupil		Mother		Father	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Sweden	105	86%	55	45%	59	48%
Norway	14	11%	54	44%	50	41%
USA	1	1%	-	-	-	-
Iran	1	1%	2	2%	2	2%
Belize	-	-	1	1%	2	2%
Somalia	-	-	1	1%	1	1%
Other countries	1	1%	3	2%	1	1%
Unknown	-	-	6	5%	7	6%
Total	122	100%	122	100%	122	100%

Table 5.17b Birth country of pupils and their parents whose home language is Norwegian

English	10	German	2
Danish	5	Serbian/Croatian/Bosnian	2
Finnish	4	4 other languages	4
French	2		

Table 5.17c Languages other than Norwegian used at home by the Norwegian language group

Most pupils were born in Sweden and almost half of their parents in Norway. Apart from Norwegian, English is used in 8% of the pupils' homes.

Language proficiency (Fig. 5.17a). Understanding and speaking skills in Norwegian are reported by 75-95% and 57-86% of all children respectively. Reading and writing skills in Norwegian are reported by 21-83% and 7-52% of all children respectively.

Language choice (Fig. 5.17b). At home, a decreasing 36-10% of all children report commonly speaking Norwegian with their mother, 20-32% with their father, 10-24% with their younger brothers/sisters, 5-14% with their older brothers/sisters, and 7-24% with their best friends.

Language dominance (Fig. 5.17c). Dominance in Norwegian is reported by 8-21%, and dominance in Swedish by 60-80% of all children. Balanced bilingualism is reported by 0-24% of all children.

Language preference (Fig. 5.17d). Preference for Norwegian is reported by 25-43% of all children, and preference for Swedish by a decreasing 54-30% of all age groups. No preference is reported by 0-21% of all children.

5.1.18 Portuguese language group

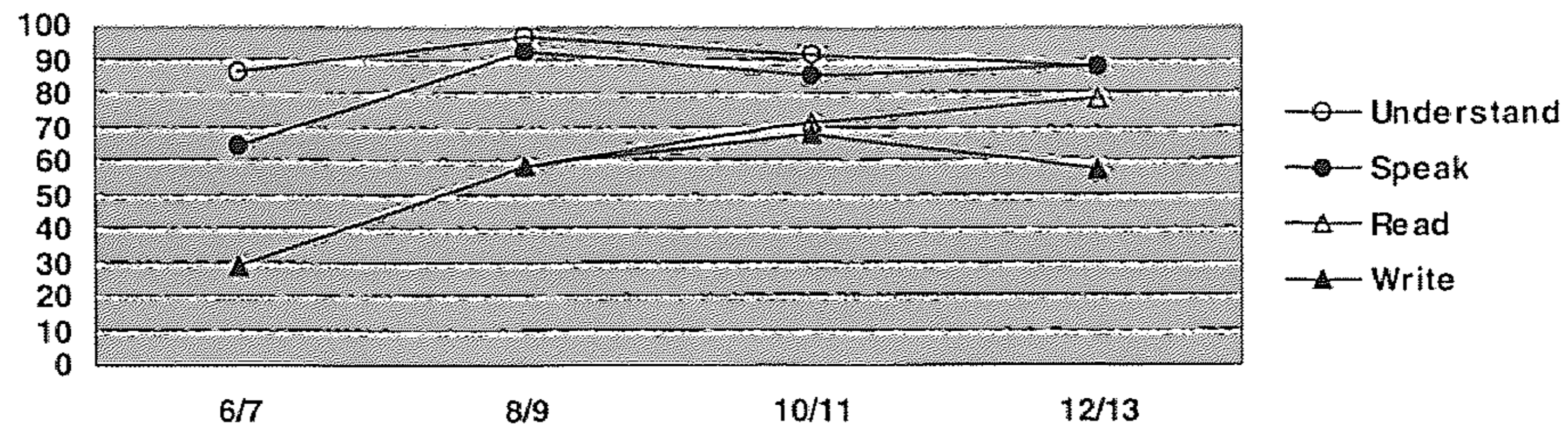


Figure 5.18a Language proficiency in Portuguese

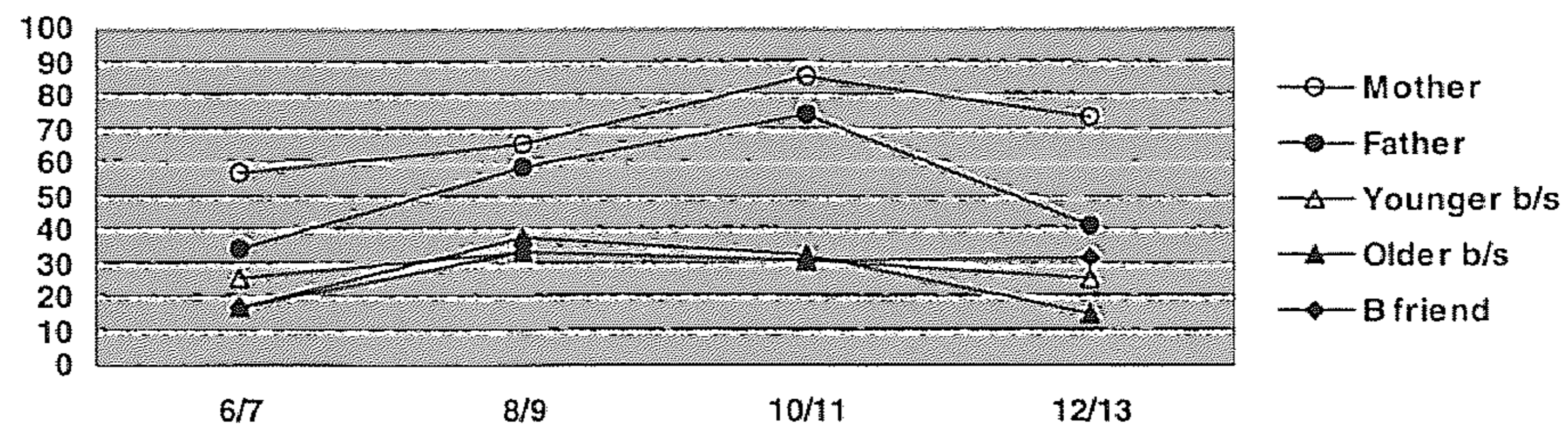


Figure 5.18b Language choice for Portuguese

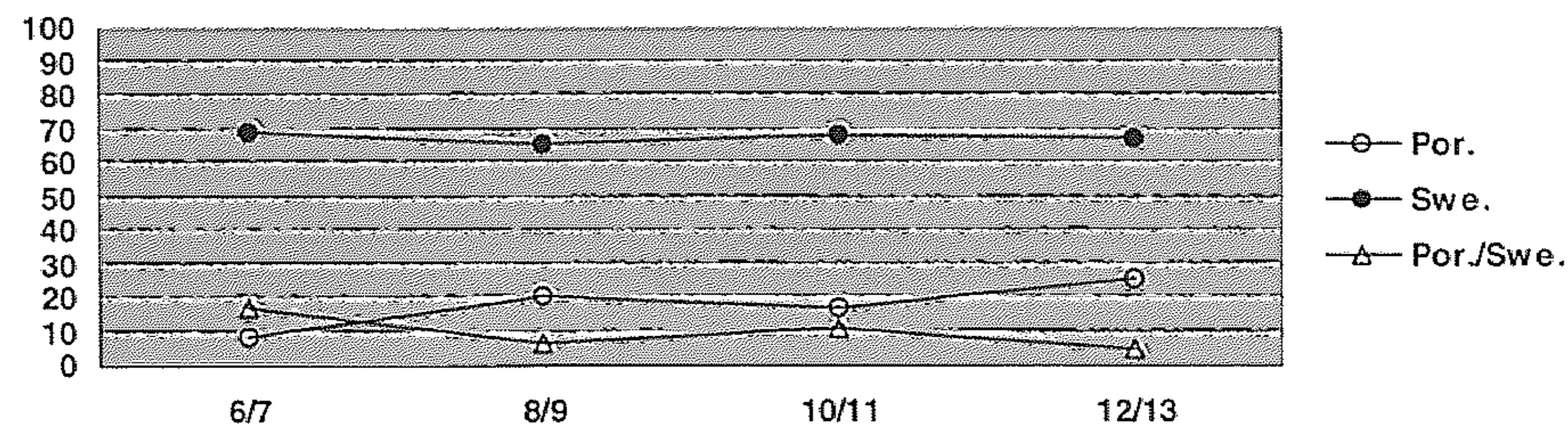


Figure 5.18c Language dominance in Portuguese and Swedish

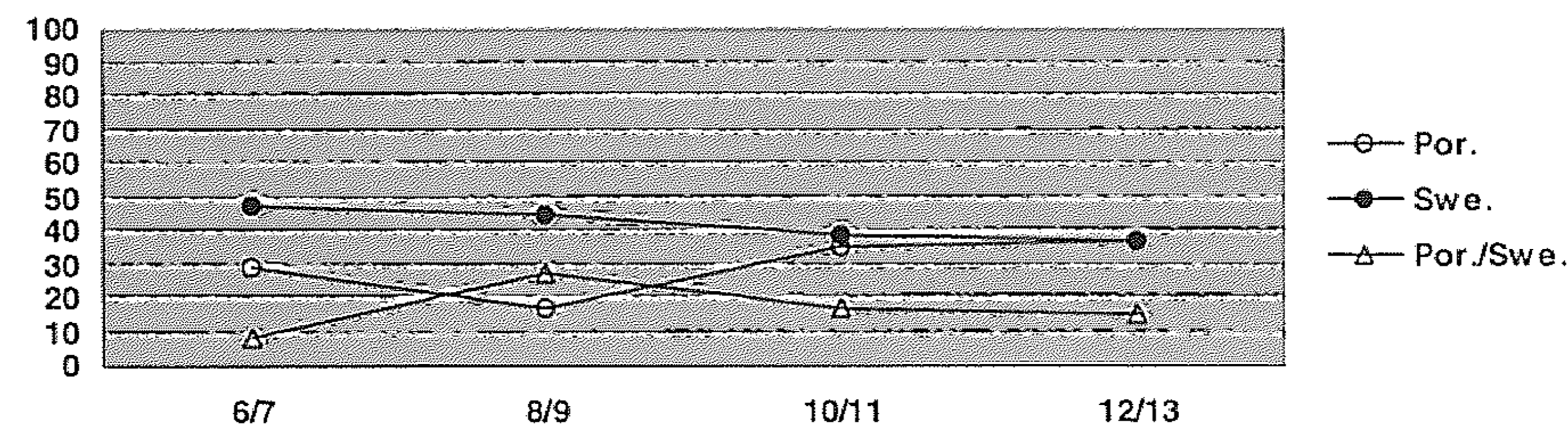


Figure 5.18d Language preference for Portuguese and Swedish

Age group	4/5	6/7	8/9	10/11	12/13	Unknown	Total
Number of pupils	2	23	29	36	19	2	111

Table 5.18a Number of pupils per age group with Portuguese as a home language

Birth country	Pupil		Mother		Father	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Sweden	96	86%	15	14%	35	32%
Brazil	8	7%	24	22%	6	5%
Portugal	4	4%	49	44%	51	46%
Cape Verde	2	2%	8	7%	8	7%
Angola	1	1%	4	4%	-	-
Chile	-	-	1	1%	3	3%
Other countries	-	-	4	4%	3	3%
Unknown	-	-	6	5%	5	5%
Total	111	100%	111	100%	111	100%

Table 5.18b Birth country of pupils and their parents whose home language is Portuguese

Sorani	6	Creole/Pidgin	2
French	4	Czech	1
English	3		

Table 5.18c Languages other than Portuguese used at home by the Portuguese language group

Most pupils were born in Sweden and almost half of their parents in Portugal. Apart from Portuguese, few other languages are used in the pupils' homes.

Language proficiency (Fig. 5.18a). Understanding and speaking skills in Portuguese are reported by 87-97% and 65-93% of all children respectively. Reading and writing skills in Portuguese are reported by an increasing 30-79% and 30-69% of all children respectively.

Language choice (Fig. 5.18b). At home, 57-86% of all children report commonly speaking Portuguese with their mother, 35-75% with their father, 26-34% with their younger brothers/sisters, 16-38% with their older brothers/sisters, and 17-34% with their best friends.

Language dominance (Fig. 5.18c). Dominance in Portuguese is reported by an increasing 9-26%, and dominance in Swedish by 66-70% of all children. Balanced bilingualism is reported by a decreasing 17-5% of all children.

Language preference (Fig. 5.18d). Preference for Portuguese is reported by 17-37%, and preference for Swedish by a decreasing 48-37% of all children. No preference is reported by 9-28% of all children.

5.19 Russian language group

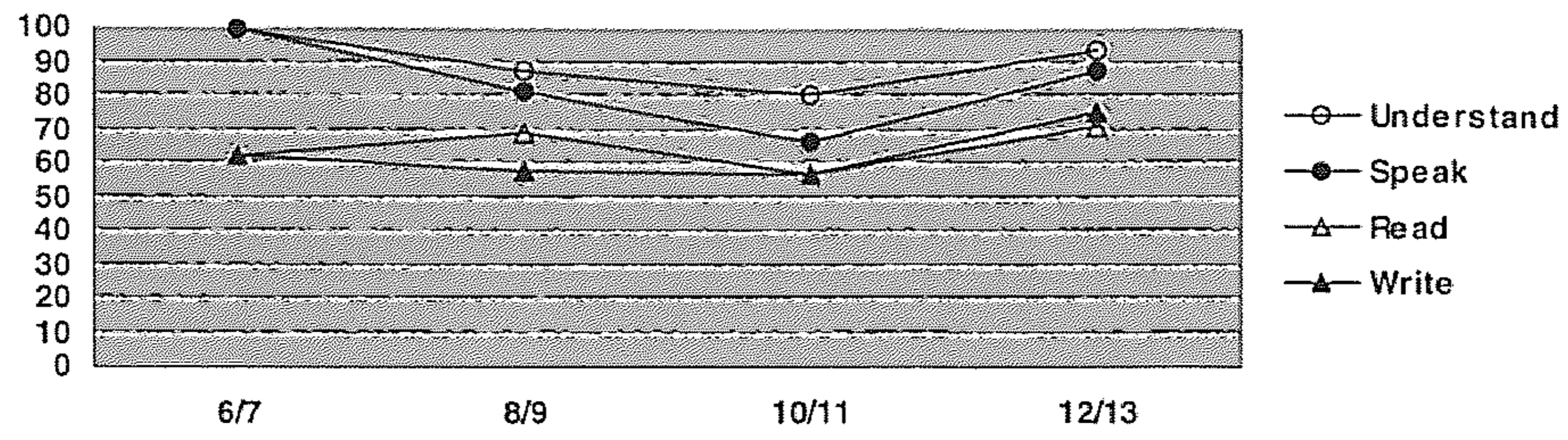


Figure 5.19a Language proficiency in Russian

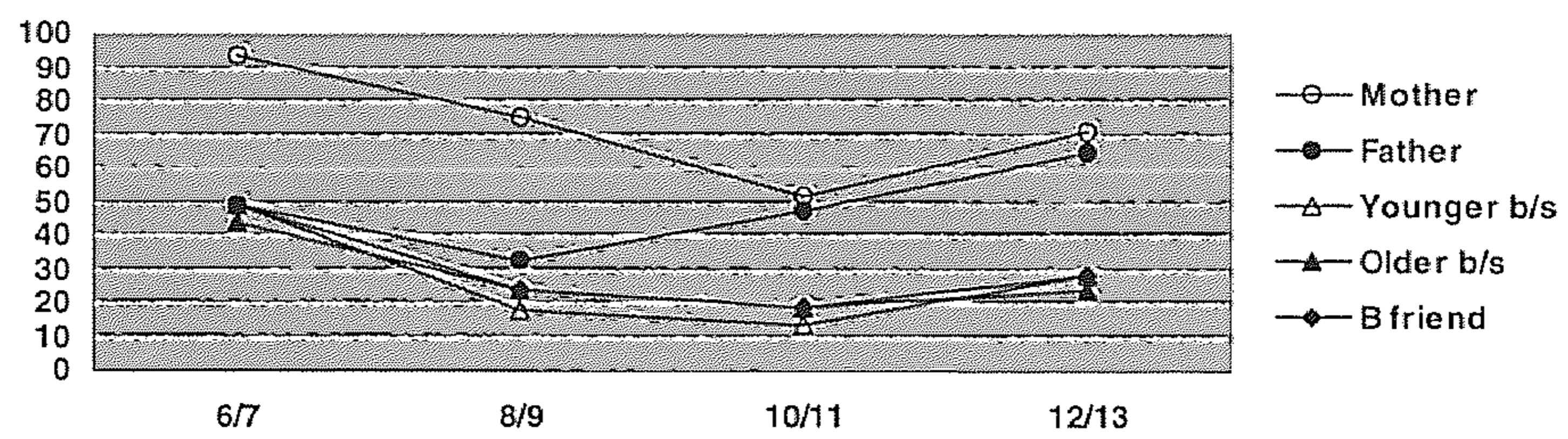


Figure 5.19b Language choice for Russian

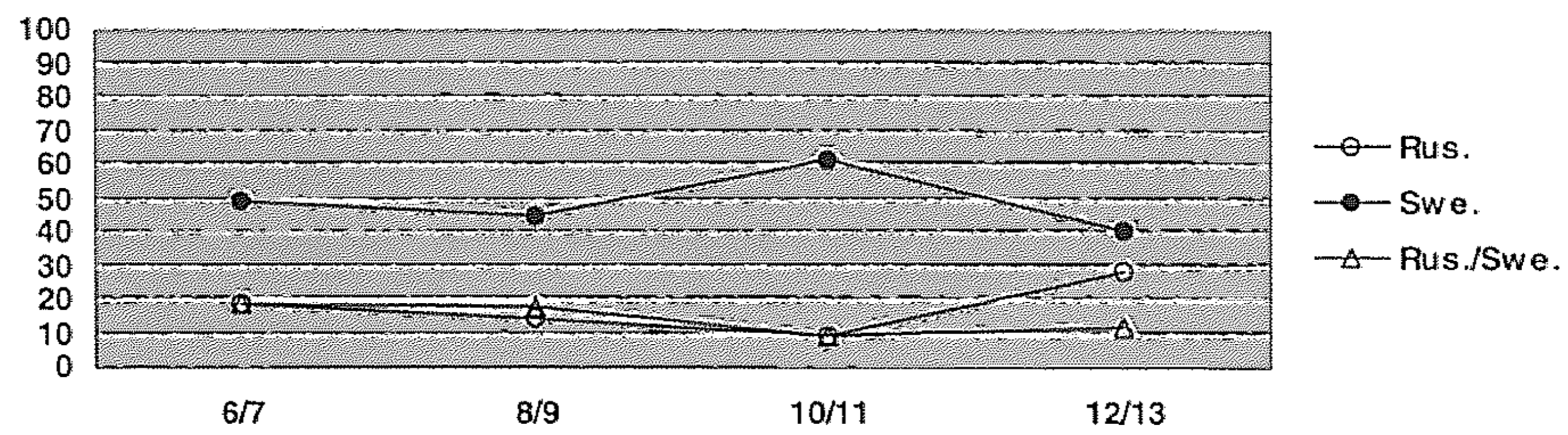


Figure 5.19c Language dominance in Russian and Swedish

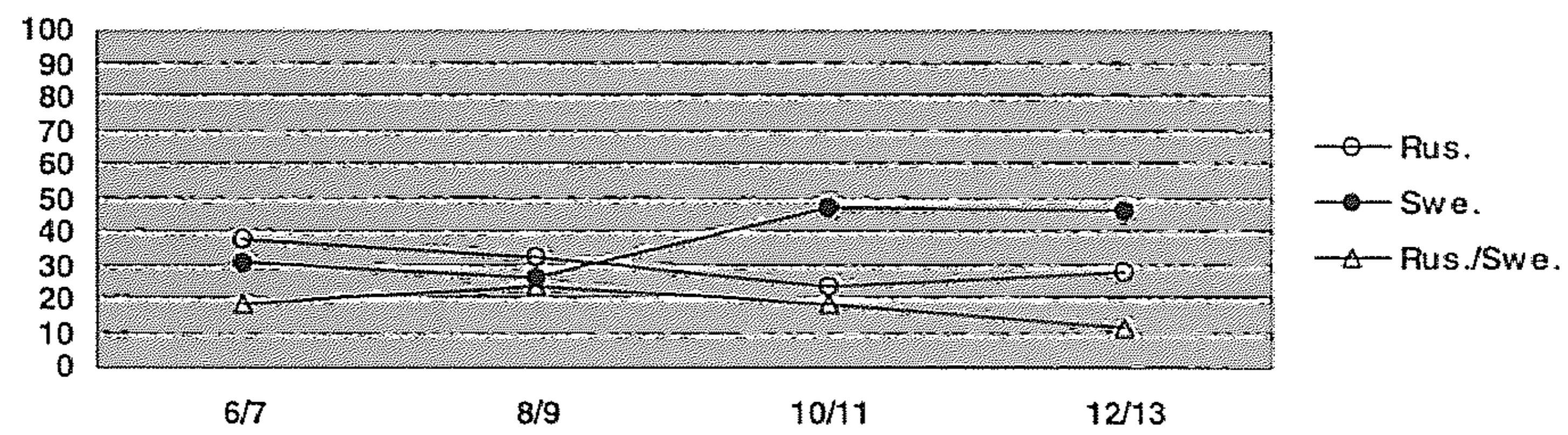


Figure 5.19d Language preference for Russian and Swedish

Age group	4/5	6/7	8/9	10/11	12/13	Unknown	Total
Number of pupils	2	16	33	21	17	1	90

Table 5.19a Number of pupils per age group with Russian as a home language

Birth country	Pupil		Mother		Father	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Russia	36	40%	58	64%	37	41%
Sweden	34	38%	6	7%	16	18%
Ukraine	5	6%	9	10%	5	6%
Poland	2	2%	1	1%	3	3%
Uzbekistan	2	2%	1	1%	1	1%
Kazakhstan	2	2%	2	2%	2	2%
Other countries	9	10%	10	11%	23	26%
Unknown	-	-	3	3%	3	3%
Total	90	100%	90	100%	90	100%

Table 5.19b Birth country of pupils and their parents whose home language is Russian

English	13	Polish	3
German	6	Kurdish	2
Arabic	5	11 other languages	11
French	3		

Table 5.19c Languages other than Russian used at home by the Russian language group

Most pupils and fathers were born in Russia or Sweden, and most mothers in Sweden. Apart from Russian, English is used in 14% of the pupils' homes.

Language proficiency (Fig. 5.19a). Understanding and speaking skills in Russian are reported by 81-100% and 67-100% of all children respectively. Reading and writing skills in Russian are reported by 57-71% and 57-76% of all children respectively.

Language choice (Fig. 5.19b). At home, 52-94% of all children report commonly speaking Russian with their mother, 33-65% with their father, 14-50% with their younger brothers/sisters, 19-44% with their older brothers/sisters, and 19-50% with their best friends.

Language dominance (Fig. 5.19c). Dominance in Russian is reported by 10-29%, and dominance in Swedish by 41-62% of all children. Balanced bilingualism is reported by 10-19% of all children.

Language preference (Fig. 5.19d). Preference for Russian is reported by 24-38%, and preference for Swedish by 27-48% of all children. No preference is reported by 12-24% of all children.

5.1.20 Tigrigna/Eritrean language group

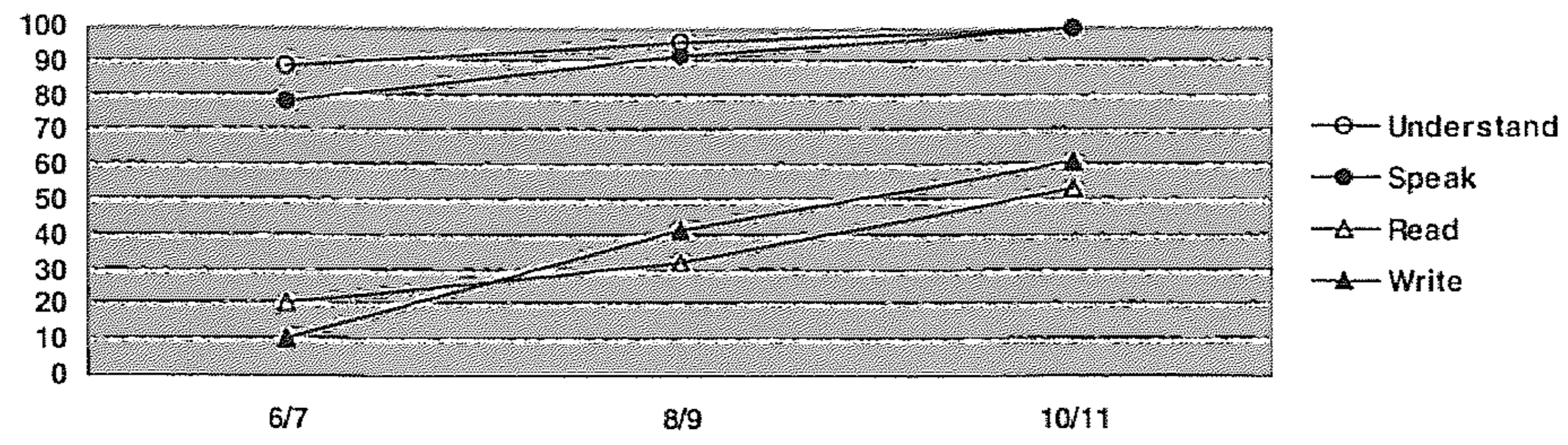


Figure 5.20a Language proficiency in Tigrigna/Eritrean

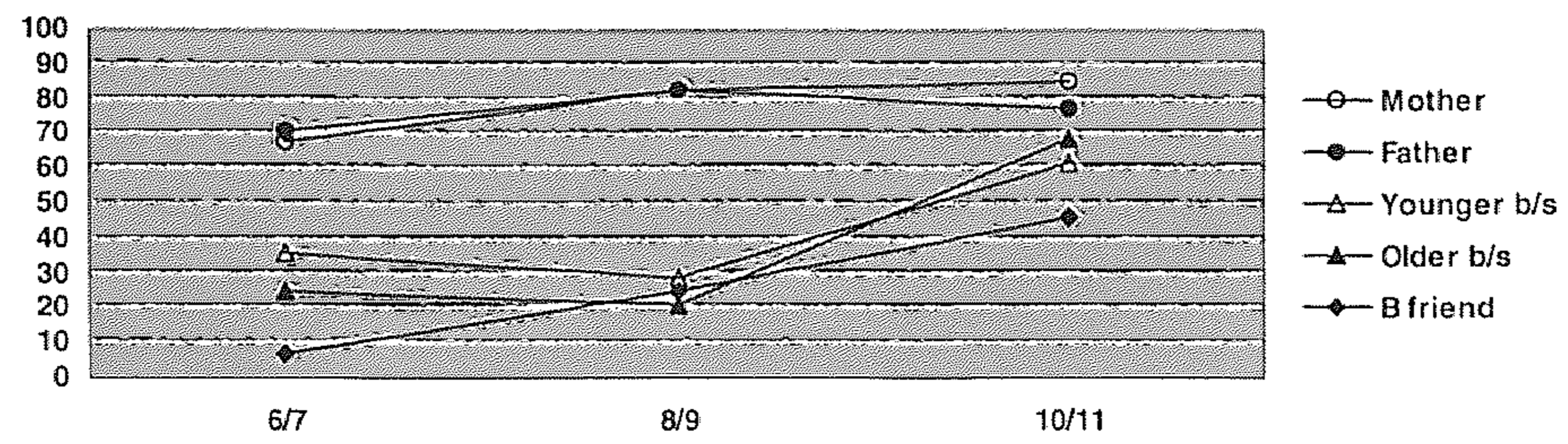


Figure 5.20b Language choice for Tigrigna/Eritrean

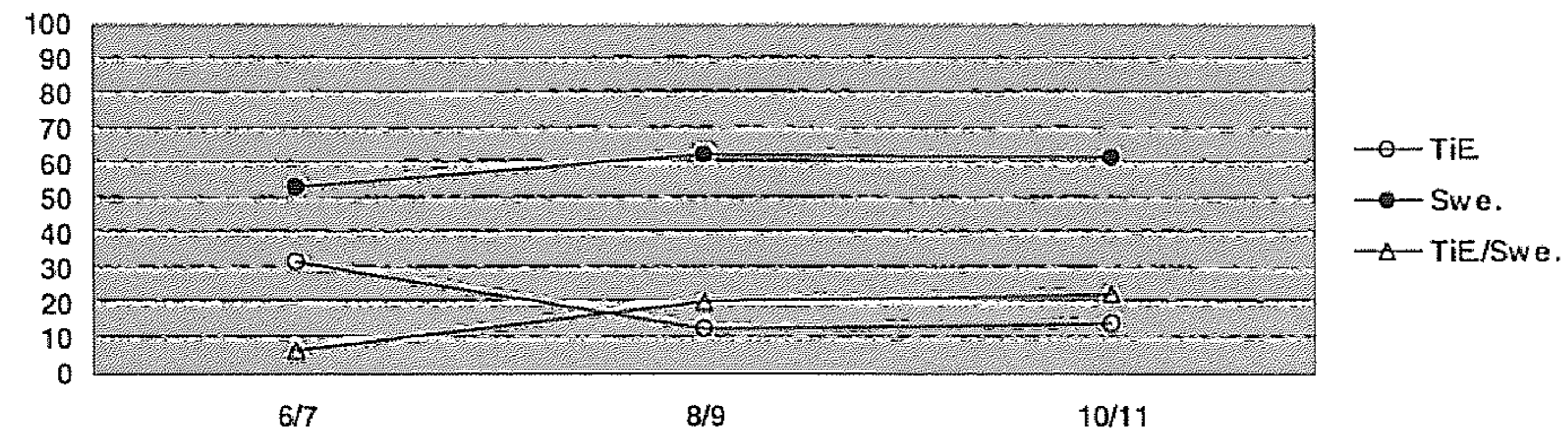


Figure 5.20c Language dominance in Tigrigna/Eritrean and Swedish

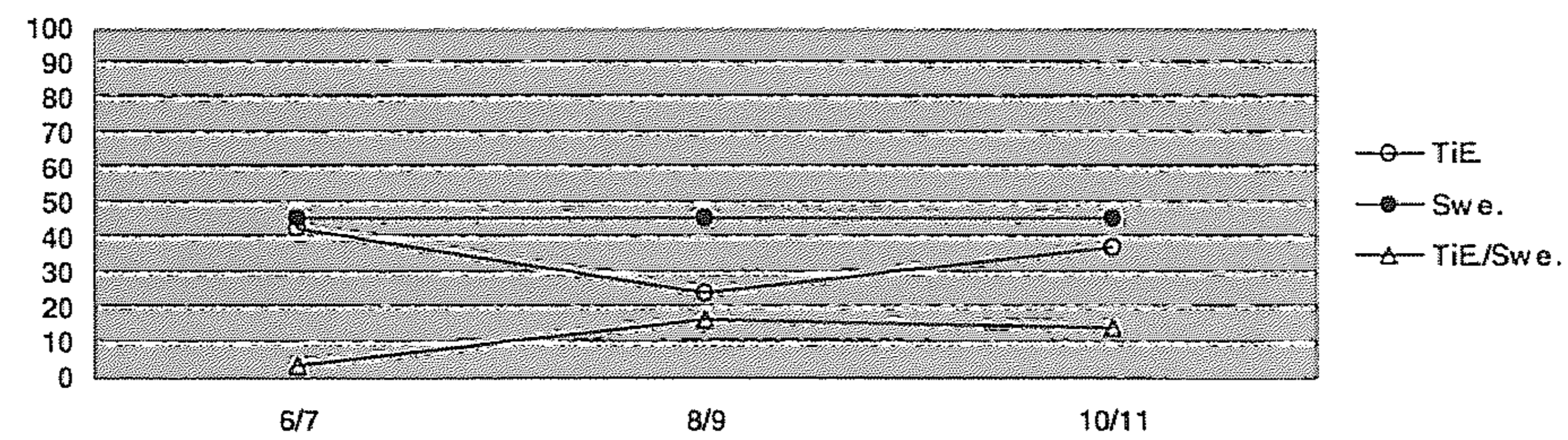


Figure 5.20d Language preference for Tigrigna/Eritrean and Swedish

Age group	4/5	6/7	8/9	10/11	12/13	Unknown	Total
Number of pupils	1	28	24	13	3	3	72

Table 5.20a Number of pupils per age group with Tigrigna/Eritrean as a home language

Birth country	Pupil		Mother		Father	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Sweden	58	81%	-	-	-	-
Eritrea	9	13%	61	85%	61	85%
Sudan	4	6%	2	3%	-	-
Ethiopia	-	-	4	6%	5	7%
Iran	-	-	1	1%	1	1%
Somalia	-	-	1	1%	-	-
Other countries	-	-	1	1%	1	1%
Unknown	1	1%	2	3%	4	6%
Total	72	100%	72	100%	72	100%

Table 5.20b Birth country of pupils and their parents whose home language is Tigrigna/Eritrean

Arabic	9	Finnish	1
English	5	Somali	1

Table 5.20c Languages other than Tigrigna/Eritrean used at home by the Tigrigna/Eritrean language group

Most pupils were born in Sweden and most parents in Eritrea. Apart from Tigrigna/Eritrean, Arabic and English are used in 13% and 7% of the pupils' homes respectively. Figures 5.20a-d give a pseudolongitudinal representation of the age groups from 6-11 years only.

Language proficiency (Fig. 5.20a). Understanding and speaking skills in Tigrigna/Eritrean are reported by 89-100% and 79-100% of all children respectively, in the age range from 6-11 years. Reading and writing skills in Tigrigna/Eritrean are reported by an increasing 21-54% and 11-62% of all age groups respectively.

Language choice (Fig. 5.20b). At home, an increasing 68-85% of all age groups report commonly speaking Tigrigna/Eritrean with their mother, 71-83% with their father, 29-62% with their younger brothers/sisters, 21-69% with their older brothers/sisters, and 7-46% with their best friends.

Language dominance (Fig. 5.20c). Dominance in Tigrigna/Eritrean is reported by 13-32%, and dominance in Swedish by 54-63% of all children. Balanced bilingualism is reported by 7-23% of all children.

Language preference (Fig. 5.20d). Preference for Tigrigna/Eritrean is reported by 25-43%, and preference for Swedish by 46% of all children. No preference is reported by 4-17% of all children.

5.2 Crosslinguistic comparison

Derived from the home language profiles presented in section 5.1 for the 20 language groups under discussion, we make a crosslinguistic and pseudolongitudinal comparison of the four dimensions of language proficiency, language choice, language dominance, and language preference. For this analysis, these four dimensions have been operationalised as follows:

- *language proficiency*: the extent to which the home language under consideration is *understood* by the children;
- *language choice*: the extent to which this home language is commonly spoken *with the mother*;
- *language dominance*: the extent to which this home language is spoken *best*;
- *language preference*: the extent to which this home language is *preferred* to be spoken.

The operationalisation of the first and second dimension (language proficiency and language choice, respectively) is aimed at a maximal scope. Language understanding is commonly the least demanding of the four language skills and the general trend is that the mother acts as a major gatekeeper for intergenerational language transmission. The final columns of the tables to be presented on these four language dimensions contain mean scores for the 20 language groups in decreasing ranking.

From the analyses on the basis of the four language dimensions mentioned above, we finally construct a cumulative Language Vitality Index (LVI) for each of the 20 language groups under consideration. The LVI is based on the mean value of the presented scores for the four obtained language domains. This LVI is by definition an arbitrary index, in the sense that the *chosen* dimensions with the *chosen* operationalisations are *equally* weighted.

5.2.1 Language proficiency

In Table 5.21 we present a crosslinguistic and pseudolongitudinal overview of the first language dimension, i.e. the extent to which the languages under consideration are understood by the children.

Language group	6/7 years	8/9 years	10/11 years	12/13 years	Average
Somali	97	98	92	95	96
Bosnian	98	96	94	91	95
Macedonian	95	94	97	94	95
Chinese	96	85	96	97	94
Polish	88	90	94	100	93
Serbian	96	96	89	87	92
Kurdish	96	96	88	90	92
Turkish	90	91	96	88	91
Portuguese	87	97	92	89	91
Russian	100	88	81	94	91
Arabic	94	90	88	87	90
Albanian	95	86	85	94	90
Norwegian	75	90	95	90	88
Tigrigna/Eritrean	89	96	100	67	88
Croatian	85	91	94	79	87
Spanish	90	82	85	82	85
Finnish	76	68	73	81	75
German	77	63	70	78	72
English	68	53	73	80	69
French	67	43	55	63	57

Table 5.21 Proficiency in language understanding, per language group and age group (in %)

On average, all languages are understood reasonably well to very well. By comparison, the obtained scores for Finnish, German, English, and French are rather low. A possible explanation could be that these languages are more learned as school subjects by these pupils and less used in daily communication at home.

Table 5.22 offers a cumulative overview of the reported oral and literacy skills per language group.

Language group	Total pupils	Understanding	Speaking	Reading	Writing
English	1,276	68	63	53	50
Arabic	871	90	86	42	44
Kurdish	567	93	90	44	43
Turkish	454	92	90	60	54
Bosnian	437	95	94	64	65
Spanish	402	85	82	53	46
Finnish	378	74	66	41	32
Somali	369	96	95	51	48
Chinese	219	93	90	52	58
Albanian	212	88	84	49	46
Serbian	191	92	88	55	50
Polish	184	92	85	48	36
German	179	70	60	44	36
Croatian	167	89	84	54	53
French	141	52	52	28	24
Macedonian	139	95	88	40	42
Norwegian	122	88	75	56	36
Portuguese	111	92	85	59	54
Russian	90	89	82	64	61
Tigrigna/Eritrean	72	93	88	33	33

Table 5.22 Oral and written skills per language group (in %)

A predictably decreasing order of understanding, speaking, reading, and writing skills and a predictably large interval between oral skills on the one hand and literacy skills on the other, can be observed for almost all language groups. Literacy skills are mostly acquired during and through schooling. By comparison, both for understanding and speaking skills, the obtained scores for English, Finnish, German, and French are rather low. Relatively low reading and writing skills are reported for Finnish, French, and Tigrigna/Eritrean. Also note the exceptional order of reported reading (52%) vs. writing (58%) skills for Chinese. This may have to do with the complexity of the Chinese writing system. The children might feel, relatively speaking, more confident about being able to express themselves in writing, where they are in control of what symbols are used, than about making sense of the multitude of Chinese signs that they encounter when trying to read a Chinese text.

5.2.2 Language choice

In Table 5.23 we present a crosslinguistic and pseudolongitudinal overview of the second language dimension, i.e. the extent to which the languages under consideration are commonly spoken with the mother.

Language group	6/7 years	8/9 years	10/11 years	12/13 years	Average
Somali	95	96	95	95	95
Bosnian	86	85	88	87	87
Kurdish	88	84	87	84	86
Tigrigna/Eritrean	68	83	85	100	84
Turkish	79	85	86	78	82
Chinese	78	85	85	79	82
Albanian	88	73	85	83	82
Macedonian	73	72	84	78	77
Polish	71	76	75	83	76
Arabic	79	74	75	71	75
Russian	94	76	52	71	73
Portuguese	57	66	86	74	71
Serbian	69	61	74	74	70
Spanish	57	54	58	51	55
Croatian	48	55	56	53	53
Finnish	48	35	42	56	45
German	42	40	37	26	36
English	31	23	32	34	30
French	28	18	30	32	27
Norwegian	36	28	33	10	27

Table 5.23 Language choice in interaction with the mother, per language group and age group (in %)

The patterns of language choice presented in Table 5.23 are much more differentiated than the patterns of language proficiency presented in Table 5.21. Again, Finnish, German, English, and French obtain comparatively low average scores, but now this is also true for Norwegian. The reason for this is most likely found in the fact that Swedish and Norwegian are to a large extent mutually intelligible, so the motivation to actively use spoken Norwegian may not be strong. The largest intervals between the 6/7 and 12/13 years old children emerge for Tigrigna/Eritrean (+32%), Russian (-23%), and Norwegian (-26%).

Table 5.24 offers a cumulative mirror-like overview of the reported choice of *Swedish* as language of interaction with different interlocutors at home.

Language group	Total pupils	Mother	Father	Younger b/s	Older b/s	Best friends
English	1,276	69	62	49	52	81
Arabic	871	37	32	45	52	92
Kurdish	567	27	26	40	41	91
Turkish	454	43	43	37	44	92
Bosnian	437	34	29	37	43	92
Spanish	402	58	48	45	52	88
Finnish	378	71	64	50	55	89
Somali	369	24	20	46	43	86
Chinese	219	43	37	43	54	95
Albanian	212	41	37	48	60	92
Serbian	191	54	43	40	47	87
German	179	70	67	53	56	85
Polish	184	58	68	39	53	96
Croatian	167	64	52	45	53	89
French	141	66	57	51	43	75
Macedonian	139	67	64	53	49	91
Norwegian	122	76	78	53	48	90
Portuguese	111	65	66	50	59	88
Russian	90	38	43	26	33	87
Tigrigna/Eritrean	72	46	47	51	53	92

Table 5.24 Choice of Swedish as language of interaction with different interlocutors (in %) (b/s = brothers/sisters)

The most frequent choice of Swedish in interaction with parents is reported for Norwegian. The concept of 'mother tongue' is not empirically confirmed by the data. In some groups the language under consideration is more commonly spoken with the mother, in other groups with the father. The largest interval between the two (>10%) emerges for Spanish, Serbian, Polish, and Croatian. Why this is so will require some interview-based research focussing on youngsters from these groups. The languages under consideration are commonly more often spoken with older brothers or sisters than with younger brothers or sisters; the reverse, however, appears for Somali, French, Macedonian, and Norwegian. For all groups, the most frequent choice of Swedish is reported in interaction with best friends.

5.2.3 Language dominance

In Table 5.25 we present a crosslinguistic and pseudolongitudinal overview of the third language dimension, i.e. the extent to which the languages under consideration are spoken better than Swedish or as good as Swedish.

Language group	6/7 years	8/9 years	10/11 years	12/13 years	Average
Somali	64	60	63	69	64
Kurdish	56	48	44	56	51
Turkish	56	44	36	45	45
Tigrigna/Eritrean	39	33	38	67	44
Bosnian	47	40	44	38	42
Chinese	44	45	41	38	42
Arabic	43	33	37	40	38
Russian	38	33	19	41	33
Albanian	53	27	30	17	32
Macedonian	27	26	41	22	29
Portuguese	26	28	28	32	29
Serbian	35	22	32	22	28
Spanish	21	24	23	22	23
Polish	29	18	17	28	23
Norwegian	21	15	36	20	23
English	20	15	21	30	21
Finnish	17	16	19	27	20
Croatian	20	23	17	11	18
German	15	19	11	15	15
French	11	9	14	5	10

Table 5.25 Language dominance per language group and age group (in %)

On average, relatively low dominance scores are again reported for English, Finnish, German, French, and now also for Croatian. The highest dominance scores are reported for the youngest children (6 to 7 out of 20 language groups) or for the oldest ones (again 6 to 7 out of 20 language groups).

5.2.4 Language preference

In Table 5.26 we present a crosslinguistic and pseudolongitudinal overview of the fourth language dimension, i.e. the extent to which the languages under consideration are what the children prefer to speak.

Language group	6/7 years	8/9 years	10/11 years	12/13 years	Average
Somali	60	56	70	81	67
Bosnian	60	52	55	55	56
Tigrigna/Eritrean	46	42	54	67	52
Russian	56	58	43	41	50
Chinese	53	37	49	52	48
Portuguese	39	45	53	53	48
Croatian	53	53	40	42	47
Arabic	50	43	48	44	46
Kurdish	44	42	53	45	46
Turkish	50	49	46	40	46
Spanish	43	46	46	48	46
Macedonian	43	40	56	44	46
Polish	29	56	44	50	45
Serbian	49	43	53	30	44
Albanian	45	42	54	33	44
Norwegian	25	38	64	40	42
English	40	33	42	42	39
Finnish	30	30	36	40	34
French	33	23	27	37	30
German	15	27	21	37	25

Table 5.26 Language preference per language group and age group (in %)

On average, relatively low preference scores are again reported for Norwegian, English, Finnish, French, and German. The highest preference scores are again reported for the youngest children (5 out of 20 language groups) or for the oldest children (9 out of 20 language groups).

In Table 5.27 we compare the reported patterns for language preference and language dominance. Selected are those children who report different languages for the questions on language preference and language dominance.

Language group	Total pupils	Prefers Swedish, another language dominant		Prefers another language, Swedish dominant		Total mismatches	
Tigrigna/Eritrean	72	13	18%	25	35%	38	53%
Bosnian	437	82	19%	138	32%	220	50%
Russian	90	14	16%	29	32%	43	48%
Chinese	219	44	20%	56	26%	100	46%
Somali	369	75	20%	92	25%	167	45%
Serbian	191	25	13%	60	31%	85	45%
Albanian	212	31	15%	62	29%	93	44%
Portuguese	111	12	11%	37	33%	49	44%
Polish	184	17	9%	63	34%	80	43%
Macedonian	139	15	11%	45	32%	60	43%
Spanish	402	37	9%	132	33%	169	42%
Arabic	871	127	15%	232	27%	359	41%
Kurdish	567	111	20%	124	22%	235	41%
Turkish	454	89	20%	94	21%	183	40%
Norwegian	122	10	8%	39	32%	49	40%
Croatian	167	10	6%	55	33%	65	39%
English	1,276	105	8%	373	29%	478	37%
Finnish	378	30	8%	91	24%	121	32%
German	179	15	8%	35	20%	50	28%
French	141	8	6%	27	19%	35	25%

Table 5.27 Language dominance vs. preference of pupils for whom dominance is different from preference

The total number and proportion of mismatches in Table 5.27 show that there are many children in all groups for whom the preferred language is not the dominant language. Most mismatches in *all* language groups result from dominance in Swedish and preference for another language, and not from the reverse. The least mismatches between language preference and language dominance emerge again for the well-known quartet of English, Finnish, German, and French.

5.2.5 Language vitality

As mentioned at the beginning of section 5.2, we construct at the end of this section a cumulative Language Vitality Index (LVI) for all 20 language groups on the basis of the four analysed language dimensions (i.e. language proficiency, language choice, language dominance, and language preference). The LVI is based on the mean value of the presented scores for each of the four language dimensions referred to. As was pointed out above, this LVI is by definition an arbitrary index in the sense that the *chosen* dimensions with the *chosen* operationalisations are *equally* weighted. Table 5.28 gives a crosslinguistic and pseudolongitudinal overview of the language vitality per language group and age group (in %).

Language group	6/7 years	8/9 years	10/11 years	12/13 years	LVI
Somali	79	77	80	85	80
Bosnian	73	68	70	68	70
Kurdish	71	67	68	69	69
Tigrigna/Eritrean	61	64	69	75	67
Turkish	69	67	66	63	66
Chinese	68	63	68	66	66
Arabic	66	60	62	60	62
Albanian	70	57	63	57	62
Macedonian	59	58	70	60	62
Russian	72	64	49	62	62
Portuguese	52	59	65	62	60
Polish	54	60	57	65	59
Serbian	62	55	62	53	58
Spanish	53	51	53	51	52
Croatian	51	55	52	46	51
Norwegian	39	43	57	40	45
Finnish	43	37	42	51	43
English	40	31	42	47	40
German	38	38	35	39	38
French	35	23	32	34	31

Table 5.28 Language vitality per language group and age group (in %, LVI in cumulative %)

The highest values for language vitality emerge again for the youngest children or for the oldest children (10 and 6 out of 20 language groups, respectively). Among the languages in the top-10, only speakers of Chinese and Macedonian occur in the top-10 on the list of children born in Sweden (Table 5.30), indicating a strong language vitality also in the second (or even third?) generation immigrants from these backgrounds. It does not come as a surprise that the lowest language vitality indices are found for Norwegian, Finnish, English, German, and French.

Table 5.29 gives another cumulative overview of language vitality, now on the basis of the four language dimensions instead of the four age groups.

Language group	Total pupils	Language proficiency	Language choice	Language dominance	Language preference	LVI
Somali	369	96	95	64	67	81
Bosnian	437	95	87	42	56	70
Kurdish	567	93	86	51	46	69
Tigrigna/Eritrean	72	93	84	44	52	68
Turkish	454	92	82	45	46	66
Chinese	219	93	82	42	48	66
Arabic	871	90	75	38	46	62
Albanian	212	88	82	32	44	62
Macedonian	139	95	77	29	46	62
Russian	90	89	73	33	50	61
Portuguese	111	92	71	29	48	60
Serbian	191	92	70	28	44	59
Polish	184	92	76	23	45	59
Croatian	167	89	53	18	47	52
Spanish	402	85	55	23	46	52
Norwegian	122	88	27	23	42	45
Finnish	378	74	45	20	34	43
English	1,276	68	30	21	39	40
German	179	72	36	15	25	37
French	141	52	27	10	30	30

Table 5.29 Language vitality per language group and language dimension (in %, LVI in cumulative %)

Table 5.29 shows from another perspective that the highest and lowest language vitality indices in the last column derive from relatively very high and very low scores for the four considered language dimensions respectively.

5.3 Home language as indicator of multicultural population groups

In this final section of Chapter 5 we discuss the value of home language as an indicator of multicultural population groups, compared to the birth country criterion. First of all, Table 5.30 gives an overview of births of pupils and parents in Sweden. The top-20 of the language groups is ranked in a decreasing order of births of the pupils in Sweden (in proportional scores).

Language group	Total	Pupil	Mother	Father
Finnish	378	95	40	39
Macedonian	139	92	24	13
Chinese	219	86	3	5
Polish	184	86	9	33
Norwegian	122	86	45	48
Portuguese	111	86	14	32
Spanish	402	85	35	28
Turkish	454	84	12	7
English	1,276	82	61	53
Tigrigna/Eritrean	72	81	-	-
French	141	80	62	51
Serbian	191	75	17	7
German	179	75	56	54
Arabic	871	72	7	2
Croatian	167	71	28	12
Somali	369	67	2	1
Albanian	212	60	8	5
Bosnian	437	53	83	85
Russian	90	40	64	41
Kurdish	567	39	2	1

Table 5.30 Proportional births in Sweden per language group (in %)

Most pupils in 18 out of the 20 language groups were born in Sweden, the exceptions being the pupils in the Kurdish and Russian language groups. In contrast, most of the parents were born abroad, the exceptions being the mothers and/or fathers in the English, Bosnian, German, French, and Russian language groups. Table 5.31 offers a comparison of birth country and home language for all pupils in the sample. In case of missing values on one or more of the relevant dimensions, pupils have not been included in this comparison.

Birth country	Total	No other language next to or instead of Swedish		Another language next to or instead of Swedish	
Pupil					
Sweden	18,981	17,713	84%	1,268	6%
Other country	2,078	1721	8%	357	2%
Mother					
Sweden	14,345	14,005	68%	340	2%
Other country	6,260	5,030	24%	1,230	6%
Father					
Sweden	13,787	13,435	65%	352	2%
Other country	6,815	5,617	27%	1,198	6%
Pupil/Mother/Father					
Sweden	12,269	12,152	59%	117	1%
Other country	8,276	6,817	33%	1,459	7%

Table 5.31 Comparison of the birth countries of pupils and their parents with the home languages of the pupils

First of all, Table 5.31 makes clear that home language and birth country of the children do not correspond in all cases and therefore represent alternative or complementary indicators of multicultural population groups. The combination of Sweden as birth country and another home language next to or instead of Swedish holds for 6% of all children (N=21,059). As yet, the coverage of the combined birth country criterion (i.e. the birth country of the pupil and/or the mother and/or the father) is very substantial. Here, the combination of Sweden as birth country and another home language next to or instead of Swedish only holds for 1% of all children (N=20,545). By contrast, the combination of another birth country for the parents as well as the child and Swedish only at home holds for 33% of all 20,545 children.

6 Home languages at school

In this chapter we will focus on nine different parameters for the teaching of home languages at school (section 6.1). Moreover, we will present data on the distribution of home languages at public vs. independent schools in Göteborg (section 6.2), derived from the home language survey presented in Chapter 3. In the final section (6.3) we will look at the survey data on home language needs and participation in Göteborg schools as well as the importance instruction in a language has for the development of literacy in that language.

6.1 Nine parameters for home language instruction

In this first section we will focus on the following nine parameters for the teaching of home languages at both primary and secondary schools: target groups, arguments, objectives, evaluation, enrolment, curricular status, funding, teaching materials, and teacher qualifications.

(1) Target groups

In Sweden as a whole, whether in a larger city like Göteborg, in a medium-sized town, or in a smaller municipality, any child of immigrant and/or minority background is, at least officially, eligible to receive home language instruction. The child may be a first, second or third generation immigrant to Sweden, as long as s/he has already developed some proficiency in the language, which should be actively used in the home on a daily basis, the child is entitled to home language instruction. No beginner level teaching is thus available within the perimeters of home language instruction in Swedish schools. However, the availability of this kind of instruction is not limited to recently arrived or particularly large immigrant groups, nor is it restricted to a certain level of socio-economic status. Adopted children, who have developed a mother tongue other than Swedish, are also entitled to receive instruction in this other language.

One difficulty arises when there are two (or even three) other languages than Swedish used regularly in the child's home. Unless one of these languages is recognized as one of the five official minority languages in Sweden (Saami, Finnish, Meänkieli, Yiddish and Romani) the family has to prioritise one home language over the other(s) when requesting home language instruction for the child within the public education system. With the change in official terminology from 'home language' to 'mother tongue' that was implemented in 1997 (Tuomela 2001) one may have expected an emphasis on the language spoken by the mother in making such a choice. Judging by information gathered by student teachers in Göteborg during the spring of 2002 as a part of their practicum assignment (personal communication), this choice is rather governed by perceived status or usefulness in the eyes of the parents. Another deciding factor is simply availability in practical terms, which is dependent on the number of pupils enrolled to receive instruction in a given language, as will be discussed below (see (5) in this section).

Teacher availability can also be a practical constraint on who receives home language instruction or not. Among recently arrived immigrant groups with few well-educated adults, it may prove impossible to find a speaker of their language that would be able to function in the role of instructor. (For required teacher qualifications, see (9) below.) An additional problem arises when an x-speaking parent does not approve of the variety that the teacher of language x uses. The family may then decide to choose another home language for instruction through the public school system, if two or more languages other than Swedish are used in the home, or simply refrain from having the child participate in any home language instruction at all.

The target group for home language instruction has shrunk with the changes made to the national curriculum guidelines of 1994 (Lpo-94). This document introduced not only a minimum group size requirement but also placed more stringent demands on the pupil's proficiency in the home language,

which – as mentioned above – was soon to be renamed ‘mother tongue’ by the school authorities. This name change in itself clearly indicates a relatively high level of expected language skills, at least orally, in the child.

(2) Arguments

The rationale for requiring that schools offer home language instruction for immigrant children within the framework of the public school system, in 1976 when the ‘Home Language Reform’ document was presented by the government, and in 1977 when the Swedish parliament voted on and approved it, had its roots in the notions of equal opportunity and social justice that underpinned much of Swedish policy and government practice in that era. Also, there had already since the 1960’s been early home language instruction programs offered by school boards in certain municipalities in Sweden that opted to provide this kind of instruction, usually because of their high proportion of immigrant population.

Immigration to Sweden has occurred at various stages since World War II. Wartime and post-war refugees in the 1940’s gave way to labour immigration in the fifties and sixties to meet the demands of the rapid industrial expansion that took place in this country that had been spared the ravages of warfare. These hired workers were primarily men from Finland and the countries in the North-Eastern Mediterranean basin, who mostly moved to the industrial areas in and around the three largest cities, Stockholm, Göteborg, and Malmö. Some eventually returned home, but many settled in their new homeland and either brought family members from the source country or married locally and started their own families in Sweden. In the 1970’s, however, conflicts in more far-flung parts of the globe resulted in refugees coming to Sweden from South and Central America, Africa, the Middle East, and South-East Asia. These newcomers replaced the labour immigration, which had been officially stopped by government decree in 1967.

In 1975, the Swedish government decided to change its immigrant policy from one of assimilation to a more integration oriented approach (Tuomela 2001). This was in large part a reaction to the increasing numbers of visible minorities among the latest refugees/immigrants to Sweden, and with it a realisation that traditional assimilation into the Swedish main stream was virtually impossible for these newcomers (Nygren-Junkin 1997). They were now allowed and encouraged to retain and develop their first languages in addition to learning Swedish as a second language. Bilingualism became the desired outcome. The implementation of this policy shift primarily rested with the education authorities, and the public school system thus became obliged, from 1977, to provide home language instruction to any pupil whose parents demanded it and who chose to participate. In addition, these children should also be taught Swedish as a second language and not be subjected to ‘Swedish submersion’ by being placed in an all-Swedish class in too many subjects too soon.

(3) Objectives

In the most recent curriculum guidelines (Lpo 94), the acquisition of bilingual skills through home language instruction is supplemented with the added objective of developing a strong bicultural identity and dual cultural competence. This is different from the earlier national guidelines (Lgr 80) where the focus was on setting objectives for language development in (potentially bilingual) immigrant school children. Here the purpose of giving the pupil home language instruction was to further the child’s emotional, linguistic, and intellectual development. However, the goal to attain is only defined as ‘active bilingualism’ in both the earlier and the later curriculum documents, without any specification as to what this means in terms of performance and ability.

Among Swedish scholars in the field of bilingualism, a suggested objective is that the pupil shall reach spoken and written skill levels in both the mother tongue and Swedish that enable her/him to use both languages in any context where s/he desires to do so (Hylltenstam 1986, Tingbjörn 1986). Although this definition is still rather imprecise and does not identify any particular levels or performance, it does provide a broad functional objective with an individually determined target level, which narrows the field from the sweeping strokes of the national curriculum guidelines.

(4) Evaluation

In general, formal evaluation of pupils' performance and progress is not a high priority in the Swedish public education system. Instead, informal evaluation meetings are held regularly, as a rule once per term, where the form teacher meets individually with the parent(s) of each pupil. During these talks the teacher informs about the child's situation at school, both academically and socially. The emphasis is on the positive aspect of the child's accomplishments, and possible problems are dealt with from a constructive point of view, looking for ways to improve the status quo rather than disciplining the pupil for what is now in the past.

In grade 8, the children finally receive their first report cards with marks for each subject, and this can at times be a rude awakening for some pupils (personal communication). Those who have participated in home language instruction get a mark in this subject as well, and unless there has been other informal contact between the parents and the home language teachers, this may be the first indication the parents get about how well their children are doing in this subject. At present, there is unfortunately little contact between home language instructors and other teaching staff (see (6) for further details), so it may be difficult for the form teacher to receive information about a pupil's progress as assessed by the home language instructor before meeting with the child's parent(s) for the informal evaluation talk.

In grade 9 and throughout secondary school, Swedish schools provide formally reported annual evaluations of the pupils in all subjects, including the home language. Nationwide written examinations are held in grade 9 and in the last year of secondary school, the results of which are one factor in the evaluation of the children, together with class participation and other assessment instruments used by individual teachers. When applying to secondary and post-secondary education, the home language mark is counted as a 'regular' subject mark, but not as one of the core subjects, i.e. Swedish (as a first or second language), English, and Mathematics, in which a graduate must have at least a passing grade to be admitted to the next level in the education system.

(5) Enrolment

During the first 15 years after the home language reform in Sweden (1977-1992), there was no minimum enrolment required for a child to be entitled to receive instruction in the home language. A group could literally be made up of just one pupil and the teacher. Prior to the reform, home language instruction could be provided by schools that chose to offer it, and the recommended group size was then at least five pupils. In 1991/1992, the Swedish school authorities returned to this model by suggesting a minimal group size of four participants and then, in 1994, by stating that a minimum of five children must be enrolled for the home language to be provided by the public school system (Lpo-94 1994). These pupils do not all have to attend the same grade or even the same school for their regular classes, and some may thus have to go to another location for their home language instruction in order for the group to reach the required size. The net result of this has been that instruction in the home languages of smaller immigrant groups is frequently no longer available through the public education system in Sweden.

(6) Curricular status

Two aspects of curricular status, time allotted per week and time of day when the classes are offered, have both been changed as a result of the cost-reducing revisions to the home language reform that were implemented in 1992. The new curriculum guidelines of 1994 also affected the teaching of home languages in Swedish schools. With few exceptions, these changes have not resulted in improvements.

The amount of time allotted to home language instruction was in the early days of optional provision of this instruction, i.e. before 1977, limited to 80 minutes per week. This limitation was officially removed with the home language reform of 1977, when schools became obliged to offer this kind of instruction, and the guiding principle should instead be the needs of the individual pupils. However, most schools continued to limit the availability of home language instruction to the original

80 minutes, and nobody seems to have questioned this practice (Municio 1987). One reason for this could be that home language instruction at this time replaced other subjects during the pupils' school day, and too many substituted hours would have led to the students' missing too much learning in other subjects.

The average time given to home language instruction today still seems to be those 2x40 minutes a week, although there have since 1994 been other models available. These alternatives include just one as well as up to three 40-minute class periods of home language instruction per week at different stages in the compulsory school system, starting in grade 3 and continuing through grade 9. However, the pupil can only continue until a total of between 320 and 470 (depending on the instructional model) such class periods have been accumulated over a maximum of 7 school years, i.e. potentially each school year from grade 3 up to and including grade 9. According to a recent report written by the National Agency for Education entitled *Flera språk – fler möjligheter* (Skolverket 2002), which covers many aspects of home language instruction in Sweden at present, it is in reality not uncommon that local schools decide not to implement the time restrictions stated in the curriculum guidelines.

With the curriculum guidelines of 1994 (Lpo-94), home language instruction is no longer to replace other scheduled class activities. The pupils now have more individual flexibility in designing their study programs, at least in theory, and home language can be one of these options that either the school can choose to include in its regular curriculum or the individual pupil can select as one of her/his courses. Otherwise, the home language instruction is to be done outside the regular school day. This seems to be what has become the reality for most children receiving home language instruction. Just one year after these new rules, 65% of all municipalities reported that they had opted to schedule instruction in home languages after the end of the school day and that they had ensured that the minimum group size of five was implemented (Hylltenstam & Tuomela 1996). It appears that an even greater percentage of Sweden's municipalities follow those guidelines today, based on reports from local schools to the National Agency for Education (Skolverket 2002).

The move to place the home language instruction outside the regular school day, and often outside the pupil's home school, has had devastating effects on the work situation for home language teachers. Unlike the way it was before 1994, there is today no forum for contact between these teachers and other teaching staff, as the home language instructors arrive at the school after everybody else has left. (There have even been stories of home language teachers and pupils being locked out of school buildings, which were deserted after all others had gone home for the day.) They are no longer informed by the 'regular' teachers about what the children are working on in other subjects, thereby making it difficult to dovetail the content of the home language teaching with what the pupils are taught in Swedish. This is not a good way of developing active bilingualism, thus being at odds with the objectives in the curriculum guidelines.

In secondary schools, the changes have been less striking. If there is enough interest to get a group of at least five pupils, and there is a teacher available, a home language can usually be studied in lieu of a second or third foreign language. (English, the first foreign language, is compulsory in the Swedish school system.) Over the three years of secondary school, a maximum of 190 class periods of home language instruction can be accumulated.

A better curricular status is given to home language instruction in some of the so-called independent schools that have been a permitted alternative to the public schools in Sweden since 1994. The defining feature of certain independent schools is their language profile – others may have an artistic or an athletic or a religious profile – and this at times includes a greater emphasis on instruction in one or more of Sweden's many immigrant languages. It can mean that greater amounts of time are spent on teaching some of these languages, or that other school subjects are taught with another language than Swedish as the medium of instruction. Families are free to choose any independent school for their children, without any formal geographical constraints limiting the options.

(7) Funding

All funding for public education home language instruction comes from the government and cannot be supplemented with funds from any other source. The national treasury distributes education funds to the municipal authorities with recommendations about how this school money should be spent. Since 1994, however, none of these funds are earmarked specifically for home language instruction. In practice, this means that a school board can decide to use money, whose recommended use is to pay for home language instruction, to replace broken windows or spend it on some other school need/activity, which is seen a higher priority. School administrators and local authorities tend not to consider home language instruction a high priority (Skolverket 2002).

The funding for the independent schools in Sweden also comes from the public purse and is not to be supplemented with any infusions of funds from other sources. This school form is thus intended to be free of charge to the families who choose to have their children attend this type of school. There have been reports in the media about independent schools requesting extra contributions from the parents of their pupils, but these schools have without exception been reprimanded by the school authorities. The same is true for organisations wishing to sponsor a particular independent school, so an immigrant association in Göteborg cannot financially sponsor an independent school with a language or subject profile that the organisation in question would like to support. The amount of money an independent school receives from the government is determined by the number of pupils registered at the school.

Swedish school children have to choose one school type or the other. It is therefore not possible to, for example, attend a regular public school for most of the day and supplement one's education with some courses offered at an independent school, such as instruction in a certain home language that one's public school does not provide.

(8) Teaching materials

Finding appropriate teaching materials for home language instruction has been a considerable problem ever since these programs were started. It soon proved inappropriate to import materials from where the languages were taught as majority languages. Not only was the content culturally unsuitable for teaching in the Swedish school system, but the language level for especially the older pupils was also too sophisticated for a child growing up in another social and linguistic context (Jacobsen 1981).

In the late 1970's, in connection with the teacher training program for home language instructors that existed at that time, some teaching materials were developed in the then predominant immigrant languages (see (9) below). The Swedish National School Board (*Skolöverstyrelsen*) launched a campaign in the 1980's to encourage creative home language teachers to participate in producing teaching materials for themselves and their colleagues, but this effort has been discontinued. Some of these and other more recently written materials for languages with a limited literary tradition can be found through the Swedish Central Bureau of Statistics and the national school authorities. Thus there are books with both a language teaching emphasis and an aim to inform about the culture and heritage of speakers of that language intended for pupils with home languages such as Romani, Somali, Assyrian/Syrian, and Kurdish (both Kurmanij and Sorani). A 'mother tongue web site' is also being developed by the National Agency for Education to assist home language teachers with materials and contacts with colleagues (Skolverket 2002).

Generally speaking, though, considering the great heterogeneity of the children in a group of home language pupils, being taught together by the same teacher in the same room at the same time, the creation of teaching materials seems an almost impossible task except on an ad hoc basis. Informal sharing among instructors can take place, provided they get a chance to see each other, but home language teachers often operate quite isolated from one another. There are few fora where they could meet, such as conferences or professional development days intended for home language teachers in particular, because these initiatives cost money. With recent cut-backs in Sweden to schools in

general and immigrant education in particular, the difficulty in finding proper home language teaching materials will persist.

(9) Teacher qualifications

At the time of implementing the home language reform, in 1977, a new teacher training program was also established at major colleges of education in Sweden, the home language teacher program. It was two years long and was initially available in seven immigrant languages: Arabic, Danish, Finnish, Greek, Serbo-Croatian (still considered one language at that time), Spanish, and Turkish. A few years later, Farsi was added. However, in relation to the need for trained teachers in these languages, the appeal of the program was limited. There was also criticism of the program as being too focussed on language skill training and lacking in cultural content (Jacobsen 1981). The students enrolled in the program are reported to have complained about both a shortage of time and a lack of depth, the result of the wide spectrum of teaching situations and age groups these teachers were to face in the classroom. Consequently, the majority of home language instructors did not get and do not have this training.

Instead, there is a mixture of practices in place to secure teachers for various home languages. Most working today are still employed after many of their colleagues lost their jobs in connection with the reduced funding of the programs in the early 1990's. So even though they may lack in formal qualifications, they have several years of experience. Among them are academics with teacher training from their home countries or some other higher education or pedagogical training. Others were simply willing to do the job when somebody was needed and proved able to do it satisfactorily, although without formal qualifications (Skolverket 2002). The latter strategy can still become used if an instructor for one of the newer home languages is needed. The individual school (board) today has a great deal of liberty to recruit as they see fit, since the Swedish school system today is very decentralized.

The most recent national teacher education program, which was approved and implemented in 2001, includes on its lists of subjects 'home language' as an option for one of the two subjects a teacher should specialize in. However, with the high level of uncertainty about the future of home language teaching in Sweden, and with the often appalling working conditions under which these instructors have to teach, it is hardly surprising that not enough candidates selected this subject as one of their specializations to get a class started at any of the colleges of education in Sweden.

The recently published report from the Swedish National Agency for Education (Skolverket 2002) calls for improvements to the present situation for home language teachers in Sweden and emphasizes the need for professional training and development. This document also suggests clearer home language guidelines in terms of not only content and methods but also objectives and funding. All these are factors that ultimately affect the teaching reality of home language instructors and determine the kinds of qualifications that are necessary, or at least desirable, to accomplish the goal of helping immigrant minority children in Sweden develop into 'active bilinguals' and well-educated adults.

6.2 Home languages at public versus independent schools in Göteborg

This section will compare the numbers of pupils with home languages other than Swedish attending public schools and independent schools in Göteborg. The discussion of the figures in Table 6.1 will also comment on possible reasons for results that are at odds with what might be expected, given the perception among many Swedes that independent schools are more likely to be predominantly attended by ethnically Swedish children.

Nr	Home languages	Total	Public schools	Proportion	Independent schools	Other/Unknown
1	English	1,276	995	78%	241	40
2	Arabic	871	798	92%	23	50
3	Kurdish	567	529	93%	2	36
4	Turkish	454	405	89%	12	37
5	Bosnian	437	408	93%	4	25
6	Spanish	402	372	93%	14	16
7	Finnish	378	334	88%	17	27
8	Somali	369	318	86%	5	48
9	Chinese	219	209	95%	7	3
10	Albanian	212	194	92%	1	17
11	Serbian	191	181	95%	1	9
12	Polish	184	159	86%	19	6
13	German	179	131	73%	42	6
14	Croatian	167	148	89%	5	14
15	French	141	115	82%	21	5
16	Macedonian	139	127	91%	4	8
17	Norwegian	122	112	92%	4	6
18	Portuguese	111	101	91%	6	4
19	Russian	90	72	80%	15	3
20	Tigrinya/Eritrean	72	62	86%	-	10
21	Vietnamese	72	68	94%	-	4
22	Danish	70	64	91%	3	3
23	Syrian/Turoyo	70	65	93%	-	5
24	Greek	64	59	92%	2	3
25	Romani/Sinte	62	59	95%	-	3
26	Thai	61	53	87%	2	6
27	Italian	56	51	91%	5	-
28	Hungarian	48	37	77%	10	1
29	Tagalog/Philippino	44	37	84%	3	4
30	Dari/Pashto/Afghane	36	27	75%	-	9
31	Icelandic	34	33	97%	-	1
32	Romanian	33	29	88%	2	2
33	Urdu/Pakistani	31	24	77%	3	4
34	Hindi	26	19	73%	4	3
35	Turkmenic	24	22	92%	-	2
36	Dutch	21	10	48%	11	-
37	Punjabi	19	14	74%	4	1
38	Hebrew/Ivriet	17	15	88%	1	1
39	Amharic/Ethiopian	16	12	75%	-	4
40	Farsi	16	11	69%	1	4

Nr	Home languages	Total	Public schools	Proportion	Independent schools	Other/ Unknown
41	Japanese	15	9	60%	4	2
42	Wolof/Senegalese	14	14	100%	–	–
43	Estonian	13	10	77%	3	–
44	Czech	13	11	85%	2	–
45	Armenian	11	8	73%	2	1
46	Sorani	11	11	100%	–	–

Table 6.1 Distribution of home languages across school types (N tokens per language > 10)

Two groups, the English and the German ones, stand out as having the highest numbers of pupils in the independent schools (241 and 42 respectively), with similar relatively low percentages (78% and 73% respectively) in the public school system. This is easy to explain, since the English School and the German School were two of the participating independent schools in the sample. Of these two, the English School is considerably larger than the German School, a relationship that can be seen in the figures above.

Next in terms of numbers of children are pupils with Arabic (23) or French (21) as their home languages. Here, however, the proportions are more different than between the previous two groups. Among the Arabic-speaking children, 92% still attend schools in the public education system, while only 82% of the French-speaking pupils are enrolled in public schools. A similar proportion (80%) of the Russian-speaking children are found in the public schools, which translates as a total of 15 pupils attending independent schools instead.

It is interesting to note that the four of these five languages that had the lower percentages in public schools are also languages, which have traditionally been taught as foreign languages in the Göteborg public schools. This may reflect a dissatisfaction among parents of children, who have these languages as home languages, in terms of the public school system's ability or willingness to recognize the instructional needs of a home language pupil as different from those of pupils being taught a 'regular' foreign language. Among repatriated Swedish families, whose children have learned one of these languages while living abroad, there is a great deal of frustration over the school system's lack of resources to build on this existing language capital. These children are just placed in the corresponding foreign language instruction, where the level of the teaching is so low that they do not benefit from it at all (personal communication). It would come as no surprise if the independent school pupils discussed above include some of these young repatriates.

Extremely low percentages for public school attendance are found for two home language groups, the Japanese and the Dutch. Of the Japanese-speaking pupils, only 60% are in public school, but a word of caution is in order, since this only reflects a total number of 9 children. The four pupils reported to attend independent schools become a whopping 27%, and with 2 children being reported as 'other' or 'unknown', those percentages could easily jump ten points in either direction, as 'other' would mean attending the preschool year in the public school system, and 'unknown' may stand for an independent school. (See discussion of Table 3.2 in Chapter 3.) The Dutch figures are, on the other hand, more reliable. Of a total of 21 pupils, 11 attend independent schools. The remaining 10, or 48%, have all reported that they go to public schools in Göteborg. In other words, more than half the children have parents that, for whatever reason, have decided not to educate their children in the public system.

One can only speculate about these families' choice. The availability of Dutch home language instruction could be an issue, but it may also reflect the Dutch people's strong desire to develop excellent English language skills (Extra 2002, personal communication). This is a priority that they seem to share with the people of the Scandinavian countries, who also speak first languages that are used as mother tongues by fewer than ten million for each and learned as second or foreign languages

by even fewer. Although English is compulsory and a core subject in the Swedish schools, Dutch parents may have disliked that much English teaching in Göteborg public schools is done through the Swedish language as a means of giving explanations about the target language. Perhaps the independent English School has offered these parents a better alternative, where the children learn the language through English immersion instead.

Finally, it can from this table be concluded that there are more often than not at least some children who attend independent schools among the pupils who use another home language than Swedish. The relatively few language groups that have reported no pupils at all attending independent schools mostly have their geographical roots in the Middle East (Turkey, Kurdistan, Turkmenistan, and Afghanistan) or in Africa (Eritrea, Ethiopia, and Senegal). In addition, children from Romani-speaking homes are not reporting attending independent schools, and neither are pupils who speak Vietnamese at home. Icelandic families also send their children to public schools only. All these languages have fewer than 75 speakers in the data, so every one of the larger home languages among these 6-12-year-old pupils is represented in the independent schools of Göteborg.

6.3 Home language needs and participation in Göteborg schools

Towards the end of the questionnaire the participants in the survey filled out, there were two questions that dealt with languages in a school context (see Appendix 1). Question 18 asked the pupils what languages they studied in school, and the next one asked what additional language(s) they would like to learn through the school system they were attending. The last question, number 20, asked whether or not the children studied any language(s) outside school. Table 6.2 shows the results.

Language	Need at school		Participation at school		Participation outside school	
Spanish	6,068	18%	1,277	7%	250	7%
English	5,514	16%	11,824	69%	865	25%
French	5,293	15%	1,045	6%	168	5%
German	3,623	10%	928	5%	156	5%
Greek	2,375	7%	113	1%	67	2%
Chinese	1,894	5%	164	1%	130	4%
Finnish	1,601	5%	117	1%	215	6%
Italian	895	3%	47	-	33	1%
Russian	886	3%	44	-	48	1%
Turkish	813	2%	180	1%	109	3%
Arabic	783	2%	338	2%	376	11%
Polish	549	2%	35	-	60	2%
Bosnian	430	1%	276	2%	111	3%
Croatian	404	1%	43	-	46	1%
Albanian	359	1%	76	-	64	2%
Kurdish	349	1%	156	1%	132	4%
Somali	331	1%	175	1%	112	3%
Danish	330	1%	9	-	22	1%
Norwegian	324	1%	13	-	23	1%
Tagalog/Filipino	307	1%	11	-	12	-
Serbian	303	1%	57	-	53	2%
Japanese	208	1%	12	-	21	1%
Portuguese	111	-	29	-	53	2%
Thai	94	-	9	-	14	-
Dutch	66	-	4	-	11	-
Other	611*	2%	132**	1%	259***	8%
Total	34,521	100%	17,114	100%	3,410	100%

Table 6.2 Reported need and participation for various languages at and outside school (* = 83 languages; ** = 29 languages; *** = 44 languages)

Unlike Table 6.2, which includes the entire survey population, Table 6.3 includes only those respondents who use another language than Swedish at home. The responses in Table 6.3 thus get reported twice: first as a part of all data in the survey, and second without the Swedish-only data.

Language	Need at school		Participation at school		Participation outside school	
Spanish	5,693	18%	1,208	8%	231	8%
English	5,114	16%	10,955	70%	798	28%
French	4,893	15%	945	6%	147	5%
German	3,388	11%	862	5%	135	5%
Greek	2,237	7%	108	1%	65	2%
Chinese	1,780	6%	133	1%	98	3%
Finnish	1,524	5%	115	1%	198	7%
Italian	817	3%	40	-	24	1%
Russian	814	3%	39	-	47	2%
Turkish	770	2%	170	1%	104	4%
Arabic	715	2%	306	2%	346	12%
Polish	514	2%	33	-	60	2%
Bosnian	394	1%	263	2%	107	4%
Croatian	375	1%	40	-	43	1%
Albanian	336	1%	72	-	59	2%
Kurdish	320	1%	144	1%	121	4%
Somali	310	1%	173	1%	112	4%
Danish	290	1%	6	-	17	1%
Norwegian	286	1%	8	-	12	-
Tagalog/Filipino	274	1%	6	-	10	-
Serbian	268	1%	45	-	48	2%
Japanese	195	1%	10	-	11	-
Portuguese	87	-	4	-	6	-
Thai	76	-	2	-	1	-
Latin	62	-	-	-	4	-
Other	434*	1%	28**	-	70***	2%
Total	31,966	100%	15,715	100%	2,874	100%

Table 6.3 Reported need and participation in language classes by pupils in whose homes a language next to or other than Swedish is used (* = 72 languages; ** = 14 languages; *** = 26 languages)

Among the languages that the children were learning in school already, the first option listed on the form (see Appendix 1) was the majority language, Swedish, which interestingly many of the Swedish-only-at-home pupils did not consider a language that they learned in school. From grade 3 on, almost all children have obligatory English classes in Göteborg, as in most of Sweden. (Some school districts start English language instruction as early as grade 1, while some immigrant pupils with poor Swedish language skills may get a delayed start in English.) This accounts for the extraordinarily large number of students that participate in English instruction. They simply have no choice. From grade 6, the children can choose to add another foreign language, which in most cases is German or French, but today some schools also provide Spanish as a foreign language.

Moreover, this question about learning languages in school is where the pupils indicate whether or not they are receiving any home language instruction through the school system. However, they do not indicate here if they go to other (home) language training provided privately through their parents, i.e. study the language with a tutor, go to 'Saturday-school', or attend religious education that also involves studying a (home) language. This privately organised language instruction is what is

called 'participation outside school' in the tables above, and these figures reflect the answers to the last question on the form.

Question 19 invited the participants to indicate what (other) languages they would like to learn in school. The sky was the limit, and a few students marked an extremely over-ambitious number of languages that they wanted to study in the future. However, most pupils limited themselves to more realistic selections, although these languages did not have to be part of what is normally taught in Göteborg schools today. Some of the younger children did not want to learn any languages at all in addition to Swedish, not even English.

When the two tables above (Table 6.2 and Table 6.3) are compared, they show striking similarities. The ordering of perceived language needs as well as participation in instruction in and outside school are almost identical for the two tables. Even though the table with 'other-language-at-home' respondents (Table 6.3) is a subset of the table showing the entire survey population (Table 6.2), the fact that almost two-thirds (64%) of the entire sample reported using only Swedish at home made it in no way a foregone conclusion that the figures would be so alike.

That both tables show the majority of the pupils receiving English instruction in school is hardly surprising, but that Spanish is in second place may have been more unexpected, considering the Swedish school tradition of usually introducing either German or French as the next foreign language after English. However, in just the last couple of years, Spanish has rapidly become a very popular language choice in school after English, as clearly shown in both these tables, where Spanish ranks first among the languages the children respond that they would like to learn. The number of respondents who also indicate that they study Spanish outside school is high as well, although only in third place after English and Arabic. Many of those studying Arabic outside school probably receive this language training as part of their religious instruction. It is also interesting to note that in the data, more children (783) report a need to learn Arabic than Danish (330) or Norwegian (324), both long seen as an integral part of the Swedish language curriculum in high school.

What looks particularly interesting in these tables, though, is the remarkable popularity of Greek, Chinese, and Finnish. It is, of course, unclear whether the pupils have answered that they want to learn modern Greek – Greece is at present a very popular vacation country for Swedes – or classical Greek, which they may have heard or read about as a language that historically was part of an educated person's repertoire. The figure probably also includes some grandchildren, or even great grandchildren, of Greek immigrants to Sweden back in the mid-1900's. This second and third generation factor is likely to have influenced Finnish as well, but it is possible that there is curiosity about this language among children in Sweden who do not know it. Since Finnish gained official status as a minority language in Sweden in 1997, every toothpaste tube or toy box has had its contents and instructions for use added in Finnish. Being not at all related to Swedish, Finnish is totally incomprehensible to a Swede, in spite of the geographical proximity and a long shared history. Unlike the languages of our other neighbouring nations, Finnish is so different from Swedish that, without having learnt it, one cannot even make an intelligent guess about what words may mean.

Chinese may well be poised to become the next world language, together with English and Spanish, if Göteborg's school children can have it their way. As with Greek, we cannot second-guess which kind of Chinese the pupils are interested in learning, since it is not just one language that is expressed in writing by the Chinese characters. It may be safe to assume, though, that those children who want to learn Chinese, without having any ancestral connection to the language, would choose either Mandarin or Cantonese as the spoken version of the language that they would study in school. Furthermore, one might wonder if the selection of Beijing as the Olympic city of 2008 has had any impact on the children's awareness of China as a country to be reckoned with in the future, or if its emergence onto the market of the global economy has had a trickle-down effect that reaches all the way to these young school children in Göteborg, Sweden.

Another way of relating participation to need is to investigate whether participation in home language instruction meets any particular needs in the pupils. A common argument against home language instruction is precisely that children do not need it in school. It is something the parents can

take care of. This opinion is voiced by certain politicians, by self-proclaimed specialists in the media, and by 'the man in the street'. Tables 6.4 and 6.5 give an overview of the reported reading and writing proficiency of children who do vs. do not receive instruction in the languages under consideration.

Language group	All pupils in the language group			Pupils who receive instruction in the language			Pupils who do not receive instruction in the language		
	N	Reading	%	N	Reading	%	N	Reading	%
English	1,276	676	53	925	602	65	351	74	21
Arabic	871	364	42	471	283	60	400	81	20
Kurdish	567	248	44	247	163	66	320	78	24
Turkish	454	272	60	196	151	77	258	121	47
Bosnian	437	279	64	189	147	78	248	132	53
Spanish	402	213	53	167	114	68	235	99	42
Finnish	378	156	41	96	74	77	282	82	29
Somali	369	190	51	215	120	56	154	70	45
Chinese	219	114	52	137	95	69	82	19	23
Albanian	212	103	49	87	61	70	125	42	34
Serbian	191	105	55	70	60	86	121	45	37
Polish	184	88	48	70	47	67	114	41	36
German	179	78	44	79	50	63	100	28	28
Croatian	167	90	54	59	47	80	108	43	40
French	141	39	28	48	24	50	93	15	16
Macedonian	139	56	40	42	26	62	97	30	31
Norwegian	122	68	56	14	10	71	108	58	54
Portuguese	111	65	59	62	43	69	49	22	45
Russian	90	58	64	40	38	95	50	20	40
Tigrinya/Eritrean	72	24	33	30	16	53	42	8	19

Table 6.4 Reported reading proficiency and language instruction

If we compare the degree to which the school children in the survey have benefited from receiving language instruction in school, it becomes clear from Tables 6.4 and 6.5 that in order to learn to read and write a language, be it a home language or foreign language, the pupils need to participate in instruction in the language in order to learn these skills. Here the differences are significant in both skills and for all of the 20 most frequently reported languages. There is one exception in the figures for writing, and this exception is Norwegian, where the few pupils who receive instruction report that they know how to read (10 of 14) but most of them (11 of 14) do not feel that they have mastered the art of writing in Norwegian yet. In contrast, of those who use Norwegian and do not receive instruction, as many as 38% consider themselves able to write. This may reflect a level of confidence that is boosted by the fact that Swedish and Norwegian are closely related languages, and the children can probably carry over at least some of their Swedish writing skills to Norwegian without receiving formal instruction.

For all the other languages, including home languages, most children clearly need to participate in language instruction in order to learn how to read and write. Whether or not it should be necessary to have these skills in one's home language is a question that ought not to be asked in a country where the curriculum guidelines for immigrant education state that the goal is 'active bilingualism'.

For active use of any language in contemporary society, literacy skills are a necessity, and for this reason, children with other home languages than Swedish need to learn how to read and write in both their languages. This is, according to these data, best accomplished through participation in language instruction.

There are those who offer cost-related arguments against investing in home language instruction but are favourably disposed towards spending on the more traditional European languages, taught as foreign languages in the Swedish school system. The question arises whether our schools can afford to maintain such a limited view regarding what languages should qualify as school subjects. It was clear from Table 6.2 that the participating pupils had realized the need to learn world languages such as Chinese and Arabic, even for those who do not have a family link to these languages. These are signs of an awareness about a global society that decision-making adults have not developed as readily as these children. As a consequence of this global perspective, pupils in today's education system will need the language skills that participation in language instruction helps to develop.

Language group	All pupils in the language group			Pupils who receive instruction in the language			Pupils who do not receive instruction in the language		
	N	Writing	%	N	Writing	%	N	Writing	%
English	1,267	642	50	925	576	62	351	66	19
Arabic	871	382	44	471	292	62	400	90	23
Kurdish	567	241	43	247	163	66	320	78	24
Turkish	454	247	54	196	145	74	258	102	40
Bosnian	437	283	65	189	146	77	248	137	55
Spanish	402	184	46	167	103	62	235	81	34
Finnish	378	120	32	96	61	64	282	59	21
Somali	369	177	48	215	120	56	154	57	37
Chinese	219	127	58	137	97	71	82	30	37
Albanian	212	98	46	87	60	69	125	38	30
Serbian	191	96	50	70	58	83	121	38	31
Polish	184	66	36	70	40	57	114	26	23
German	179	65	36	79	45	57	100	20	20
Croatian	167	88	53	59	45	76	108	43	40
French	141	34	24	48	21	44	93	13	14
Macedonian	139	59	42	42	31	74	97	28	29
Norwegian	122	44	36	14	3	21	108	41	38
Portuguese	111	60	54	62	44	71	49	16	33
Russian	90	55	61	40	35	88	50	20	40
Tigrinya/Eritrean	72	24	33	30	17	57	42	7	17

Table 6.5 Reported writing proficiency and language instruction

7 Conclusions and discussion

The multilingualism among primary school children in Göteborg that emerges from the presented analyses of the language survey data is in many aspects similar to what might have been expected, based on previous records and recent statistics on immigration to Sweden. However, there are also many interesting unexpected findings in the results on the distribution and vitality of home languages.

The number of pupils reporting the use of another language than Swedish at home offers the first surprise. It is actually considerably higher than figures based on participation in home language instruction, with the proportion of other language users representing more than one third (36%) of the participating children. The national percentage is usually estimated at somewhere between 10% and 15%. This estimate was supported by national statistics that were collected in 1994 indicating 12% of all students as using another home language than Swedish. Göteborg can safely be assumed to be above the national average, with a high proportion of refugees and immigrants living in the north-eastern suburban areas of this city, but three times as high was unexpected. There may indeed, as we shall see below, be some other factor influencing this result.

The number of different languages used by these school children is 75 identified known languages, but with other words used instead of proper language names, such as the name of a country where the language is spoken, the data contain a total of 93 different references. The top-20 of the most frequently mentioned home languages account for 87% of the total number of all 75 identified known languages referred to. Out of the top-25 of world languages, 11 languages are represented in the top-20 of home languages referred to in Göteborg. In this city, it is often said that only in the suburb of Bergsjön, the most immigrant-dense area in all of Sweden, there are over 100 languages spoken, so the list of 75 languages, or 93 references, seems low in comparison. However, in several cases, what is reported elsewhere as a separate language may in our treatment of the data for the analyses have been interpreted as a dialect or other subcategory of a larger language. For example, in this study, Chinese has been treated as one single language whereas several of the respondents would have filled in Mandarin, Cantonese or Hakka as their home language. The same is true for the major varieties within the Kurdish language reference. Similar subsets probably account for the remaining discrepancy.

One surprising figure is the disproportionately large number of pupils – almost 1,300 – who report the use of English at home. But considering the fact that only around 500 of these children had parents who were not born in Sweden, a different situation emerges. Just as the Dutch MCP researchers found to be true for the children in the Hague (Extra et al. 2002), the high status of English and its tendency to permeate the language of popular culture and international events lead many parents to use English at home with their children as soon as they start learning this language in school. It is pupils aged 8 to 11 that mostly report the use of English at home, so this “homework booster effect” could provide a reasonable explanation for this otherwise unexpected outcome.

A less unexpected finding is what other frequently reported languages are used in the children’s homes. Relatively recently arrived refugee groups to Sweden account for high numbers using Arabic, Kurdish, Bosnian, and Somali, while large older immigration groups still report the use of Turkish, Spanish, and Finnish at home. There are probably some more established immigrants to Sweden among the Arabic-speaking families, just as the relatively high number of Chinese-speakers is likely to include both older settlers and newer arrivals. It is, however, interesting to note that only 11% of the children surveyed report being born outside Sweden, while the parents’ percentages are in the mid-30’s. It thus seems more likely that one will find a match between the birth country of the parents and language(s) used at home by a child than when focusing on the birth country of the child him/herself. As was already discussed in Chapter 5, the more core family members’ birth countries are included, the higher the predictor value of this as an indicator that another language than Swedish will (or will not if everybody is born in Sweden) be used in the home. Interestingly, however, fully 33% of the children born abroad report the use of only Swedish at home. One wonders to what extent

this high proportion reflects a well-meaning, but often misguided, effort by immigrant parents to use the majority language with their children instead of helping them develop bilingual skills by practicing a language other than Swedish at home. Another possible group behind these figures are repatriated Swedes who return to Sweden after starting families abroad.

Apart from multiple data on language distribution, this study offers multiple data on language vitality. A cumulative language vitality index has been developed for the top-20 of most frequently mentioned home languages on the basis of four analysed language dimensions, i.e. language proficiency, language choice, language dominance, and language preference. For each of these four language dimensions, pseudolongitudinal language profiles have been developed for all children in the top-20 of language groups. The highest values of language vitality emerge for Somali and Bosnian, the lowest ones for German and French.

If we compare the degree to which the school children in the survey have benefited from language instruction in school, it becomes clear that there is a significant relationship between reported literacy (reading and writing skills) and language instruction for all of the 20 most frequently reported home languages. Most children clearly need to participate in language instruction for the development of literacy skills. Just using these languages at home does not make active bilinguals of immigrant minority pupils.

Other interesting results from the survey are in the areas of language needs as perceived by the pupils in the survey. In Sweden, the traditional school languages other than English have long been German and French, with some schools also offering Spanish, Russian, or Italian at the high school level. These languages, although still in relatively high demand, are getting some serious competition from languages that seem to show a greater global awareness among the children than among decision-making adults. The participating pupils indicate an interest in learning the non-European world languages Chinese and Arabic as well as more locally important languages such as Greek and Finnish, which have long held positions as sizeable immigrant languages in Sweden but have only been available in schools as home language instruction, limiting access to instruction to those who already use the language at home. The language most in demand was Spanish, which was not entirely unexpected due to informal reporting from school officials in Göteborg. Spanish, of course, has the added advantage of being both a large home language among immigrants to Sweden and a traditional, although not high ranking, school subject as one foreign language option in certain schools.

The implications for schools in Göteborg are that the reported lack of interest among pupils in learning a foreign language has possibly more to do with what languages are offered than with the children's willingness to study a foreign language other than English. Another call for action may also be found in the fact that all languages with high language vitality are languages of recent immigrant and refugee groups, except for Chinese and Macedonian. What these two groups have done in terms of language maintenance efforts could serve as a useful source of information to the schools, and elsewhere perhaps, about what needs to be done among immigrant minorities to prevent language loss in Swedish-born generations. In today's world we need, as the Swedish curriculum guidelines state, individuals who are both bicultural and bilingual, and what we can least afford is language loss in potentially bilingual children just because we did not take enough trouble to prevent it from happening.

In Europe, language policy has largely been considered as a domain which should be developed within the national boundaries of the different EU member states. Proposals for an overarching EU language policy are laboriously achieved and non-committal in character (see Coulmas 1991). The most important declarations, recommendations, or directives on language policy, each of which concepts carries a different charge in the EU jargon, concern the recognition of the status of (in the order mentioned):

- national EU languages;
- 'indigenous' or regional minority languages;
- 'non-territorial' or immigrant minority languages.

On numerous occasions, the EU ministers of education have declared that the EU citizens' knowledge of languages should be promoted (see Baetens Beardsmore 1993). Each EU member state should promote pupils' proficiency in at least two 'foreign' languages, and at least one of these languages should be the official language of one of the EU states. Promoting knowledge of regional and/or immigrant minority languages has been left out of consideration in these ministerial statements. The European Parliament, however, accepted various resolutions which recommended the protection and promotion of regional minority languages and which led to the foundation of the *European Bureau for Lesser Used Languages* in 1982. Another result of the European Parliament resolutions is the foundation of the European MERCATOR Network, aimed at promoting research on the status and use of regional minority languages, and in March 1998, the *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* came into operation. The Charter is aimed at the protection and promotion of regional minority languages, and it functions as an international instrument for the comparison of legal measures and other facilities of the EU member states in this policy domain.

As yet, no such initiatives have been taken in the policy domain of immigrant minority languages. It is a remarkable phenomenon that the teaching of regional minority languages is generally advocated for reasons of cultural diversity as a matter of course, whereas this is rarely a major argument in favour of teaching immigrant minority languages. The 1977 guideline of the Council of European Communities on education for immigrant minority children (Directive 77/486, dated 25 July, 1977) is today outdated. It needs to be put in a new and increasingly multicultural context, it needs also to be extended to pupils originating from non-EU countries, and it needs to be given greater binding force in the EU member states. The increasing internationalisation of pupil populations in European schools, finally, requires a language policy for *all* school children in which the traditional dichotomy between foreign language instruction for indigenous majority pupils and home language instruction for immigrant minority pupils is put aside.

There is a great need for educational policies in Europe that take new realities about transnational multiple identities and multilingualism into account. Processes of both convergence and divergence should be dealt with. The former relate in particular to the increasing status of English as *lingua franca* for international communication, the latter to the emergence of 'new' minority languages next to 'old' and established ones across Europe. Derived from an overarching conceptual and longitudinal framework, *priority languages* could be specified in terms of both regional and immigrant minority languages for the development of curricula, teaching methods, and teacher training programs. Underscoring the often-pronounced plea for the learning of three languages by all EU citizens, we suggest the following principles for the implementation of this plea at the primary school level:

- 1 In the primary school curriculum, three languages are introduced for all children:
 - the standard language of the particular nation-state as a major school subject and language of communication across other school subjects;
 - English as *lingua franca* for international communication;
 - an additional third language opted from a variable and varied set of priority languages at the national, regional, and local level of the multicultural society.
- 2 The teaching of all these languages is part of the regular school curriculum and subject to educational inspection.
- 3 Regular primary school reports provide, formally or informally, information on the children's proficiency in each of these languages.
- 4 National working programs are established for the priority languages referred to under (1) in order to develop curricula, teaching methods, and teacher training programs.
- 5 Part of these priority languages may be taught at specialized language schools.

Given the experiences abroad (e.g. the Victorian School of Languages in Melbourne, Australia), language schools can become expertise centres where a variety of languages are taught, if the number of children requesting this instruction is low and/or spread over many schools. In line with the proposed principles for primary schooling, similar ideas could be worked out for secondary schooling where learning more than one language is already an established practice. The above-mentioned principles would recognize multilingualism in an increasingly multicultural environment as an asset for all children and for the society at large. The European Union, the Council of Europe, and the UNESCO could function as leading transnational agencies in promoting such concepts. The UNESCO *Universal Declaration of Cultural Diversity* is highly in line with the views expressed here, in particular in its plea to encourage linguistic diversity, to respect the mother tongue at all levels of education, and to foster the learning of several languages from the youngest age. For further inspiration on the concepts proposed we refer to *Multilingualism for All* (Skutnabb-Kangas 1995) and *The Other Languages of Europe* (Extra & Gorter 2001). Objectives for intercultural education, *English as a Second Language* (ESL) and *Languages Other Than English* (LOTE) according to the Department of Education (1997: 12-14) in Victoria State/Australia are presented in Appendix 5 of this report.

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Appendix 2

English translation of survey form and instruction

2.1 Survey form (see Appendix 1 for Swedish version and lay-out)

Multilingual Cities Project

Please fill out this form in black or blue ink. Do not use a pencil!

1. What is your first name and surname?
2. How old are you? (5-13)
3. Sex (boy/girl)
4. In which town is your school?
5. What is the name of your school?
6. City district.
7. Type of school (primary school, independent school, other)
8. Class/grade (1-8, other)

Please answer the questions below by colouring the circles. Countries not mentioned can be filled out in the boxes above the last three columns (Sweden, Finland, Albania, Bosnia, Chile, Denmark, Eritrea, Iraq, Iran, China, Croatia, Norway, Poland, Russia, Serbia, Great Britain, Syria, Turkey, Germany).

9. In which country were you born?
10. In which country was your father born?
11. In which country was your mother born?
12. Are any other languages than Swedish ever used in your home?
If yes, continue with all questions.
If no, continue with questions 18 to 20.

Please answer the questions below by colouring the circles. Languages not mentioned can be filled out in the boxes above the last three columns (Swedish, Finnish, Albanian, Arabic, Bosnian, English, French, Greek, Chinese, Croatian, Kurdish, Farsi, Polish, Russian, Serbian, Somali, Spanish, Tagalog, Turkish, German).

13. Which other languages are used in your home instead of or next to Swedish?
14. Which home languages can you understand/speak/read/write?
15. Which language do you usually speak at home with your mother/father/younger siblings/older siblings/best friends?
16. Which language do you speak best?
17. Which language do you prefer to speak?
18. Which languages do you learn at school?
19. Which languages do you not learn at school that you would like to learn at school?
20. Which languages do you study outside of school?

2.2 Instruction of teachers

- Each pupil fills out one questionnaire each.
- Both sides of the form must be filled out.
- The form **MUST NOT** be filled out in pencil.
- The form is to be filled out in school, during class.
- The teacher may assist pupils as needed.
- The child's name will not be used in the treatment of the data.
- The circles on the form should be filled or marked on the inside.
- The lines of 'boxes' are for adding countries/languages not already on the form.
- The option 'andra' in question 8 is to be used for the compulsory preschool year.
- 'Far' means biological father in question 10 and adult male in the family in 15.
- There is no limit to the number of languages that can be marked for question 19.
- Question 20 refers to organised, formal learning, not doing homework.

Appendix 3

Letter to city district administrators

2001-10-05

Till skolansvarig i SDF/
Rektor i friskolan

Under 2001, som utsetts till det europeiska språkåret, har EU ett antal internationella projekt på gång. Ett av dem heter 'The Multilingual Cities Project', vilket undersöker flerspråkigheten hos elevpopulationen i sex europeiska storstäder. Varje stad representerar ett EU-land, och för Sveriges del är det Göteborg som deltar i undersökningen. Valet föll på Göteborg av framför allt två skäl: dels för att det är Sveriges mest mångkulturella storstad; dels för att Göteborgs Universitet utsetts till ett 'European Centre of Excellence'. Denna status har tilldelats 47 universitet/högskolor i EU, i konkurrens med totalt 530 lärosäten, för framstående europaforskning inom olika ämnesområden. Det är därför viktigt för framtida internationellt akademiskt samarbete att så många som möjligt av Göteborgs skolor, inklusive friskolorna, deltar i detta EU-projekt.

Undersökningens syfte är att kartlägga vilket/vilka språk som används på något sätt av elever i åldrarna fem till tolv år, och den omfattar samtliga elever, alltså även dem som (till synes) kommer från enspråkigt svensktalande hem. Information om den dolda flerspråkighet som troligen finns bland många som växer upp i Göteborg idag kan bli mycket värdefull för planeringen av språkundervisningen i morgondagens skolor. Jag är fullt medveten om att både lärare och elever kan vara 'enkät-trötta', men med tanke på att detta är ett stort internationellt projekt med resultat som är praktiskt användbara lokalt, hoppas jag verkligen att så många som möjligt kan ställa upp.

Bifogat till detta brev finns ett exemplar av det frågeformulär som kommer att användas i undersökningen. Det är exakt samma formulär som använts i samtliga länder som förutom Sverige deltar i projektet, dvs. Holland, Tyskland, Spanien, Frankrike och Belgien. Den svenska versionen innehåller, liksom de andra, en rad där eleverna kan fylla i sina namn. Jag vill understryka att den informationen är frivillig och på inget sätt nödvändig för den här undersökningen. Det går precis lika bra att fylla i formuläret anonymt. Det fanns emellertid några forskare från andra deltagarländer som misstänkte, att eleverna i deras skolor kanske inte skulle svara helt ärligt på frågorna om de inte måste sätta sitt namn på pappret. Jag tycker personligen inte att sådana farhågor är befogade för de svenska elevernas del. Vill någon fylla i namnet, går det naturligtvis bra. Jag vill bara göra det helt klart att den informationen i så fall inte kommer att tas med i databehandlingen av materialet.

Den centrala databehandlingen utförs av Tilburgs universitet i Holland, som också står som samordnare för projektet. Det arbetet kommer att utföras under oktober månad, så tyvärr ligger Göteborg p.g.a. oförutsedda omständigheter lite efter i schemat jämfört med de andra ländernas deltagande städer (Haag, Hamburg, Madrid, Lyon och Bryssel). Trots detta tror jag att det kan gå att få datainsamlingen utförd under mitten av oktober, eller åtminstone till slutet av vecka 43.

Det blir jag själv samt en doktorand här på institutionen som kommer att besöka skolan personligen för att dela ut och samla in formulären. Vi skulle därför vara mycket tacksamma om vi snarast skulle kunna få veta om det finns några dagar under den här tiden då det skulle vara särskilt olämpligt att vi kommer och stör. Beräknad tid som behövs för att svara på frågorna är 15-30 minuter, beroende på elevernas ålder. Behöver någon lärare hjälp med utförandet, ställer vi självfallet upp på det. I så fall behöver vi få besked om det innan vi kommer, så vi kan beräkna extra tid till detta.

Resultaten av undersökningen kommer att presenteras i två rapporter som ingår i projektet. Under våren 2002 ska varje lands resultat publiceras separat i en bok var, som utges på lokalspråket. Rapporten om eleverna i Göteborg kommer alltså att vara skriven på svenska, och varje skola som deltar ska få ett exemplar av boken som ett blygsamt sätt att kompensera för er värdefulla hjälp med undersökningen. Dessutom kommer på hösten 2002 ett större dokument på engelska som sammanställer resultaten från alla deltagarländerna. Där presenteras inte bara den information som ingick i lokalrapporterna, utan jämförelser mellan de olika städerna ska också finnas med.

Preliminär redovisning av resultat från projektet kommer även att göras under två internationella språkkonferenser i höst: en i Rotterdam i slutet av november, och en i Bryssel under december månad, den senare som en avslutning på det internationella språkåret i EU. Jag kommer att delta i dessa konferenser för att personligen kunna redogöra för vad vi funnit om språkanvändningen hos eleverna i Göteborgs skolor.

Stadskansliet i Göteborg har tillstyrkt min ansökan att utföra undersökningen i grundskolorna, men det vore ytterst värdefullt att även kunna räkna med friskolornas samarbete. Kontakta mig gärna här på institutionen för övriga detaljer rörande projektet, och meddela mig snarast, antingen per e-post eller med vanlig post, vilket eller vilka datum vi bör undvika att besöka skolan

Med vänlig hälsning

Lilian Nygren Junkin
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Appendix 4

Letter to school directors

2001-09-20

Till
Rektor i grundskolan

Som del av en pågående undersökning om undervisning av invandrarelever i EU-länder, 'The Multilingual Cities Project', har Göteborg utvalts att representera Sverige – och därmed Norden – och Institutet för svenska som andraspråk, vilken ingår i Institutionen för svenska språket vid Göteborgs universitet, ombetts att utföra undersökningen. Anledningarna till denna förfrågan är dels att Göteborg av olika skäl kan anses vara Sveriges mest mångspråkiga storstad, dels att just Göteborgs universitet utsetts till ett 'European Centre of Excellence'. Denna status har 47 (av 530) lärosäten i EU tilldelats för framstående Europaforskning inom olika områden. Det är alltså ytterst angeläget för kommande internationellt akademiskt samarbete att Göteborgs universitet får tillstånd att göra denna undersökning bland eleverna i Göteborgs skolor.

Undersökningens syfte är att kartlägga vilket/vilka språk som används på något sätt av elever från förskoleklass till årskurs fem eller sex, beroende på vilken stadiindelning skolan i fråga använder. Den omfattar samtliga elever, alltså även dem som kommer från (till synes) enspråkigt svensktalande hem. Att få denna information om den dolda flerspråkighet som med stor sannolikhet finns bland dem som växer upp i Göteborg idag, skulle vara mycket värdefullt för planeringen av såväl språkstödjande åtgärder som utbudet av språkval för eleverna i morgondagens skola.

Universitetslektor Lilian Nygren Junkin vid Institutionen för svenska språket i Göteborg har av professor Inger Lindberg fått i uppdrag att utföra detta för framtidens språkundervisning viktiga projekt och kommer att delge samtliga deltagande skolor resultaten i en bok, som ska utges på svenska under våren 2002. Dessa uppgifter torde utgöra en ypperlig resurs vid uppläggningsplaneringen av undervisningen vid respektive skola. Jag ber er därför att delta i insamlingen av data för undersökningen och tackar på förhand för ert samarbete.

Vänliga hälsningar

Appendix 5

Multicultural policy for Victorian schools

1. Intercultural education

Schools need to ensure that:

- all staff have the opportunity to attend professional development programs targeted at incorporating multicultural perspectives across the curriculum;
- intercultural studies take a whole-school approach, with all staff members being responsible and with regular reports on the area provided to school council;
- the studies include the cultures present in the school population and present a balance of Aboriginal, European – including Anglo-Celtic – Asian, Middle Eastern, African, South American and Pacific Islander cultures;
- the materials used are well-researched and academically interesting and challenging, and are flexible enough to potentially embrace all cultures;
- where units dealing with topics such as ‘racism’ or ‘stereotyping’ are used, they are discussed as part of a well-planned program incorporating other aspects of the curriculum and delivered, or at least acknowledged as significant, by all staff.

2. ESL-provision for students from language backgrounds other than English

Schools need to ensure that ESL provision:

- emphasises ‘second language’ rather than ‘English’, thereby removing the ‘remedial’ taint that can affect ESL programs and the deficit label sometimes applied to the students;
- acknowledges the first-language skills and cultural experiences of the students as assets, and values them as a sound basis for the teaching and learning of English;
- helps ESL learners access the mainstream curriculum and achieve the educational goals of all students;
- ensures that multicultural perspectives are included in the content;
- is combined wherever possible with continuing concept development in their first language for young students with little or no English, to enable them to develop conceptually with their peers;
- is designed to provide for the needs of all students from language backgrounds other than English - Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander students, Auslan signers, recent arrivals, less recent arrivals and those students born in Australia to parents from language backgrounds other than English. The ESL needs of this latter group may in some instances overlap, but should not be confused with those of students requiring remedial assistance. The varying needs of groups of ESL learners may not be easily identified but strategies need to be put in place to ensure that they are.

3. LOTE-provision for all students

Schools need to ensure that:

- multicultural perspectives are included in the content of the provision;
- the culture of the target language is explored in depth – both in the LOTE classes and across other curriculum areas;
- all languages represented in the Victorian community are valued and that the perceived emphasis on so-called languages of economic importance is seen as part of Victoria’s balanced policy on languages, and in the context of remedying a long-term under-provision of Asian languages in Victorian schools;
- LOTE programs deal with other cultures – as well as that of the LOTE being studied – accurately, analytically and in a culturally sensitive, non-stereotypical way. This is particularly important in bilingual programs where other curriculum areas are taught in and through the LOTE.

The Multilingualism in Göteborg report is part of the *Multilingual Cities Project*, which was carried out in six EU countries, each being represented by one city, beginning in 2001, the European Year of Languages. In Sweden, the city of Göteborg participated in this investigation, with all school children aged 6 to 12 years being the target group. These pupils, who attended public as well as independent schools in the municipality of Göteborg, were surveyed in the autumn and early winter of the academic year 2001/2002. Around 60% of all children in the target group took part in the study, while as many as 80% of the public schools decided to participate in the project.

The results point to a higher than expected proportion of the children, compared to school data, reporting the use of at least one language other than Swedish in the home, exclusively or together with Swedish. An additional outcome of the investigation is that the languages offered to majority language children as school subjects should perhaps widen in scope to include some non-European languages, usually not taught within the school system except as minority home languages. This curriculum perspective is based on some of the answers provided by the pupils that took part in the *Multilingual Cities Project* in Göteborg.