

**Network Governance and Public Policy: Language Planning and
Language Policy in Australia and Greece
within a Globalising Context (1970-2005)**

**A thesis submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy (PhD)**

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DEDICATION

In dedication to my mother and father.

DECLARATION

I certify that except where due acknowledgements has been made, the work is that of the author alone; the work has not been submitted previously, in whole or in part, to qualify for any other academic award; the content of the thesis is the result of work which has been carried out since the official commencement date of the approved research program; any editorial work, paid or unpaid, carried out by a third party is acknowledged; and, ethics procedures and guidelines have been followed.

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Konstantinos Tripolitakis

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In Melbourne, Australia, on 31 March 2010

Konstantinos Tripolitakis

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ABBREVIATIONS

AACLAME	Australian Council on Languages and Multicultural Education
ABS	Australian Bureau of Statistics
ACT	Australian Capital Territory
AEAC	Australian Ethnic Affairs Council
AGPS	Australian Government Publishing Service
AIMA	Australia Institute of Multicultural Affairs
ALLP	Australian Language and Literacy Policy
ANAO	Australian National Audit Office
APS	Australian Public Service
CHOMI	Clearing House of Migration Issues
CLOTEs	Community Languages Other than English
CMEP	Child Migrant Education Program
COAG	Council of Australian Governments
CSF II	Curriculum and Standards Framework
CURASS	Curriculum and Assessment Committee
DET	Department of Education and Training
DFAT	Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade
ESL	English as a Second Language
ETHNIC SCHOOLS	After-hours Language Classes Provided by Ethnic Community Groups and Individuals
GFL	Greek Foreign Language
ICT	Information and Communication Technologies
IDC	Interdepartmental Committee
IPODE	Institute of Multicultural Education and Education Abroad
IT	Information Technology
KEME	Centre for Educational Projects and Professional Developments
KLAs	Key Learning Areas
LEP	Limited English Proficient
LOTE	Languages other than English
MACME	Ministerial Advisory Committee on Multicultural and Migrant Education
MCEETYA	Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs
N	Praxis No of Document Held in Archives of the Greek Department of Education

NACCMME	National Advisory and Coordinating Committee for Multicultural Education
NALSAS	National Asian Languages and Studies in Australian Schools
NEP	Non English Proficient
NESB	Non English Speaking Background
NLLIA	National Languages and Literacy Institute of Australia
NLP	National Language Policy
NMAC	National Multicultural Advisory Council
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OEDB	Press for Textbook Publication-The Government Agency within the Greek Department of Education Responsible for the Publication of all School Textbooks
PD	Presidential Decree
PEKADE	Pan-Hellenic Teachers' Association for English
PI	Pedagogical Institute
SSCEA	Senate Standing Committee on Education and the Arts
TITLE	Title of Relevant Language Education Thematic Document found in each Praxis
VBS	Victorian Board of Studies
VCAA	Curriculum and Assessment Authority
VSL	Victorian School of Languages
WMR	Western Metropolitan Region
Y	Year of Praxis Document
YPEPTH	Greek National Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs

GLOSSARY

Actors	People with the power and authority to make language-related decisions for groups, often with little or no consultation with the ultimate language learners and users.
Appropriateness evaluation	Helps decision makers early in the policy cycle decide if a new program is needed, and who should deliver (government or private/community sector) (Bridgman and Davis 2004, 133).
Classical Lyceum (C. L.)	Type of Upper High School.
Commonwealth Government	Commonwealth Government of Australia.
Consultant	Consultant of various subjects including languages at the Greek Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs. Not necessarily unbiased persons.
Consultation	A structured process to seek, and respond to, views about a policy issue from relevant interest groups or individual, or the community generally.
Coordination	The act of ensuring that politics, policy and administration work together.
Corpus planning	Corpus planning can be defined those aspects of language planning (codification, elaboration) which are primarily linguistic and hence internal to language (Kaplan and Baldauf 1997, 38).
Culture	Culture is a complex system of concepts, attitudes, values, beliefs, convention, behaviours, practices, rituals, and lifestyle of the people, who make up a cultural group, as well as the artefacts they produce and the institutions they create.
Curriculum	Opportunities to learn through both the overt and the hidden curriculum and, in fact, include what learners do not have an opportunity to learn because certain matters were not included in the curriculum.
Demotic	The simpler, more commonly form of the Greek diagglossic language in contrast to 'katharevousa'.
Dimotiko	Year 1 – Year 6.
Discussion paper	Document released by government seeking public comment on a matter, traditionally printed on green paper.
Effectiveness evaluation	Helps policy makers assess how well the program's outcomes helped to achieve original policy objectives (Bridgman and

Davis 2004, 133)

Efficiency	Extent to which inputs are minimize for given level of outputs.
Efficiency evaluation	Helps policy makers and program managers answer questions about how well inputs (\$, capital, people) are used to achieve deliver outputs (efficiency) and produce outcomes (cost effectiveness) (Bridgman and Davis 2004, 133).
Texniko Eppaggelmatiko Lykeio (EEL)	Type of upper high school in the 1990s with the following teaching/learning areas/strands: engineering, accounting, geononics, health practice and electrical maintenance.
Eniaio Lyceum (EL)	Type of upper high school in the 1990s with the following teaching learning areas/strands: natural philosophy (students at university level became architects, mathematicians and doctors), speculative masonry (students at university level become teachers, lawyers) and Technological (students at university level became economists).
Eniaio Polykladiko Lykeio (EPL)	Type of upper high school in the 1990s, prior to ‘Techniko Epaggelmatiko Lykeio’ with similar teaching learning areas/strands.
Evaluation	A process for examining the worth of program, by measuring outputs and outcomes, and comparing these with targets (Bridgman and Davis 2004, 130).
Evening Lyceum (NL)	Type of Upper High School
Frontistiria	Foreign Languages Centres
General Lyceum (G L)	Type of Upper High School
Gymnasium	Years 7, 8 and 9-Low High School
Implementation	The process of converting a policy decision into action (Bridgman and Davis 2004, 119).
Intercultural language learning	In intercultural language learning, language, culture, and learning are fundamentally interrelated concepts at a global level.
Interdepartmental committee	Forum in which representatives of several government agencies meet to formulate policy advice or agree on program implementation.
Katharevousa	The more complex form of the Greek diglossic language in contrast to ‘demotic’.
KEME	Centre of Educational Projects and Professional Development for Secondary Education.

Language planning	Language planning is a body of ideas, laws and regulations (language policy), change rules, beliefs, and practices intended to achieve a planned change (or to stop change happening) in the language use in one or more communities (Kaplan, Baldauf 1997, 3).
Lyceum	Years 10, 11 and 12-Upper High School
Meta-evaluation	Helps decisions makers to determine whether evaluations have been conducted consistent with professional standards (impartiality, sensitivity to program environment) (Bridgman and Davis 2004, 133).
Multiculturalism	Multiculturalism is a philosophical position and movement that assumes that the gender, ethnic, racial and cultural diversity of a pluralistic society should be reflected in all of its institutionalized structures but especially in educational institutions, including in their norms and values, curriculum content and staff student profile.
OEDB	Press for Textbook Publication-The Government Agency within the Greek Ministry of Education Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs responsible for the publication of all textbooks.
Optional Textbooks	Elective Institutionalised Foreign Languages' Textbooks.
Outcomes	The impact of a policy decision or program by which program effectiveness can be judged.
Outputs	The product or services produced by a person or program.
Panel for English	English Language Teachers attached to the PI (Pedagogical Institute) writing materials for English curricula.
Panel for French	French Language Teachers attached to the PI writing materials for French curricula.
Panel for German	German Language Teachers attached to the PI writing materials for German Curricula.
Policy analysis	Analysis of a policy problem, designed to state the nature of the problem and lead to options for addressing the issue; or analysis of government's action, designed to discern the underlying policy choices of that government (Bridgman and Davis 2004, 174).
Policy entrepreneurship	Active promotion of a policy idea by a public servant (McKenna, 1999).
Political opportunism	Taking advantage of an unexpected situation to achieve a political goal (McKenna 1999).

Praxis	“Praxis” in this context means official written policy documents held at KEME. from 1978-1989 and at the Pedagogical Institute of the Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs from 1989-2005.
Public Policy	Public policy is how politicians make a difference. Policy is the instrument of governance, the decisions that direct public resources in one direction but not in the other.
Social policy	Policies designed to redress inequities and encourage active participation in the labour market.
Stakeholders	People, or groups, with an interest in the outcomes of decisions or programs.
State Government	Government of States of Australia.
Status planning	Status planning can be defined as those aspects of language planning which reflect primarily social issues and concerns and hence are external to the language(s) being planned. The two status issues which make up the model are <i>language selection</i> and <i>language implementation</i> (Kaplan, Baldauf 1997, 30).
Strategic planning	A process of deciding how an organization’s major goals are to be implemented.
Technical Lyceum (T.L.)	Type of Upper High School.
Textbooks	Compulsory Institutionalised Foreign Languages’ Textbooks.
Unified Lyceum (U.L.)	Type of Upper High School.
White Paper	A White Paper is an authoritative report or guide that often addresses issues and how to solve them. White papers are used to educate readers and help people make decisions.

ABSTRACT

Tripolitakis K. 2010. **Network Governance and Public Policy: Language Planning and Language Policy in Australia and Greece within a Globalising Context (1970-2005)**, PhD Thesis, RMIT University, Melbourne.

This thesis is a study of language planning and language policy in Australia and Greece between 1970 and 2005, in the light of network governability and public policy within a globalised context. How different countries and their governments respond to language education challenges and how they initiate and sustain language planning and policy changes are essential for the population of the country. It is an ongoing challenge. The critical issue that this study examines is how countries, in particular Australia and Greece, organise their public policy arrangements in comparison to one another to give effect to economic and social rationales within a competitive global environment. Accordingly, this study orients its direction towards the recent past and the contemporary period focusing on language education within national, regional and global socio-political and economic contexts, thus encouraging an examination of the influences on decision-making. The key to addressing this critical issue depends on how well Australia and Greece have, each in their specific context, designed planning for language education and implemented and evaluated programs based on the aims and objectives of planning and policy. Furthermore the performance of the respective countries depends on what they can learn from the other's performance in the area of language planning and policy implementation to maintain a global competitive advantage.

The present study is structured around three interrelated research objectives: (a) To document the evolution of language education planning and policy development over the past 35 years in Australia and Greece; (b) To analyse the process of language education policy development over the past 35 years in Australia and Greece within their educational, socio-political and economic contexts at global, national and local levels; and (c) To assess for both Australia and Greece the impact of policy upon practice, and of evaluation upon both policy-planning and practice over the past 35 years. The research draws upon qualitative data of both archival and published documents held by the National Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs in Greece and published data held by the departments of education and training in Australia and Victoria as well as data from interviews conducted both in Australia and Greece. Quantitative data was derived from relevant organisations in both countries. This thesis is organised into nine chapters and provides an overview of the time period under consideration and a detailed account of the various processes shaping the struggle for extending language education.

This thesis is developed into three interconnected elements as follows: firstly, the theoretical and methodological frameworks [Part I (chapters one-three)]; secondly, the documentation of the evolution of language planning and policy in Australia and Greece [Part II (chapters four-seven)]; and thirdly, comparison and conclusions [Part III (chapters eight-nine)]. The first part (chapters one-three) outlines the theoretical and methodological frameworks upon which the thesis is built. It introduces this study's broader queries and then outlines the theoretical perspectives which describe and explore key interrelated concepts regarding language education. It also reviews theoretical perspectives to contextualize the extent and significance of the present research problems and identifies and discusses attempts by others to solve similar problems. In addition, it provides examples and methods they have employed in their attempts. Next, it outlines the research process. The second part (chapters four-seven) documents and critically analyses and assesses the evolution of language education in Australia and Greece from 1970-2005 within a globalised context. The third part (chapters eight-nine) compares and contrasts language planning and language policy in Australia and Greece and then draws out conclusions and implications.

The significant findings of this study for the evolution of language planning and policy in language education in these two countries show that the timing is different but the progression in sequence is similar. In bringing together the research evidence of the networks of governance, this study examined many factors relating to the progression in sequence of events and arrangements; it identified numerous complexities of language planning and language policy in Australia and Greece. Although this study shows that it is difficult to conduct a succinct analysis for such a long period, the similarity in the overall progression in sequence of events and arrangements can be established. A significant finding of this study shows that the impact of policy upon practice is often symbolic in content, similarly its implementation has also been symbolic and at times, it was reduced to symbolic acts. The thesis documents that the current situations in Australia and Greece have taken many years, or a few decades, to develop, and thus, not surprisingly, takes into account the ongoing interplay between a variety of complexities for years ahead paving the path for potential solutions in each country's national and specific context.

The thesis found that language planning and language policy are always connected with economic and socio-political ideals as well as nationalism. The prevailing language planning and policy depends upon specific historical and situational factors at particular moments. This study found that there is no general model for language planning and language policy across the decades or under all circumstances. The general and overall language planning and language policy of the respective countries, in each particular situation, mirrored their specific context in specific historical times. It also identified that the sequence in the evolution of language planning and policy development in these two countries is similar, even if the timing is different. In many countries, the economic and social rationales advocated similar language

planning and language policy, however various ongoing challenges posed by different educational, socio-political and economic objectives resulted in different influences shaping contemporary language planning and policy.

It also found that the difference in sociolinguistic contexts of Australia and Greece as a result of population movements impacted on language policy and practice. The situation in Greece of second language education is typical of many non-English-speaking countries whose national language is only spoken nationally and among its diasporas. Both countries have aspired to be monolingual in the past, but how far they will transform towards multilingualism remains unpredictable. The internationalisation of English and the emergence of different forms of global Englishes have different and opposing impacts in the two countries. Finally, language policy processes were similar in both countries in the way they were driven by government action, regulation and legislation. There was however, discrepancies regarding how immigrant community pressure was exercised.

CHAPTER ONE

LANGUAGE PLANNING AND LANGUAGE POLICY IN NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL GOVERNANCE

1.1 Introduction

At the beginning of the globalising 21st century, what form should language planning and language policy take in individual countries together with policy implementation and program evaluation? How should governments respond to satisfy all groups in plurilingual societies and address national needs and aspirations in their diasporic and international contexts? How can all languages be treated equally, given the changes within the contexts of economic globalisation, geopolitical conflict and warfare, resurgent nationalism, emergent issues around and the spatial redistribution of wealth and privilege, the identity politics of racism and religious intolerance and the internationalisation of English? What curriculum aims and content should inform language programs? What texts and discourses, literacy practices, and events will be codified and transmitted in schools? In whose interests and with what consequences?

Language planning and language policy have always been important, but never more than today. Language planning and policy are widely regarded as serving social, economic, professional and personal needs (Galan 2000; Camenson 2001; Ricento 2006). The objectives of these needs may vary when viewed from inter-related local, state, national, international and diasporic perspectives in a changing world characterised by rising interdependence (Trimnell 2005; Pauwels 2007; Extra 2007; Cahill 2009). With globalisation and modernisation, the needs of the state and the nation relate to both domestic and overseas commercial opportunities to benefit a country's future economic progress in the global marketplace. Over the last two decades, all fields of human endeavour have been impacted by the phenomenon of globalisation (Cahill 2005). Its impact and its various ramifications, namely the growth of migration within countries and across continents, world trade, tourism and the work of non-governmental organisations (NGOs) have all begun to change attitudes regarding language planning which varies significantly from country to county (Pries 2004; Leslie and Russel 2006).

Both language planning and policy have historically been national-oriented while current international trends such as transnational movements and linguistic diversity are global in scope (Al-Ali and Koser 2002; Pauwels 2007; Cahill 2009). The ongoing impact of globalisation has generated linguistic diversity

as an issue for all nation states in international and local settings, developing different governance and management as well as regulation practices of diversity (Simonsen 2009, Biseth 2009 and Anderson 2005). Rising ongoing competition between languages, within and across regions, the various status and hierarchy of languages on a global scale, the promotion of and domination by major international languages and an irrevocable loss of low status languages as well as the challenges of the rising interdependence for all languages vary from geographical region to region (Fodor and Peluau 2003; Maurais 2003; Truchot 2003; Ricento 2006; Garcia 2009). However, Annamalai (1980; 1986) and Peter and Li (2007) accept the notion that multilingualism is an obstacle and a barrier to democracy that must be overcome.

The period from the mid-1980s to 2009 has seen an expansion in studies examining the role of English as a global language and the impact of this development on “the status, function and sometimes survival of other languages in the world” (Pauwels 2007, 2). The resulting hierarchy of the major languages encompasses a number of key issues affecting the new global linguistic order as well as the linguistic diversity and the fate and use of lesser languages (Maurais and Morris 2003; Graddol 2004; Dendrinou 2004). The world is diversified, interconnected and multilingual. Despite some perceptions of the emergence of a homogenised global village, communication between people is conducted in a multitude of languages (Tange 2009; Tange and Luring 2009). In a period of turbulent global change, the strategists of languages have continued both to defending the old national linguistic monopolies and to seeking to establish new ones. Developments in information technologies, global communication challenges characterised by rising interdependence and progress in the second generation digital technologies have assisted some languages in their revival (Danet and Herring 2007). On a global scale, the shift of knowledge into becoming a commodity (Rahman 2009), including languages (e.g. translation and interpretation costs for the EU), has led many organizations to revise their attitudes to knowledge creation (Holz 1979; Janssens et al. 2003; Cronin 2003; Grin 1996, 2006).

In a macro sense, language planning and policy education (language-in-education affects only the education sector) is an aspect of national resource development to achieve a desired public policy outcome in a global context. The future of both major and lesser languages is very uncertain. There is a need for a reliable prediction model to reflect the multidimensional and multifunctional nature of language dynamics in local, national and global contexts (Tonkin 2003; Pang 2005; Adamson and Feng 2009). Worldwide developments (e.g. global movements, and ‘global’ terrorism) as well as regional trends (e.g. the expansion of the EU, the demise of the Soviet Union) constitute the most important factors affecting languages’ management and communication issues and problems (Pauwels 2007). Traditionally, language planning and language policy have historically been nationally anchored whereas current issues are usually global and/or regional in scope.

In the nation-state, the term 'nation' refers to feelings of identity, interpersonal attachments and public sentiment, that is, to the psychology of belonging and mutual loyalty, whereas 'state' refers to the activity of administration and formal authority. In Enloe (1981), these two realms, identity and authority, are represented as two axes aligned vertically and horizontally, and it is at this intersection where the specific characteristics of an individual state can be determined. According to Enloe, (1981) the state is the *vertical* structure of public authority in contrast with the nation which is essentially a *horizontal* network of trust and identity (Edwards 1985; Nieto 2004; Carter and Sealey 2007; Dorleijn and Nortier 2008).

Language and languages played specific differentiated roles in different nation-states and their nationalism ideologies. According to Fishman (1968; 1972), as a component of nationalism, language can be understood under three headings: *authenticity* (sense of genuine difference that nations seek), *unification* (distinctive language to unite disparate parts of a national population) and *efficiency* (refers to the practices of the state). "However, there are many states in the world that are clearly based on different nationalisms (Hastings 1997) but that use the same language, such as the 22 Spanish-speaking countries and a similar number that use Arabic" (Lo Bianco 2007, 85). The role, therefore, of language in nationalism is located in situated and historical conditions of the creation of the specific nation (Greenfeld 1992; Kollopoulos and Veremis 2002). A common and distinctive national language might be a useful resource for creating/furthering nationalism, and often a defining quality of an ethnicity, but it is clearly not sufficient in all cases and in some cases it is not necessary. Language can range from a power to define and give cohesion to identities to any number of historically grounded and therefore unique ingredients of the way in which language articulates and sustains nationalist claims (Lo Bianco 1997, 2007).

This comparative study of language planning and language policy in Australia and Greece aims to suggest how such a comparison can help yield insights for situations elsewhere. In a historical sense, comparing Greece with Australia constitute an unlikely pair of countries. Australia has a fairly short history to rely on, whereas the thousand-year old Greek history has created deeper common national roots that the Australians have not had time to set. This is not a negative observation, but a critical point regarding the potential influence on what is being researched in this thesis. However, the two broad factors, globalisation and the shared Europeanist ideology of one-nation one-language (Haarman 1990, 1995), constitute grounds for comparison between Australia and Greece. A comparison of Australia and Greece has a good theoretical base because the relationship between monolingualism and multiculturalism that Australia and Greece share, the historical interactions between Greek community activism and language policy development in Australia, as well as the role of English language and its internationalization, make for a theoretically interesting context to be researched.

This research aims at investigating two issues:

Firstly, how well have Australia and Greece, each in its specific geopolitical (global and local), historical, sociolinguistic (national and local), socio-cultural, political and educational contexts, designed second language education over the past thirty five years?

Secondly, what can each country and, by extension, other countries learn from the other's performance in policy development, policy implementation and program evaluation regarding second language education?

These broad questions are not easily answered. Using them, this study was undertaken for both Australia and Greece. The attempt, on the one hand, was to use empirical evidence from Australia's multicultural experience to benefit Greek language in-education planning and policy and on the other hand, to use Greece's experience in teaching traditional world languages to benefit Australia's language education program. As Greece is a developing multicultural country direct benefits may include the implementation of specific recommendations regarding language planning, policy implementation and program evaluation based on the experience of Australia. The present research study will document, analyse and assess the evolution of language planning and policy in-education over the past 35 years in both countries using both archival and published documents data and interviews. This particular time period (1970-2005) was chosen because, in both the countries of Australia and Greece, apart from the context of economic globalization, geopolitical conflict and warfare, the identity politics of racism and the internationalization of English from the early 70s, the policies of multiculturalism and '*dimotiki*' language education were applied at the same time (in the early-mid 70s) in these two countries respectively and because archival documents are, up to 2005, available to the public in Greece.

1.2 Thesis Plan

This thesis is divided in three interrelated parts. Part I outlines the theoretical and methodological frameworks (chapters 1-3). Part II documents the evolution of language planning and policy in Australia and Greece (chapters 4-7). Part III consists of the comparison and the concluding remarks (chapter 8).

The first part presents the theoretical and methodological frameworks upon which the thesis has been built. Chapter one commences with an overview of the study's broader questions in the form of a brief introduction to then move into providing the theoretical scaffold which defines and explores key interrelated concepts regarding public policy and language education planning and policy in a globalising world via selected theoretical contributions. Following a brief overview sketching the geopolitical and sociolinguistic contexts of both Australia and Greece, it gives attention to their historical legacies. The chapter then canvasses a brief description of the sociopolitical and socioeconomic contexts of both countries towards language education policies adopted within their specific contexts. Chapter two presents a comprehensive literature review on language planning and policy serving as a basis in establishing a theoretical framework to define key terms and concepts, and to identify studies, models and case studies defining the present study. The study of a complex phenomenon such as language planning and policy development required a multifaceted research methodology which is outlined in Chapter three.

Part II examines the evolution of language planning and policy development in both countries. Specific focus is placed on the factors that led to language planning and policy development throughout the period between 1970-2005. All chapters focus on the evolution of language education planning/policy and practice over the period in consideration. Major concerns are planning, implementation and evaluation of language programs based on the aims and objectives of the stated policy. The chapters analyse the process of language policy development, assessing, for both Australia and Greece, the impact of policy upon practice and of evaluation upon planning/policy and practice over the period of the last three decades. The major issues discussed are the geopolitical considerations and the range and choice of languages on offer and how they impacted on language planning and policy development which varies according to geographical region. The chapters also analyse language status and how the evolving statuses of languages impact and are impacted by a rapidly changing international order. There is discussion on teacher supply and retention, on student interest and the integration of language and cultural studies into the school curriculum and how these issues impact on and are impacted by the implementation of language planning and policy. The aims of funding programs, the role of new technology and how different objectives of different policies through the years were implemented and achieved in both countries are examined. Overall each chapter in part II highlights the specific historical, social, political and economic contexts.

Part III identifies and compares major issues, trends and practices as well as the similarities and differences in Australian and Greek language planning and policy development. The chapter draws out some generalisations from the cases and suggests some future directions which hopefully will lead to better language planning and policy development processes by governments in future. Finally, the chapter provides implications and future research possibilities in the context of public policy for both Australia and Greece, as part of the development of natural human resources. Prescriptive policies and their effects that relate to the area of teaching and learning languages “are now seen as important objects of political interest and public policy, in which the government is involved to a far greater extent than any time in the past” (Pachler, Evans and Lawes 2007, 9). In this study, language planning/policy is understood as an aspect of national public policy, thus enabling a deeper understanding of the context of public policy.

1.3 Language Planning and Language Policy in the Context of Public Governance

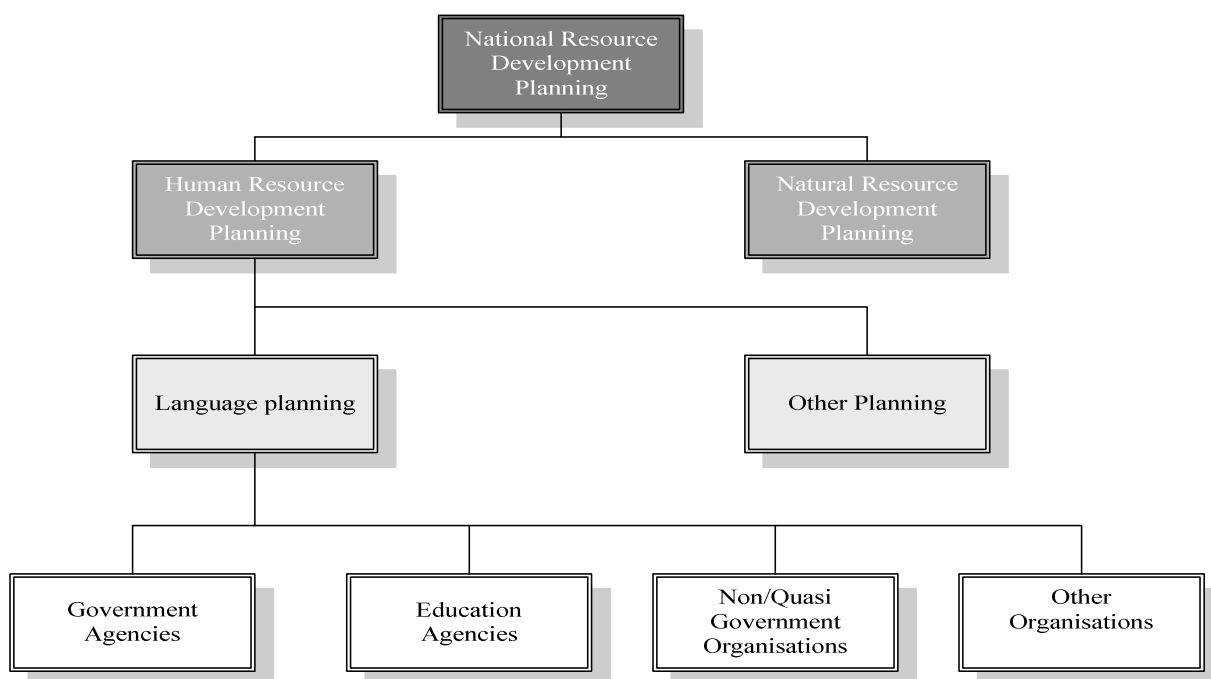
The foundation of this study is based upon network governance and public policy. Governance is defined by the Oxford English Dictionary (1989) as... “[T]he manner in which something is governed or regulated; method of management, system of regulations”. Network governance has a number of definitions offered by various scholars, however the various definitions of network governance focuses around two key concepts; firstly the patterns of interaction in exchanges and relationships and secondly flows of resources between independent units (Candace, Hesterly and Borgatti 1997). Network governance is frequently used to describe inter-governmental coordination that is characterised by organic and informal social systems, in contrast to formal bureaucratic structures and formal contractual relationships between governments and organisations (Gerlach, 1992, 64). According to Colebatch (2006) one of the characteristic of “modern governance...is a concern to order...relationships between government and non-government, with government recognising the non-government sector and incorporating it into official channels through community participation, platforms and formal government-community sector partnerships and compacts, raising expectations as well as difficulties on both sides” (p. 48).

Embedded within the research study, as part of national public policy (Fenna 1998) development, are a number of concepts that need some preliminary describing. Colebatch (1993, 1998) has stated that public policy is about what governments do, why, and with what consequences. Governments pursue their objectives by implementing policy through three main activities: 1) ‘legislative’ or the making of laws 2) ‘executive’ or the ‘administration’ 3) ‘judicial’, or the application and interpretation of the law (Thompson and Tillotsen 1999; Matheson 2000). Furthermore Colebatch (1998, 39) usefully distinguishes between the ‘vertical’ and ‘horizontal’ dimensions. The role of broader ‘economic’, ‘social’ and ‘political’ contexts and how a problem is located within that shows both the value of carefully choosing ‘organisational

processes' and 'structure', as well as 'key players', and the value of their 'networks' (politics, academics and media) (Nagel 2000; Vardon 2000; Anderson 2005).

In this thesis, the term “language planning” is used with the following meaning: “a body of ideas, laws and regulations (language policy), change rules, beliefs, and practices intended to achieve a planned change (or to stop change from happening) in language use in one or more communities” (Kaplan and Baldauf (1997, 3). Vries (1990) suggests that “language policy” is the implementation of “language planning”. Language planning can be seen working within four basic areas: a) governmental agencies; b) education agencies c) quasi/non-governmental organisations; and d) all sorts of other groups (Kaplan and Baldauf 1997, 5), (see Figure 1.1).

Figure 1.1: Context of Language Planning and Language Policy in the Context of Public Governance

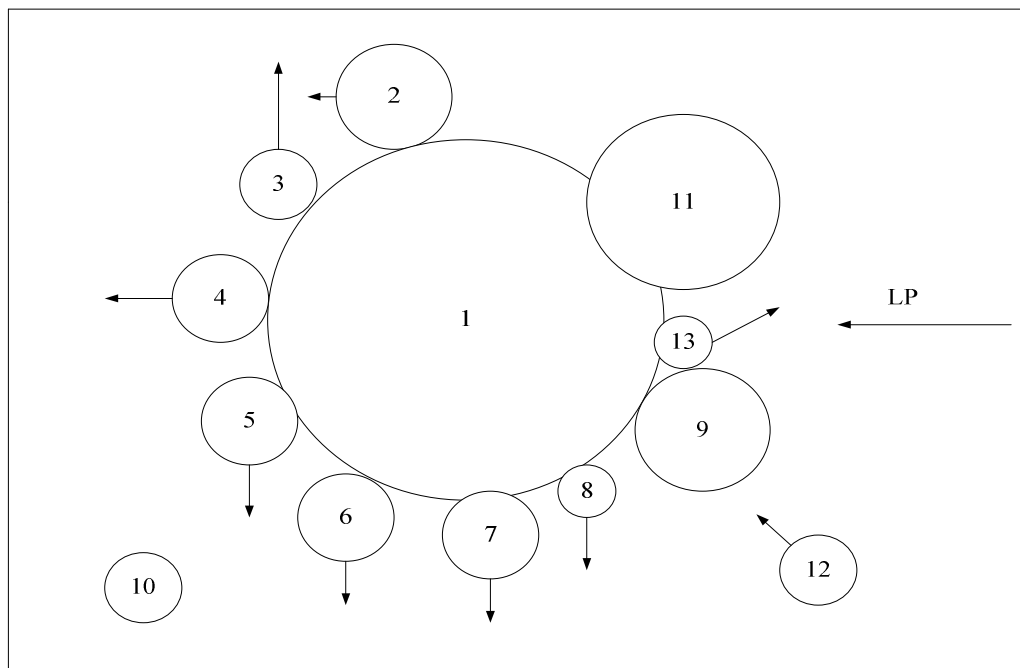


According to McKenna (1999), mechanisms such as ‘political opportunism’ (taking advantage of an unexpected situation to achieve political goals) and ‘policy entrepreneurship’ (an active promotion of a policy idea by a public servant) are forever present. Edwards (2001) outlines three key coordinating domains; a key leadership (Cobertt 1996; Goldsworthy 2002) task is to bring the domains into alignment toward shared goals: a) ‘politics’; b) ‘policy’ and c) ‘administration’. Not surprisingly, according to Bridgman and Davis (2004), governance requires coordination across each of the political, policy and administrative domains. The present study documents what both Australian and Greek governments did, why they did it and with what consequences.

With regards to a historical analysis of the data, the following aspects were brought into play. Ruiz's (1984) typology of three common 'orientations' to language (a) as a problem; (b) as a right; and (c) as a resource both individual and communal resource (Annamalai 1980). Skutnabb-Kangas (2006) proposes 'linguistic human rights' as 'negative' to refer to the right not to be discriminated against on the basis of language and as 'positive' to refer to the maintenance and development of identity through language. Four possible language ideologies (Keesing 1990) were developed by Cobarrubias (1983), namely: a) assimilation; b) pluralism (Berbier 2004); c) vernacularisation of an indigenous language; and d) internationalisation through the use of a language of wider communication. Language policy efforts, according to Ricento (2006) have turned to making the power of discourse that reflects different ideologies evident. The notion of language education planning affects only the education sector (Kaplan and Baldauf 1997) and its implementation relates to five issues: a) curriculum policy (Wicksteed 2005); b) personnel policy; c) materials policy; d) community policy; and e) evaluation policy (Noss 1985; Grin 2003).

Critical issues and their terms, central to language planning and language status for social, economic and political ends, such as 'class' (those in social control able to decide) 'state' (to use language to serve internal and external political ends) and 'agency power' (Bruthiaux 1992; Evans and Gruba 2007) were used to document the data. In any given linguistic environment (see Figure 1.2) 'political' (matters of control), 'linguistic' (scientific) and 'social' (some notion of social justice) objectives may be flying off in quite different directions and degrees of intensity (Lo Bianco 2001, 2003; Calvet 1998; Kaplan and Baldauf 1997, 2009). Kaplan's and Baldauf's (1997) schematic view of a national language planning situation as shown in Figure 1.2 helped to conceptualise data analysis. Figure 1.2 gives an example of one national/official language (1), one religious (7), eight minorities (2-8, 13), a language spoken in a neighbouring polity (9), classical/historical languages (10) and a language revival in progress (12).

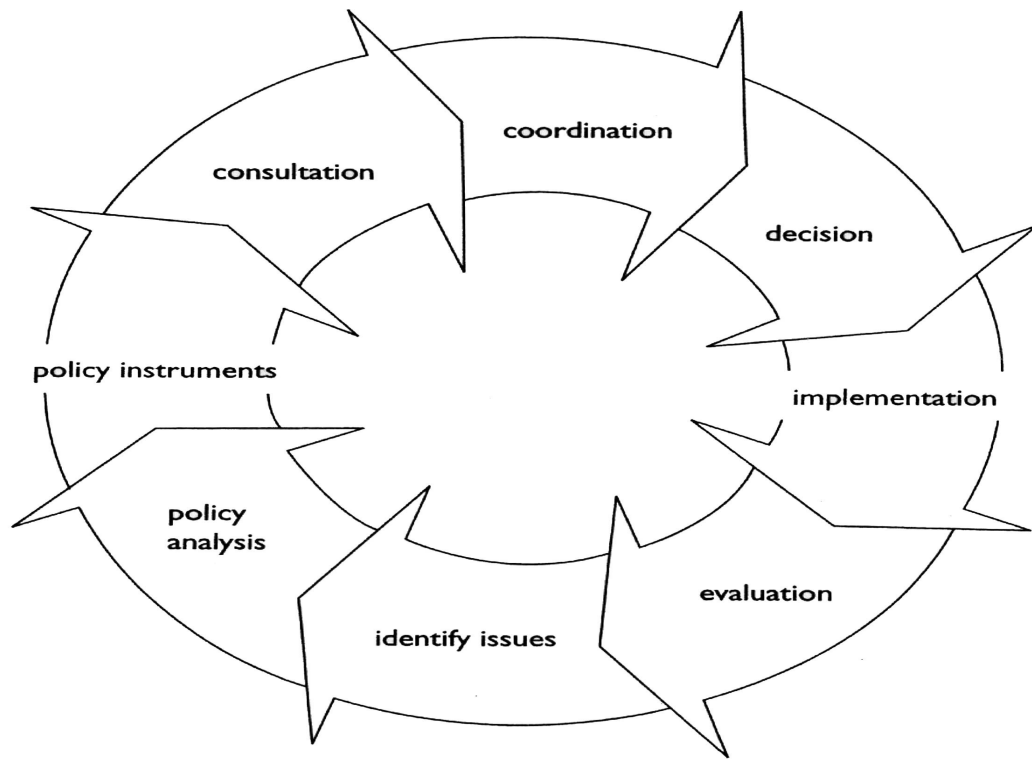
Figure 1.2: A Schematic View of a National or Regional Language Planning Situation



Source: Kaplan and Baldauf (1997, 270).

In the policy development context, a rigorous approach commonly referred to as ‘policy cycle’ (Bridgman and Davis 2004) can be used to understand and structure policy. While policy making can be represented in many ways, the Australian experience suggests a ‘policy cycle’ (see Figure 1.3) as follows: (identify issues, policy analysis, policy instruments, consultation, coordination, decision, implementation, evaluation) (Bridgman and Davis 2004, 26).

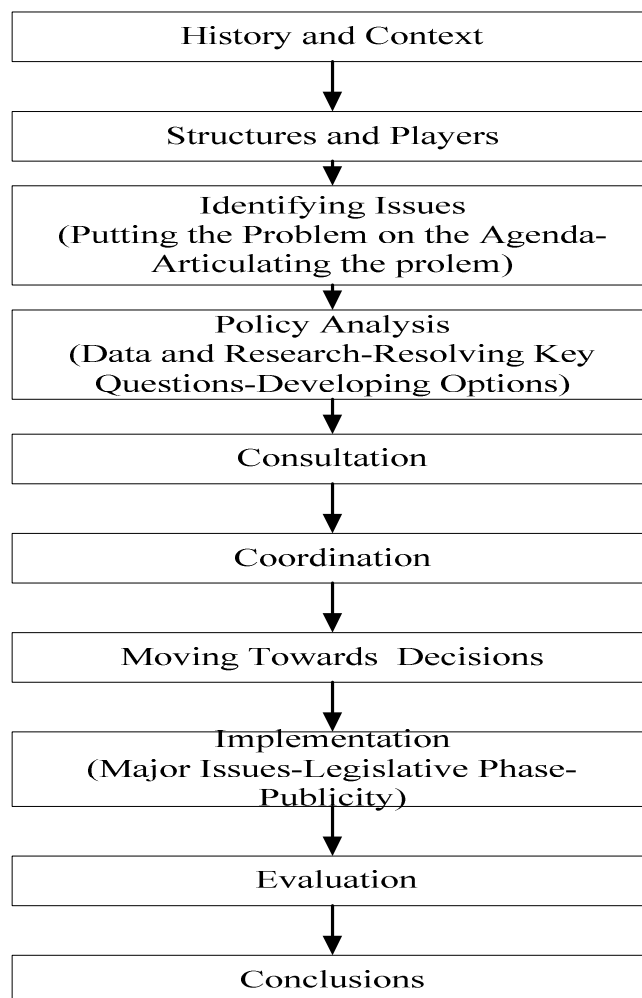
Figure 1.3: The Australian Policy Cycle



The Australian policy cycle

Edwards (2001) also effectively describes policy making in clear and identifiable steps (see Figure 1.4) as follows: (i) history and context, (ii) structures and players, (iii) identifying the issues (putting the problem on the agenda, articulating the problem), (iv) policy analysis (data and research, resolving key questions, developing options), (v) consultation, (vi) coordination, (vii) implementation (major issues, the legislative phase, and publicity), (viii) evaluation and (ix) conclusions.

Figure 1.4: Framework for Policy Development

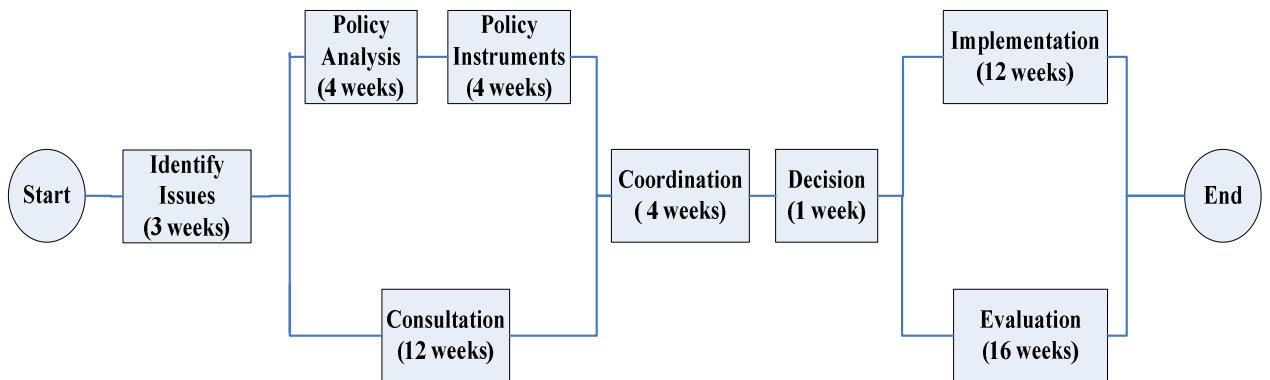


Source: Edwards (2001, 4).

Likewise, administrative, economic, social and political involvements sometimes cause many 'complexities'. One of the complexities could be 'policy instruments' (to achieve policy objectives) which are the following: a) Advocacy-arguing a case b) money-using spending (Grin 2006, 2007) and taxing powers c) government action-delivering services and d) law-using legislative power (Bridgman and Davis 2004, 69). In the policy process, a noticeable and complex issue is the so-called 'policy dance' (forwards and backwards) which is sometimes seen as seemingly random movements than choreographed order e.g. due to broad recognition among 'stakeholders' that count or for political reasons; 'lobby groups' and 'media' attention follow (Eyestone 1978; Dery 1984; Patton and Sawicki 1993; Anderson 1994; Kingdon 1995; Edwards 2001).

In this thesis, all the above terms, along with the most familiar standard planning tools to sequence activities, allocate resources and budget time (a Gantt chart) were used to document and analyse the data. Figure 1.5 shows a time schedule for the policy development process (Corbett 1996; Shergold 1997; Bridgman and Davis 2004).

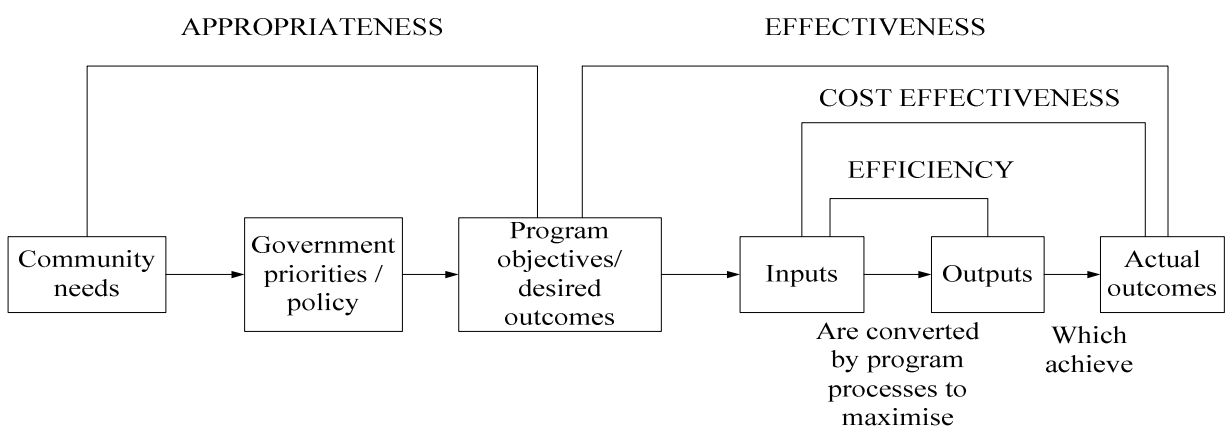
Figure 1.5: The Process of Managing Public Policy (A sample critical path chart)



Source: Bridgman and Davis (2004, 145).

Appropriate evaluation in the policy cycle is another complex issue (Brock, 1995). The following Figure 1.6 displays four evaluation types.

Figure 1.6: Evaluation Types (Australian Department of Finance 1994, 8)



Source: Bridgman and Davis (2004, 133).

‘appropriateness evaluation’ helps decision-makers determine whether a new program is needed, or whether an existing program should be maintained b) ‘efficiency evaluation’ examines how well inputs are used to obtain a given output c) ‘effectiveness evaluation’ asks whether the program is producing worthwhile results and d) finally, ‘meta-evaluation’ assesses the evaluation process itself.

Individual countries opt to use particular languages in the education domain. The fact that individual countries opt to use different languages is not surprising given that their particular contexts and histories impact on their decisions to use particular languages. For example, as late as the early decades of the twentieth century in some European countries (namely Italy, Greece, and Spain) the languages of English, French and German were calibrated in terms of their value in assisting integration within a modern industrial economy. Likewise, Luxembourg, for instance, based its use of language on its national profile resulting in the use of three languages, namely, Letsburgish, French and German. These trends have continued, for example, in the USA, where the most frequently taught second languages are still Spanish, French and German (Grenoble 2003). In Australia the identified rationale behind the value of teaching Asian studies in the late 1980s was that “behind the identified need to teach about Asia and its languages... we are Australians, located in a specific geopolitical environment and linked through trade, migration, investment and tourism...” (Erebus 2002, 6). Currently across the world the rationale behind the use of a particular language(s) is based upon the concepts of interlingualism and plurilingualism which offer alternative visions determining language use and policy, especially since national economies are integrated into the global economy, with the mobility of money and workers, the accelerated technological changes as well as the global use of English (Dendrinos 2004; Garcia 2009).

The important question to be addressed is how do those choices influence and how are they influenced by institutional language policy decision-making? In a few decades, the status of English (Janna 2005; Bolton 2005) in the world has changed, affecting the choice of foreign languages in national educational domains around the world. The study of multilingualism has also started to be shaped by the expanding role of English (e.g. as a major language of education, business and trade). Moreover, there is a necessity of an analysis of the relationship between languages and the commentary on the internationalisation of English.

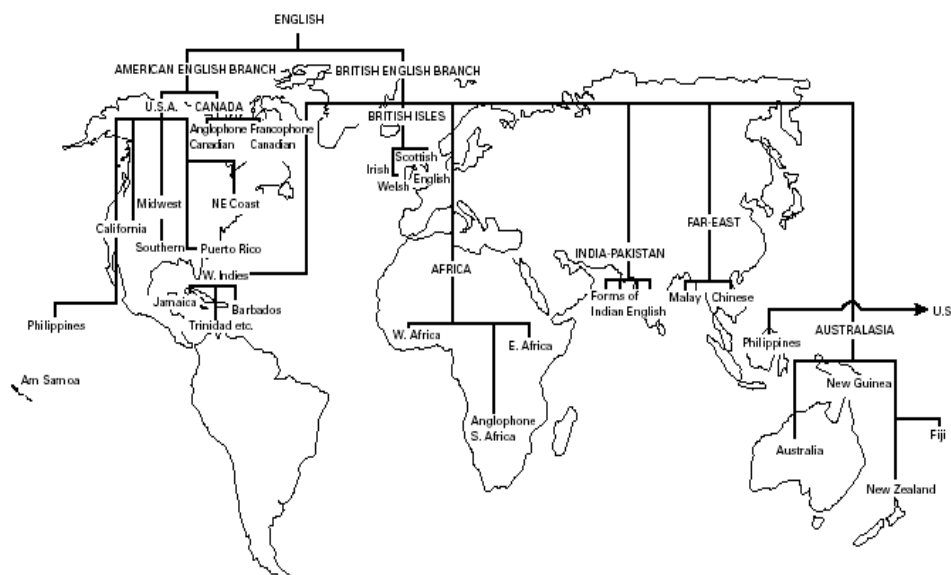
1.4 The Internationalisation of English

World languages are tools for communication between different communities. Chinese, English and Hindi are the languages with the most mother-tongue speakers. However, world language status has little to do with the number of native speakers (Graddol 1997, 2004; Nettle and Romaine 2000). One core question here is: Must language planning and policy in individual countries consider the internationalisation of English and the emergence of many forms of English? Other questions raised with this issue are the

following: Which events impact or are impacting on the continuing spread of English? Will other traditionally ‘large’ languages, such as French and Chinese, gain or lose influence? Will other languages, present or future, increase their international status, thus affecting linguistic patterns? If yes, which are they? Are the varieties of the English language and their respective cultures being altered, developed, reinterpreted and reclaimed?

As the above questions suggest, languages, including English, are widely regarded as serving individual and societal needs with varying objectives, when viewed from several interconnected international, regional, national, state and mostly local perspectives in a rapidly changing world. As Brutt-Griffler (2002; 2005) has pointed out, four features are typical of a world language: 1. The language has both an economic and a cultural role in the world community; 2. It is not only a language of the elite; 3. It establishes itself alongside other languages in multilingual contexts and 4. It does not spread by speaker migration but by macro-acquisition in countries where it is spoken as a foreign or second language. Socio-historically, ‘languages of wider communication’ have been interconnected with aspirations for modernisation and economic development (Williams 1994, 127). Crystal (2006; 2010) argues that the present status of English is due to its geographical-historical contexts and socio-cultural reasons. The oldest model of the spread of English has been developed by Stevrens (1980), (see Figure 1.7).

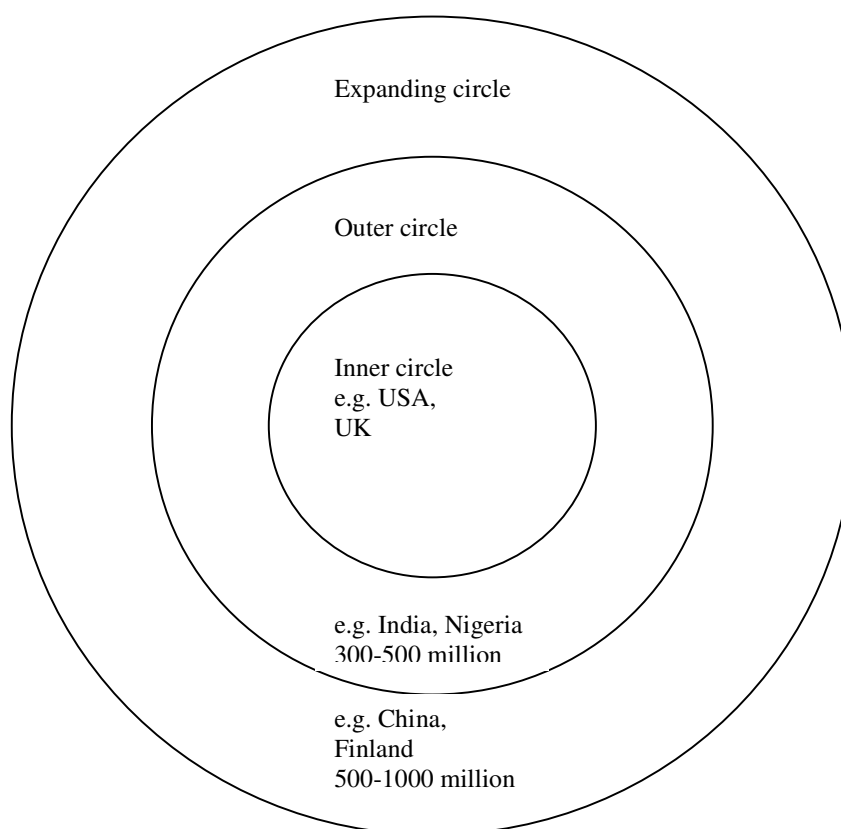
Figure 1.7: Stevren’s World Map of English (Stevens 1980)



In 1985 Kachru introduced another influential model of the spread of English (see Figure 1.8). The model consists of three circles: i) The ‘inner circle’ referring to native speakers of English; ii) The ‘outer circle’

where English gained the status of an official language in the colonialist period, and iii) The ‘expanding circle’ where English is spoken as a foreign language. According to Crystal’s (2003, 107) estimate from 2003, the inner circle has 320-380 million speakers, and the outer circle 300-500 million speakers, whereas the total number of speakers in the expanding circle is now 500-1000 million and is increasing constantly.

Figure 1.8: Kachru’s three Circles of English (Kachru 1985).



In the last two decades, scholars have taken different positions of the role of English ranging from “linguistic imperialism” (Kachru 1985; Fishman 1989; Phillipson 1988, 1997; Pool and Fettes 1998; Dendrinos 2002; Kirkpatrick 2007) and ‘linguistic hegemony’ (Pennycook 1994, 1998; Macedo Dendrinos and Gounari 2003; Hamel 2003) to a belief that English was incidental to the process (Crystal 1997). Pennycook (2003) points out three arguments for marketing English; a) the spread of English was and remains unavoidable; b) the English language is culturally and ideologically neutral; c) English proficiency is an essential employment skill. Pennycook (1994, 24) rightly observes that “it is to take a rather naively optimistic position on global relations to ignore the relationship between English and inequitable distribution and flows of wealth, resources, culture and knowledge”. Meanwhile, other

scholars suggest that linguistic imperialism is irrelevant (Brutt-Griffer 2002; Rajagopalan 2004). The latter criticises Phillipson (1992, 73) by saying that it is impossible to have a speech community without any politics of power.

Neuner (2002, 7) makes the important point that English has adopted the function of *lingua franca* of internationalisation and is “likely to retain it for the next decades”. Three aspects, according to him, contribute to the attraction of English and the worldwide motivation for learning English: a) its marketplace value: it obviously pays to learn English (for private and professional purposes); b) its simplicity in grammatical structure and the ease with which it can be learnt, at least at an elementary level; c) its status: for many people the use of English is often associated with participation in wealth and progress. English is therefore unlike other languages in its status: it is not a ‘foreign’ or ‘second’ language in its symbolic function (ibid 7).

According to McKay (2002) and Kaplan (2007, 22-3) it is not the English language itself which is the culprit, but global communication, the western-dominated mass media and those who put forward negative images of local varieties. Neuner (2002), McKay (2002), and Migge and Leglise (2007) have suggested that the leading role of English is a consequence of British colonialism in the past and the present dominant position of the United States, strengthening its position as the language of international affairs (political, economic, scientific, and cultural) as well as its expansion through the development of the mass communication media (satellite TV; internet), (Crystal 1997; Dannet and Herring 2007; Graddol 2006). According to Pauwels (2007) if English continues its ascendancy as the global *lingua franca*, we may see a steep increase in the study of English as a second or foreign language, possibly impacting on the study of other languages, the study of multilingualism (Pool and Fettes 1998) and linguistic diversity (Barton 1994) as well as language policy. A critical look at the internationalisation of English will reveal, among many other negative consequences, the globalisation of technocratic practices and the production of techno-culture artefacts and subjects (Dendrinos 2004).

Figures confirm (Euro-Barometer) the dominance of English as the leading first foreign language studied in Europe (32 per cent): “this is far ahead of other languages such as French, German, Spanish and Italian ...If English continues to dominate in the category of first foreign language studied and the number of students taking up a second foreign language remains low, then there is no doubt that the multilingual profile and capacity of Europe will suffer” (Pauwels, 2007, 7). Boyd (2007) noted that English in Sweden was encroaching on the Swedish language function formerly reserved for Swedish. In Norway, Denmark and the Netherlands, similar feelings exist about English risking the status of national languages (Bull 2007). According to Pauwels “there is clearly a need...to study the extent of this ‘intrusion’ of English

and its possible consequences not only of the national majority language, but also for the other languages spoken in a country” (2007, 8).

In 2001, 2.214 billion people in 75 different countries were continually exposed to English (Crystal 2003). According to Tochon (2009) English is becoming the international language, along with the top oral languages above 100 million speakers: Chinese, Spanish, Hindi/Urdu, Arabic, Portuguese, Russian, Turkic, Bengali, Japanese, French and German. Graddol (2006, 14) estimated that, “by 2010-2015, two billion people, a third of the entire human population, will be learning English”. Furthermore, Nieto (2002) portrays the power of English and how it is sometimes viewed as the only necessary tool for success. In 2008 the CIA World Fact Book estimated that 4.68 per cent of the world’s population speaks English as their first language. About an additional 10 per cent (twice the above percentage of speakers) use English as their second or third language. According to Davidson (2008), English teaching is of poor quality in many countries, as reported in numerous studies by TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) researchers, and it rarely produces lasting results, all of which led the major TESOL association to write *Teacher Quality in the Field of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages* in 2003 and publish its *Standards for Teachers of Adult Learners* in 2008.

With a particular focus on the way in which English is emerging as an interlanguage of a United Europe, Adriana and Ovidiu (2007) examined the impact upon the business environment. They concluded that: 1. (Business) English is the lingua franca of the European Union and of the world; 2. Linguistic competence in an enlarged Europe means knowledge both of English and at least another European language; 3. The dominance of English has several economic effects; 4. English dominance is an ongoing process that currently cannot and should not be stopped (ibid, 998). In 2000, the Nuffield Inquiry argued that “we are fortunate to speak a global language, but in a smart and competitive world, exclusive reliance on English leaves [us] vulnerable and dependent on the linguistic competence and goodwill of others” (p. 6). According to Shohamy (2006), English can be enforced, as other languages have been and are being imposed elsewhere in multiple ways. By drawing on projects in India and various countries that provide Internet access to street children, Warschauer (2004) indicated what an outstanding incentive the Internet represents for children to become fluent in English, thereby increasing their linguistic and social capital. The strategic push toward English (Rothkopf, 1997, 2008) as the world language is obvious: “It is in the economic and political interests of the USA to ensure that if the world is moving toward a common language, it be English” (1997, 42). Globalisation and the spread of English have raised concerns about Western economic, political, cultural and linguistic hegemony over the rest of the world (Edge 2006).

In the era of globalisation, education systems have struggled to address the challenges of cultural, linguistic and religious diversity of students as well as the longstanding diasporic communities. The

legacies of these efforts are ongoing debates of cultural assimilation or pluralism within the contexts of geopolitical conflict and warfare, resurgent nationalism, emergent issues around economic globalisation and the “spatial redistribution” of wealth and privilege and the politics of racism and religious intolerance, as well as by the emergence of “digital technologies” or “the democratization of technology” (Esman 1977; May 2001; Papaefthymiou-Lytra 2004). In what follows, the Australian and Greek geopolitical and sociolinguistic context are considered. The next section provides an overview of Australia’s geopolitical and sociolinguistic context.

1.5 Geopolitical and Sociolinguistic Context of Australia and Victoria

Australia’s location in the Asia-Pacific region immediately implies learning and communicating in Asian languages other than English. Its history of post-WWII migration, together with the Aboriginal presences has resulted in a linguistically diverse Australia (Gee 1991; Kipp and Clyne 2003; Kipp 2007) with more than 150 non-English languages and 80 active Aboriginal languages. Australia’s sociolinguistic profile of nearly three decades continues to change with the continuing, though declining, presence of language communities established in the immediate post-WWII period and the simultaneous ongoing diversification of source migration countries, as well as with the intergenerational transmission of languages. Many waves of migrants came to Australia with the intention of being as far as possible from the political regimes from which they had escaped or from unjust regimes which had discriminated against or persecuted them. Access to data documenting the linguistic diversity of a particular entity, region or community is fundamental to any examination of the sociolinguistic context (Fasold 1984), and subsequent planning or policy initiatives. Because the home language question was not included in the census until 1976 (Clyne 1982), initial estimates of the population using languages other than English had to be based on the birthplace or on the birthplace of their parents.

Australia is continuing to evolve as a nation of diversity. The general shift in birthplace patterns of the Australian population from 1947 to 2006 can be seen in Table 1.1. The ethnic profile figures from the 2006 census, using the 1947 figures as a baseline, make the longer-term trends more apparent. The 1947 census indicates that the top six of the 20 largest source countries were the UK, New Zealand, Ireland, Italy, Germany and Greece. Notably, economic migrants up to the mid-1970s were the Dutch, Germans, Italians, Maltese and Polish (in the 1950s), Greeks (in the late 1950s and early 1960s), the Yugoslavs (in the late 1960s) and Greek Cypriots, Latin Americans, Lebanese and Turkish (especially in the 1970s). According to the 1986 census, the top six birthplace countries after the UK and New Zealand were Italy, Yugoslavia, Greece, Germany and the Netherlands, followed by Asian countries such as Vietnam, India and Malaysia as well as many from South Africa. The 1996 information reveals that the six top countries of birth were the UK, followed by New Zealand, Italy, China including Hong Kong, Vietnam and Greece.

By 2006 census, the profile had changed importantly from the 1947 figures though the UK and New Zealand were still the top two followed by China (including Hong Kong), Italy, Vietnam, India, the Philippines, Greece, Germany and South Africa.

Table 1.1: Australia: Top 20 Birthplace Groups by Year of Arrival 1947-2006 Inter-Censal Period

Country of Birth	1947	Country of Birth	1976	Country of Birth	1986	Country of Birth	1996	Country of Birth	2006
UK	501,993	UK	1,070,234	UK	1,074,764	UK	1,072,514	UK	1,038,156
New Zealand	43,610	Italy	280,154	Italy	261,878	New Zealand	291,388	New Zealand	389,464
Ireland	39,274	Greece	152,908	New Zealand	211,670	Italy	238,388	China and Hong Kong	278,383
Italy	33,632	Yugoslavia	143,591	Yugoslavia	150,040	China and Hong Kong	169,439	Italy	199,132
Germany	14,567	Germany	107,559	Greece	137,637	Vietnam	151,053	Vietnam	159,854
Greece	12,291	Netherlands	92,110	Germany	114,810	Greece	126,520	India	147,101
India	8,160	New Zealand	89,791	Netherlands	95,095	Germany	110,331	Philippines	120,533
Poland	6,573	Poland	56,051	Vietnam	83,044	Philippines	92,949	Greece	109,988
China	6,404	Malta	55,889	Poland	67,676	Netherlands	87,898	Germany	106,515
US	6,232	Ireland	47,366	Lebanon	56,341	India	77,521	South Africa	104,120
Yugoslavia	5,866	Lebanon	33,424	Malta	56,232	Malaysia	76,255	Malaysia	93,347
South Africa	5,866	India	37,536	India	47,820	Lebanon	70,224	Netherlands	78,931
Ukraine/USSR.	4,976	US	30,514	Malaysia	47,805	Poland	65,113	Lebanon	74,858
Austria	4,219	Egypt	30,123	Ireland	44,136	South Africa	55,755	Sri Lanka	62,252
Canada	4,061	Cyprus	21,269	USA	42,383	Ireland	51,469	USA	61,715
Malta	3,238	China	19,971	South Africa	37,061	Malta	50,879	Korea (South)	52,763
Denmark	2,759	Malaysia	19,880	n.a.		USA	49,528	Poland	52,256
France	2,215	Turkey	19,355	n.a.		Sri Lanka	46,984	Croatia	50,991
Sweden	2,209	South Africa	15,565	n.a.		Croatia	46,981	Indonesia	50,974
Netherlands	2,174	Sweden	15,367	n.a.		Indonesia	44,175	Ireland	50,259

An examination of Australia's birthplace profile over the past six decades highlights several key points:

- (a) The data from 1947 to 2006 reveal the acceleration of change, particularly from the patterns established in the post-WWII immigration boom; the continental European-born groups are now being surpassed by those from Asia and the Middle East, especially in the last two decades;
- (b) The English-speaking group born in the UK has remained the largest immigrant source-country at each census. Currently, their number continues to decline slowly, but this trend is offset by the English-language migration, especially from South Africa, New Zealand and the USA;
- (c) New Zealand has been the second top source country, except in the 1976 and 1986 censuses when it was surpassed by the Italy-born group;
- (d) Attrition through death and home-country return can be seen primarily in the European-born groups e.g. Italians, Greeks, Germans; Dutch, Polish and so on;
- (e) In recent decades, migrants from countries where English is an associate language (i.e. countries colonised by English-speaking colonial powers such as India) have grown significantly e.g. India, Sri Lanka, the Philippines, and Malaysia;
- (f) The very quick growth in the Chinese over two decades becoming the largest non-English-speaking source-country as "China has now become the most numerous non-English-speaking source country, after 50 years of dominance by the Italy-born group" (Cahill, 2009, 12);
- (g) The China-born growth is complemented by the general growth from Asia, especially from Vietnam, the Republic of Korea, and the Middle East;
- (h) The Vietnamese group, after the collapse of South Vietnam in April 1975, as reflected in the 1986 census, has continued to grow; Vietnam is now the third largest non-English-speaking birthplace group in 2006. Cahill (2009) predicts that "by the next census, Vietnam and India will have surpassed Italy as major source countries" (ibid, 12);
- (j) The growth in the Philippines-born group has been partly due to the marriages of Australian men with Philippine women.

Languages spoken at home are a key measure of the sociolinguistic diversity in Australia (Cahill 2009). Linguistic trends have been influenced both by migration (Bottomley 1992) and the linguistic retentiveness of language communities in Australia. Table 1.2 shows the greater diversification in Australia's language profile complemented by the birthplace trends between 1996-2006. The table reveals that in 1996 the five most widely used community languages across Australia were Italian (11.79 per cent), Chinese (10.76 per cent), Greek (8.46 per cent), Arabic (5.57 per cent) and Vietnamese (4.59 per cent).

cent). In 2006, among the 20 top languages, the biggest growth has occurred for Hindi (+106.02 per cent), “reflecting the number of Indian immigrants in the last five years” (Cahill, 2009, 12), Persian (+95.21 per cent), Korean (+82.50 per cent), Indonesian (+54.58 per cent), followed by Chinese (+ 45.83 per cent), and Arabic (+37.20 per cent). Another clear trend according to Cahill is: “as in 2006, the number of those speaking and writing the Chinese languages (+45.83 per cent), especially Cantonese and Mandarin, when aggregated, has surpassed the number speaking Italian, which for 50 years was Australia’s most widely spoken language after English” (YEAR, 12). It should be noted that in the inter-censal period of 1996 to 2006, continental European languages continued their decline with the exception of Spanish (+7.38 per cent) and Serbian (+41.21 per cent). The figures shown in Table 1.2 highlight the transformation of Australia underway since 1947 from a British via an Anglo-Celtic and European to a “Eurasian country” (Cahill 2009, 12). The Australian case is interesting because of its multicultural profile as well as its various ethnic diasporas.

Table 1.2: Top 20 Languages other than English (LOTE) Spoken in Australian Homes 1996-2006

1996 Census			2006 Census			
Language	Number	% of LOTES	Language	Number	% of LOTES	1996-2006 % difference
Italian	375,518	11.79	Chinese	500,466	15.91	+45.83
Chinese	343,193	10.76	Italian	316,893	10.07	-15.66
Greek	269,770	8.46	Greek	252,222	8.02	-6.50
Arabic	177,598	5.57	Arabic	243,662	7.74	+37.20
Vietnamese	146,264	4.59	Vietnamese	194,858	6.19	+33.22
German	98,814	3.10	Spanish	97,998	3.11	+7.38
Spanish	91,265	2.86	Tagalog	92,330	2.93	+31.07
Macedonian	71,352	2.24	German	75,634	2.40	-23.46
Tagalog	70,441	2.21	Hindi	70,013	2.43	+106.02
Croatian	69,173	2.17	Macedonian	67,831	2.40	-4.93
Polish	62,798	1.97	Croatian	63,615	2.23	-8.03
Turkish	46,204	1.45	ATSI	55,698	2.16	+26.04
Maltese	45,223	1.42	Korean	54,619	2.02	+82.50
ATSI	44,192	1.39	Turkish	53,858	1.77	+16.57
Dutch	40,782	1.28	Polish	53,390	1.71	-14.98
French	39,940	1.25	Serbian	52,534	1.67	+41.21
Serbian	37,204	1.17	French	43,219	1.37	+8.21
Hindi	33,983	1.07	Indonesian	42,038	1.34	+54.58
Russian	30,999	0.97	Persian	37,155	1.18	+95.21
Korean	29,929	0.94	Maltese	36,517	1.16	-19.25

Notes: Language spoken at home by those aged over five years. LOTE= total number of speakers of languages other than English. ATSI= Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander languages.

Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics (1996; 2006)

At the 2006 census, Victoria was second to New South Wales in terms of breadth of cultural and linguistic diversity, home of almost five million people with 23.7 per cent (or 1,173,203) of its population born overseas. Table 1.3 shows the Victorian profile of changing birthplace groups from 1976-2006. Victoria's birthplace profile broadly reflects the national profile, with the exception of the Chinese-born immigrant group, which was the largest in the 1996-2006 inter-censal period. An examination of the Victorian profile of changes among birthplace groups over the last three decades highlights several key points:

1. Continuously, and since the 1950s, Italy remains the largest non-English-speaking birthplace country;
2. Since the 1950s, while the Greek is the second largest non-English-speaking group, in 2006 Greece slipped to the 4th largest non-English-speaking source country reflecting the inexorable decline of European groups;
3. From the 1976 to 2006 the proportion of English-speaking born in the UK has continually declined, but this trend, as in Australia, is offset especially by the arrival of South Africans, and New Zealanders;
4. The Vietnamese group continues its growth, and is now the second largest non-English birthplace group;
5. The number of Vietnamese and Chinese newcomers is noteworthy;
6. Chinese, Indian society as well as Sri Lankan presences are proportionally high in the 1996-2006 periods. This suggests a shift from a British and European-based society to a more Asia-Australian society

Table 1.3: Victoria: Top 20 Birthplace Groups by Year of Arrival 1976-2006 Inter-Censal Period

A/A	Country of Birth	1976	Country of Birth	1986	Country of Birth	1996	Country of Birth	2006
1	UK	251,496	UK	238,895	UK	215,235	England	193,814
2	Italy	116,712	Italy	109,204	Italy	98,231	Italy	82,849
3	Greece	76,143	Greece	67,796	Greece	61,683	New Zealand	63,995
4	Yugoslavia	56,701	Yugoslavia	59,311	Vietnam	55,141	Vietnam	58,878
5	Germany	34,262	Germany	33,662	New Zealand	42,489	China	56,559
6	Netherlands	30,751	Netherlands	29,333	Germany	29,686	Greece	54,325
7	Malta	27,062	Vietnam	27,899	Taiwan	28,101	India	52,853
8	Poland	22,363	Malta	27,020	Netherlands	25,293	Sri Lanka	31,486
9	Ireland	13,020	Poland	24,640	India	24,170	Malaysia	30,476
10	Egypt	11,727	Malaysia	14,662	Malta	24,150	Germany	28,124
11	India	11,227	Ireland	11,652	Sri Lanka	23,458	Philippines	27,337
12	Cyprus	9,433	China	8,599	Malaysia	23,035	Netherlands	22,833
13	Turkey	9,358	Hungary	8,536	Poland	22,211	Malta	20,848
14	Sri Lanka	9,064	Philippines	7,297	FYROM	18,992	South Africa	19,349
15	Hungary	8,858	Austria	6,863	Croatia	17,506	FYROM	18,319
16	US	7,004	Hong Kong	6,363	Hong Kong	15,601	Croatia	18,189
17	Lebanon	5,949	Other USSR	5,720	Lebanon	13,942	Poland	18,070
18	Malaysia	5,495	Czechoslovakia	5,146	Indonesia	12,126	Turkey	15,284
19	USSR (n.e.i)	4,222	Indonesia	4,890	Ireland	11,920	Lebanon	14,949
20	Spain	4,035	Spain	4,066	Egypt	11,911	US.	13,338

The data in Table 1.4 forms the basis of Victoria's profile of the top 20 Languages other than English (LOTE) in Victorian homes in the 1986, 1996 and 2006 censuses. The information indicates that the language profile of Victoria is also changing, reflecting the changing immigration profile.

Table 1.4: Top 20 Languages other than English (LOTE) in Victorian Homes (1986/1996/2006 Censuses)

1986 Census		1996 Census		2006 Census	
Language	Number	Language	Number	Language	Number
Italian	173,211	Italian	155,360	Chinese Languages	157,775
Greek	123,974	Greek	119,577	Italian	133,328
Chinese Languages	38,034	Chinese Languages	90,550	Greek	117,876
German	32,243	Vietnamese	49,219	Vietnamese	72,162
Maltese	29,555	Arabic	35,718	Arabic	55,927
Serbo-Croatian	24,212	Macedonian	31,482	Macedonian	30,772
Macedonian	22,760	Chinese	26,229	Turkish	29,750
Polish	22,131	Croatian	24,458	Spanish	24,506
Arabic (inc. Lebanese)	21,945	Turkish	23,469	German	19,604
Vietnamese	19,602	Maltese	23,277	Maltese	19,023
Dutch	18,077	Spanish	21,431	Hindi	18,180
Spanish	17,578	Dutch	19,988	Polish	17,785
Turkish	17,313	Tagalog (incl. Filipino)	15,254	Sinhalese	16,922
French	14,443	Russian	11,879	Serbian	16,866
Hungarian	11,445	Serbian	11,594	Russian	14,338
Russian	6,409	French	10,916	French	11,869
Ukrainian	5,414	Hungarian	9,304	Tagalog (exc. Filipino)	11,280
Indonesian/Malay	3,726	Indonesian	5,359	Tamil	11,095
Portuguese	3,067	Portuguese	4,073	Filipino (exc. Tagalog)	10,662
Hindi	1,969	Malay	1,789	Indonesian	10,448

The major characteristics of this changing profile are as follows:

- (i) The five most widely used community languages in Victorian homes based on the 1986 census were Italian, Greek, the Chinese languages, German and Maltese;
- (ii) The five most widely used community languages in Victorian homes based on the information from the 1996 census were Italian, Greek, the Chinese languages, Vietnamese and Arabic;
- (iii) In 2006, of the 20 top languages, the biggest growth has occurred for Chinese, Arabic and Vietnamese, and, to a lesser extent, Turkish and Spanish;

- (iv) By 2006, the Italian and Greek languages had significantly declined, and to a lesser extent, German and Maltese;
- (v) Another clear trend is that the Chinese has surpassed the number of the Italian speakers – for 50 years, Italian for 50 years was Victoria’s most widely spoken language after English.
- (vi) Another language with a very significant increase in numbers is Hindi.

Overall, and according to Cahill (2009), Victoria’s linguistic profile is significantly different from the rest of Australia because there are comparatively more Italian and Greek speakers in Victoria than in other parts of Australia. Let us now examine the Greek geopolitical and sociolinguistic context.

1.6 Geopolitical and Sociolinguistic Context of Greece

Located at the southeast shore of Europe, Greece is the southernmost country of the Balkan Peninsula. Because of its culture, economy and membership in the European Union, Greece is also part of Western Europe. In the 19th century the decline of the Ottoman power in the Balkans led to the creation of the Balkan nation-states, including Greece. Since 28 May 1979, Greece has been integrated into the European Economic Community (EEC) and since 1 January 2002, into the European Union (EU). In 1945, Greece was included among the 51 founding members of the United Nations (UN). It also belongs to the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), the Council of Europe as well as the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), contracting abundant bilateral and multilateral agreements and participating in every network of the EU and other continents. The legislative power of Greece is exercised through the Parliament and signed into law by the President in his role as the Chairman of Democracy, while the executive power is exercised by the Chairman of Democracy and the government. The administration is organized as a decentralized system, divided in central and regional services.

Following the illegal mass immigration in the early 1990s, mainly caused by the fall of the Soviet Union, Greece is now a multicultural country continuing to evolve as a nation of people from diverse backgrounds. Greece in its obligations as a member of the EU reports figures of its resident population by citizenship. The general shift in population patterns from the country of birth can be seen in Table 1.5. The Albanians had an outstanding increase from 6,128 in 1998 to 481,663 in 2006, to 432,120 in 2004, followed by 43,981 Bulgarians, 25,375 Rumanians and 19,785 Ukrainians. According to Bardwin-Edwards (2004) by 2001 to 2004 the immigrant population in Greece was almost 1.15 million, namely 10.3 per cent of the total population (p. 5).

Table 1.5: 20 Top Countries of Immigrant Birthplace in Greece in 1990, 1998 and 2006

1990		1998		2006	
Countries	Number	Countries	Number	Countries	Number
USA	17,261	Russia	16,609	Albania	481,663
Poland	14,821	USA	15,362	Bulgaria	43,981
UK	12,693	UK	13,394	Romania	25,375
Germany	9,493	Germany	9,369	Ukraine	19,785
Egypt	7,359	Bulgaria	7,043	Pakistan	15,830
Italy	5,587	Yugoslavia	6,448	Russia	13,635
Philippines	5,654	Albania	6,128	Georgia	13,254
France	5,519	Rumania	6,078	India	10,043
Lebanon	3,555	Italy	5,493	Moldova	9,920
Iran	3,283	Philippines	5,299	Egypt	9,461
Romania	3,010	Poland	5,246	Philippines	6,465
Ethiopia	2,945	France	5,094	Syria	5,747
Bulgaria	2,576	Iraq	3,887	Bangladesh	5,661
Russia	2,608	Turkey	3,210	Armenia	4,687
Netherlands	2,356	Netherlands	2,701	Serbia/Montenegro	3691
Syria	2,785	Syria	2,587	China incl.HK and Macau	2,041
Pakistan	2,229	Lebanon	2,465	Poland	1,855
Yugoslavia	2,097	Pakistan	1,628	USA	1,769
Iraq	2,015	Jordan	1,381	Nigeria	1,632
Dominican Republic	1,995	India	1,272	FYROM	1,406

The birthplace profile from the 2006 statistics highlights the impact of recent global population flows in Greece. The data in Table 1.5, showing the immigrant's country of birth over almost two decades, reveal several trends:

- (a) Greece is becoming more diversified culturally and linguistically, as evidenced by the increasing proportion of people, especially from the Balkans as well as from Asia and the Middle East.
- (b) The proportion of people born in Albania has increased enormously between 1998 and 2006 and it has now become the largest non Greek-speaking minority.
- (c) In 2006, continental European-born group were in significant decline, with regards the number of people born in the UK (217 persons), France (27 persons) and the Netherlands (54 persons).
- (d) The growth in the groups of people who were Balkan-born is generally complemented by the growth from the Balkan Peninsula, including Bulgaria and Romania.

(e) In the period of 1998 to 2006, the four largest groups arriving in Greece from Asia were from Pakistan, India, Philippines and Bangladesh.

(f) The decline in immigrants from the USA and UK has been dramatic.

The Greek National Statistical Service collects the statistical profile every ten years of the national population. Based on the 2001 census, Greece has almost 11 million people, with 5.41 million male (49, 51 per cent) and 5.52 million female (50, 49 per cent). Out of this population, a total of 762,191 were immigrants. Table 1.6 shows the number of immigrants from the 20 top birthplaces: 94,931 were from the EU, 17,426 were from Cyprus and the rest, 649,834 persons, were from the remaining countries, but with a majority from Albania, constituting 438, 036 persons.

Table: 1.6: Birthplace Sources of the Immigrant Population in Greece (2001 census)

A/A	Source Countries (2001 Census)	Number	%
1	Albania	438,036	58.2
2	Bulgaria	35,104	6.7
3	Georgia	22,875	4.2
4	Rumania	21,994	2.7
5	USA	18,140	2.5
6	Russia	17,535	2.4
7	Cyprus	17,426	1.9
8	Ukraine	13,616	1.9
9	UK	13,196	1.9
10	Poland	12,831	1.6
11	Germany	11,806	1.3
12	Pakistan	11,130	1.2
13	Australia	8,767	1.1
14	Turkey	7,881	0.9
15	Armenia	7,742	0.8
16	Egypt	7,448	0.4
17	India	7,216	0.0
18	Iraq	6,936	0.0
19	Philippines	6,478	0.0
20	Canada	6,049	0.0

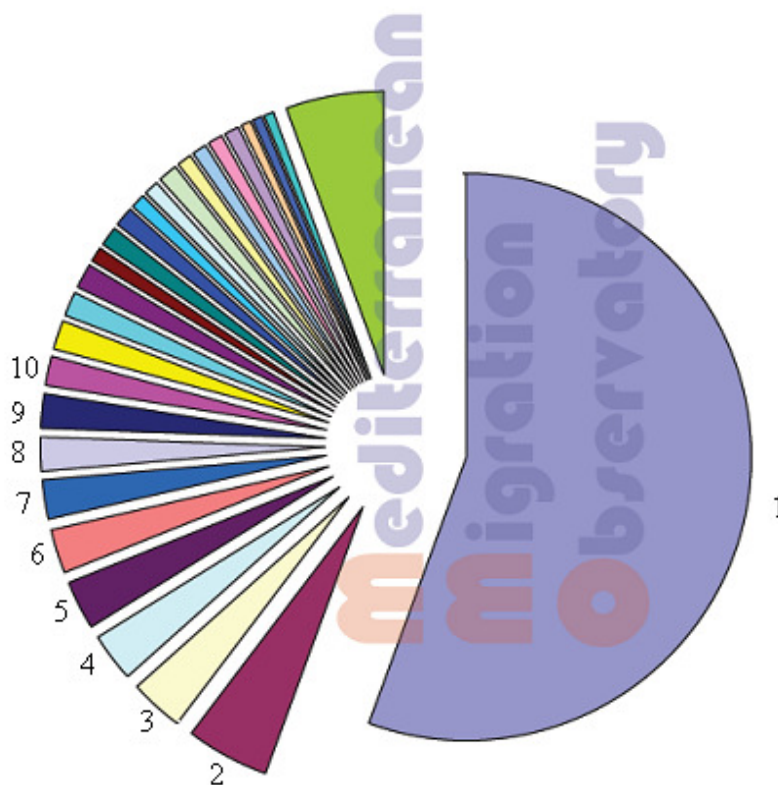
Based on the 2001 census, Table 1.6 indicates the 20 larger source-countries in order, distributed among the population of Greece. The top ten were as follows: 1. Albania, 2. Bulgaria, 3. Georgia, 4. Rumania, 5. USA, 6. Russia, 7. Cyprus, 8. Ukraine, 9. UK and 10. Poland, followed by Germany, Pakistan, Australia, Turkey, Armenia, Egypt, India, Iraq, Philippines, Canada and others. In the 2001 census, the immigrant population constituted 7 per cent of the total population of the country and the percentage distribution per

nationality was as follows: 58.2 per cent Albanians, 6.7 per cent Bulgarians, and 4.2 per cent Georgians. The new European independent states (Ukraine, Moldavia and Russia) represented 6.7 per cent of the total immigrant population.

Greece is the only country in the EU where one birthplace group of immigrants (Albanians) is above 50 per cent (see Figure 1.9) of its total immigrants (Bardwin-Edwards, 2004). Since the mid-1990s, a large number of Greek-origin people, having previously lived abroad in Central and Eastern Europe, returned to re-establish themselves in Greece. According to Bardwin-Edwards since 2000, "...350,000 people with Greek origin...have received the Greek nationality" (2004, 3).

Figure 1.9: Top Major Birthplace Countries of the Immigrant Population in Greece (Census 2001)

1=Albania, 2=Bulgaria, 3=Georgia, 4=Rumania, 5=U.S.A, 6= Russia, 7=Cyprus, 8=Ukraine, Germany, 9=, 10= Poland



Source: Baldwin-Edwards (2004, 17).

Greece has a central educational system across the country with, as overall regulator, the Ministry for Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs through institutions with a specialised mission and action plan. At the same time, there are other educational services offered and monitored by other Ministries. Education in Greece is compulsory for all children 6-15 years old; namely, primary (Dimotiko) and lower secondary (Gymnasio).

The official language of the Greek state is Greek, which is used in the whole territory and in all strands of education. Under the new circumstances, as many immigrants and repatriates come from other countries, a strong need has emerged for the teaching and learning of Greek as a second language to smoothly accommodate and constructively incorporate within Greece's emerging multilingual and multiculturalism environment. Likewise, the presence of Greeks in the Balkan countries mostly through trade (trade, industry, technologies) has created a need for the teaching and learning of Greek as a foreign language in these countries (Tocatlidou 2003, 2004; Greek Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs, 2007).

Greece as a member of the EU includes foreign languages in its school curricula, expecting students to study and hopefully learn from a very young age (Nicolov and Curtain, 2000), aiming at least two EU languages, referred to as the national languages of two other EU member states, apart from the 'mother tongue' (European Commission, 1995; 2003; and Little 2006). Considerable adjustments and differences in the use both of Greek and of foreign languages can be seen in Table 1.7, which according to Tocatlidou "records very roughly the changes that have come about in Greece in the past 30 years in three areas of language intercourse: administration, education and the social arena (2004, 148). School curricula include the languages of 'global importance' such as English, French and German. Since 2008-2009, Italian, Russian and Spanish are offered in a pilot form at the secondary levels in some Gymnasias (Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs, 2010). The teaching of English starts in Year 3 and is the first compulsory foreign language in all primary and secondary schools across the country.

Table 1.7: Changes of Language Intercourse (Administration, Education and Social Arena) in Greece in the Past 30 Years

	1970	2001	2009
ADMINISTRATION	-Official language: <i>katharevousa</i> (pure “mandarin” Greek) -No foreign language (foreign languages not required for civil service)	-Demotic Greek with many neologisms from unofficial translations of EU texts (‘Eurospeak’) -Occasional English or French	-Demotic Greek with many neologisms from unofficial translations of EU texts (‘Eurospeak’) -Occasional English or French
EDUCATION	- <i>Katharevousa</i> -One foreign language, English or French in secondary education	-Demotic -Two foreign languages, English compulsory from the primary level and either French or German at the secondary level	-Demotic -Two foreign languages, English compulsory from the primary level and either French or German at the secondary level. Further Italian, Russian and Spanish in pilot forms at the secondary level.
SOCIAL AREA	-Greek, in versions that signal social strata. -Foreign languages, a characteristic of the socially superior class (more than one) and of the middle class (one, usually English or French). Other languages a sign of emigration.	-Modern Greek, in the “cultivated” version of the educated minority and in the “uncultivated” version (“limited code”) of the majority with many borrowings (from the media) -Greek which signals the foreign origin of the speaker (economic refugees) -English and other European languages -Uncultivated German or French (returned emigrants) -Many Balkan and Asian languages	-Modern Greek, in the “cultivated” version of the educated minority and in the “uncultivated” version (“limited code”) of the majority with many borrowings (from the media) -Greek which signals the foreign origin of the speaker (economic refugees) -English and other European languages -Uncultivated German or French (returned emigrants) -Many Balkan and Asian languages

Source: Tocatlidou (2004, 148).

In analysing these in Australia and Greece, both historical as well as contemporary factors have impacted on the network governability in public policy for language planning and language policy development. Both similar and dissimilar factors have impacted on language patterns in both countries. However, in

essence is that these factors have had different influences in the formulation of language planning and policy as we shall see.

CHAPTER TWO

LANGUAGE PLANNING AND LANGUAGE POLICY IN A GLOBAL WORLD

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a literature review of research studies conducted in the field of language planning and language policy world-wide as well as in both Australia and Greece. It gives background information for contextualizing the significance of this vast and rapidly growing field. The chapter provides examples and methods others have employed in challenges of addressing language planning problems. Although the field covers many studies, this review is focused on major themes relevant to the aims of this thesis. Many issues were encountered in undertaking this comparative study. The process includes the ability/inability to adequately understand language planning and policy-making which differ between countries; however, it is well established that much benefit can be gained by comparing countries.

The chapter presents these themes and concepts from multiple perspectives, using as case study countries seeking to develop and/or maintain and/or strengthen supranational as well as multilingual and multicultural structures. In analyzing the many sources, it soon became evident that the most relevant research has been conducted in Australia, Canada, UK and US, with very little produced in Greece. The themes which are explored in the following subchapters concern: (i) terminological usage and problems; ii) contemporary challenges of language planning and policy; (iii) governing language planning and policy; (iv) managing multilingual knowledge economies; (v) what works in other countries.

2.2 Defining Terms

A wide vocabulary and multiplicity of terms have appeared in language planning and language policy studies, perhaps reflecting the impact that many other disciplines have had on the field. It is best to begin by considering the terms 'language planning' and 'language policy'. The literature usually employs the terms synonymously, even though they refer to different processes. The term 'language planning' refers to the work of authors such as Eastman 1983; Swaan 1988; Bamgbose 1989; Kaplan 1989; Cooper 2000; Ager 2001; Tollefson 2002; Wright 2005; Ferguson 2006; Pauwels 2007; Spring 2008, and was used by Kaplan and Bauldauf to "refer to a function of government penetrating many sectors of society" (1997, 3).

They have also termed it as 'language policy', which uses "a body of ideas, laws and regulations, changing rules, beliefs and practices intended to achieve a planned change (or to stop change from happening) in the language use in one or more communities" (p. 3). According to Kaplan and Baldauf (1997, 122) the term 'language education planning' affects only one sector of the society, and that is the educational sector. Spolsky (2004), for example, subsumes under the term 'language policy' what has been termed 'language planning', which has three components: (i) language management; (ii) language practices; (iii) language beliefs. In this study, no attempts were made to distinguish between the above terms. This study uses the term 'language planning' and 'language policy' as they have been defined by Kaplan and Baldauf.

Not surprisingly often words mean exactly what a speaker wants them to mean, unless the speaker want them to mean, perhaps duplicitously, other things. Very early on, scholars have used the above or similar terms to describe activities and processes governing language education. Halliday (1992), in particular, has used the concept 'language policy making' to involve formulating policies for the teaching of national and second language(s). Schlyter (2003) to assess language trends in Asia has used the term 'language policy'. Kibbee (2003) has used the term 'language planning' and its component 'language management' as an activity undertaken by the state, usually to implement or promote a policy that is explicitly stated or sometimes left implicit. Also, as expected, terms in the language field have different meanings across countries or within languages. For example, the Dutch distinguish between 'language planning', 'language policy' and 'language politics'. In the German, the second term 'language policy' has no equivalent, since only 'language planning' and 'language politics/language policy' exist. In French, the hierarchical element 'linguistic planning' contains the meaning 'linguistic household'. Accordingly, Neldge suggests that in the context of EU multilingualism "the terminological differences with respect to these topics catch the eye and need resolution" (2007, 62).

In the domains of education and public administration, the descriptors attached to the term 'language(s)' embrace different meanings depending on the particular meaning of the descriptor. In an early, influential book, Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) provide a useful synopsis (Table 2.1) of the different terminology in use in government documents under four headings: political, social, educational, and popular. From the table it can be seen that the terms mirror the four headings' context. Furthermore, the concept 'mother-tongue' (Kaplan and Baldauf 1997) in its simplest meaning can be understood literally as 'the language of one's mother' or the language one speaks with one's mother. Furthermore, society recognizes some differentiation of the language designated as 'mother-tongue'; that is, one may speak it as a first language or as a second language (Garcia 2009). Another example in point, revealing the complexity of the term is in the Canadian census in 2001, where the concept 'mother-tongue' has been defined for respondents as "language first learnt at home in childhood and still understood" (quoting Extra 2007, 40).

Table 2.1 Terminological Usage and Problems

Political Definitions	Social Definitions	Educational Definitions	Popular Definitions
A. language of wider communication	A. educational languages	A. foreign languages	A. foreign languages
pan-regional languages	(1) majority language		
	(2) as a 1 st language		
	(3) as a 2 nd language		
	(4) as a creole/ pidgin		
	(5) foreign languages		
B. national languages	B. vernacular community heritage	B. second languages	B. native language
C. official language (s)	C. classical/ historical	C. mother tongue	C. foreigner languages
		(1) non-standard varieties	
D. literacy language		D. community languages	D. pidgin
E. regional languages		E. heritage languages	
F. religious languages			

Source: Kaplan and Baldauf (1997, 25).

Probably being aware of cross-national differences, Extra (2007) uses the concept of ‘community language teaching’ (CLT) rather than ‘mother-tongue teaching’ or ‘home-language instruction’ in order to include a broad spectrum of potential target groups in research. Furthermore, ‘foreign’ languages are

commonly defined as any language(s) not normally spoken within the polity (Kaplan and Baldauf 1997, 24). A number of writers have used the terms 'second' or 'foreign' languages synonymously, such as Dunn 1999, Fishman 1999; 2006; Muhlhausler 2001; Bieswanger 2007; Migge and Leglise 2007. Indicatively, other cases in point where the term 'foreign' language(s) has been used to refer to the teaching and learning of language(s) are Kirkpatrick (2007) discussing English as a global language, and Grin (2006; 2007) referring to the economic perspectives of language policy.

In the EU, according to Extra (2007, 34), it is common practice to refer to immigrant minorities' languages in terms such as 'non-territorial', 'non-regional', 'non-indigenous' or 'non-European'. Another example in point is Arabic (Laroussi 2003) or Turkish languages in Europe, which are usually referred to as 'minority languages' or 'non-European languages' (Extra, 2007, 33). This thesis uses the terms 'national' language to define English and Greek in Australia and Greece respectively, as well as the term 'second' language(s) and / or 'foreign' language(s) to define the teaching of language(s) beyond the national in Australia and Greece.

In other countries than Greece, alternative terminology includes the concepts of 'minority', 'community' or 'regional' language(s). Exact definitions of these terms are by no means fixed. The concept 'minority' language has also been used by a number of scholars to "defend minority languages in a highly competitive globalizing world" (Laponce 2003, 58) and to forecast their fate (Mackey 2003). In Australia, in particular, since the early 1970s, the term 'community' language(s) was used to denote language(s) beyond English, along with some other allegedly discriminatory terms such as 'migrant', 'ethnic' language(s) and 'languages other than English' (LOTE) (Cahill 1984; 1996; 2002). Early in the 1990s, Clyne (1991) employed the acronym (CLOTEs) 'community languages other than English', to stress that English too is a 'community' language. Correspondingly, in this study most of the above terms were used with the same meaning(s) to document the evolution of language planning and policy development mostly in Australia and to a lesser extent in Greece.

In specific regions, other terms were used by some scholars to define ideology in language planning and policy. For example, Lo Bianco, in an analysis of the evolution of language education in Australia gave particular meanings to the concepts 'national', 'language' and 'policy'. 'National' was taken to include government and non-government institutions; 'language' to all languages, literacy and cultures in Australia and 'policy', the intentions, aims and discourses in policy reports and actions (2001, 19).

Languages not only provide a means of communication, but also create a sense of identity or membership to a community of speakers. In discussions on the relationship between language and national identity

terms such as ‘communication’ and ‘community’ figure regularly, but with different meanings (Hill 2002; Boyd 2007). For example, in multilingual states such as Belgium, Canada, Finland and Switzerland, the decision as to which language is relevant for this communication depends primarily on geography. Likewise, in the process of secondary socialization (in education) the “interest of each state is to create and maintain a citizenry which is proficient in the language(s) of the state” (Boyd 2007, 143).

The relationship between language and identity is not static. The concept of “identity is closely related to the concepts of ethnicity and nationalism, or ethnic identity and national identity” which is further complicated by the co-existence of the concepts ‘national and ethnic’ driving language planning and policy (Extra 2007, 31). In order to gain a broader perspective of language, language planning and language policy, it is necessary to contextualize them in a globalizing world. The terms ‘international English’, ‘world English’ or ‘global English’ (McConnell 2003) have traditionally included both first language and second language speakers.

2.3 Contemporary Challenges to Language Planning and Language Policy

With globalisation and the creation of large economic blocks, the demand for first and second language education has increased. Maurais (2003) has explored the increased popularity of teaching Spanish in the USA as a result of North American Free Trade Agreement, (NAFTA). According to Reed (2010) “Multicultural education is good for everyone because it seeks to promote respect for differences in a society composed of different people...in defense of rural schools, it is a huge oversight on those promoting multiculturalism to limit the rural perspective which, by the way, includes a long tradition of conservatism that is deserving of respect, too” (2010, 20). Trimnell (2005) has shown that such a national profile provides only partially a basis for a language education programs because of the linguistic requirements of the tourist industry. For instance, in the US, the most frequently taught languages are still Spanish, French and German. In the US, the future big losers will be French, German and Russian (Grenoble 2003) while Spanish should be increasingly considered as a second, not a foreign, language. In the US, 9.3 per cent of Americans can claim bilingual fluency, in comparison to 52.7 per cent of Europeans being fluent in at least one language other than their mother tongue.

2.3.1 Dimensions of Globalisation

In North and South America, French speakers represent less than one per cent. In America and Asia, language education has been remolded and redesigned to accommodate and facilitate linguistic and cultural diversity and diasporic ethnic communities (Godenzzi 2003; Soukup 2006; Kaplan and Baldauf 2008; Spring 2008). Throughout Asia and the Pacific, language education has been used as a postcolonial vehicle for language policies that promote cultural nationalism, solidarity and ethnic identity (Kaplan and

Baldauf 1997; Annamalai 2001). Africa is multilingual and its population has grown accustomed to the influx of overlapping languages of power during and after colonization (Fishman 1999; Maurais and Morris 2003). Asia is multilingual as well as broadly accepting of English (Tsui and Tollefson 2007).

Transnational movements affect language planning and policy. Within the European context, for instance, strong transnational changes have occurred in three different arenas: i) In the national arena of the EU member states where the traditional national identity is challenged by major demographic changes as a consequence of migration and the birth of minority groups; ii) in the European arena where the European identity emerges as a consequence of increasing cooperation and integration at the European level; iii) in the global arena of the world due to increasing accessibility of information and the efficiency of communications technologies (Hagen 1992; Oakes 2001; Kaplan and Baldauf 2006). Major changes in each of these arenas have led to the development of the concepts of transnational citizenship and transnational identities and affiliations not only to the traditional inhabitants but also to the newcomers to Europe (Declaration on European identity of December 1973 in Copenhagen) which “will ask for new competences of European citizens in the 21st century” (Extra 2007, 33).

Educational provisions for language vary across countries. For example, practices in the European states Sweden (Boyd 2007; Extra 2007) and Spain (Extra 2007) align to languages’ status at both national and supranational level. Likewise, Bull (2007) has pointed out that in Norway, for example, immigrant languages have no status. In 1995, the European Commission decided on trilingualism as a policy goal for all European citizens. Each citizen should learn at least two other ‘community’ languages apart from their ‘mother tongue’. It was understood that the concepts of ‘mother tongue’ and ‘community language’ referred to the national languages of EU member states. Later European Commission documents mentioned the importance of one of the two languages to be a language with high international prestige (Ager 2005). “...Although English was not named explicitly there was sufficient room for the interpretation that this statement referred predominantly to English” (Boyd 2007, 7).

In any linguistic environment, issues such as ‘political’ (matters of control) and ‘social’ (some notion of social justice), may be impacting in quite different directions and degrees of intensity towards language education. Similarly, Wright (2005) and Baucom, (2005) describe language efforts in Arizona of how to teach English to immigrants in Arizona involving ‘federal’ (Cloonan and Strine 1991) and ‘state’ language statements in the implementation of English language learners (ELL). Political shortcoming(s) were not also surprising. Questions remain, according to Montgomery (2008), whether United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) has the political influence to firmly impose its agenda on the preservation of all languages and linguistic diversity on its 191 member states. Likewise, in order to

meet its aims, the present study analyses political and social challenges and reveals why, where, when and by whom they were impacted on the language policy, in Australia and Greece over the last three decades.

However, also some other trends will add to influencing the flux of languages in different world regions. Garcia (2009) had estimated that 90 per cent of all languages will disappear or will be near extinction in the twenty-first century. Ronald and Bretton (2003) speak of a strong reduction in the number of languages in Africa. Unsurprisingly, intersecting cultures, tension between cultures and cultural differences affect prospective language policies. Extra (2007) in his research study focussed on the status of immigrant minority (IM) languages at home and at school in six EU cities (Brussels, Goteborg, Hamburg, Lyon, Madrid and The Hague), comparing four different perspectives: (i) phenomenological perspectives; (ii) demographic criteria; (iii) sociolinguistic perspectives and (iv) educational policies. He concluded that "...when each of the above-mentioned languages should be introduced in the curriculum and whether or when they should be a subject or medium of instruction has to be spelled out according to particular national, regional, or local demands" (2007, 52).

Problems of hegemonic language(s) resistance are present among social groups or within elite classes. In China, the language shifts of English as a medium of instruction (EMI) to Chinese as a medium of instruction (CMI) were controversial issues by elite parental groups (Bolton 2003; Pak-Sang Lat and Byram 2003; Li 2008). Likewise, in Putonghua, the national language of China, challenged Cantonese, the shift to the regional dialect practised in Hong Kong (Li 2002; Bray and Koo 2003; Pak-Sang Lat and Byram 2003). Boyd (2007) aims at outlining some progressive multicultural and multilingual policies comparing perspectives on language policy in Sweden and Australia since the mid-1970s, to see how, in both countries, language policy has been formulated, carried out and subsequently changed since these policies were initiated. Economic globalisation; and regionalisation are "apparent weakening of the nation state and of nationalism as a viable political ideology" (2007, 141). She concluded that "those who make up the coalition supporting linguistic diversity in both countries have yet to convince both ordinary citizens and politicians of the benefits of multilingualism and linguistic diversity" (2007, 175). "Globalisation, rather than opening up possibilities for new lines of communication and new international communities, has instead led to a retreat in both countries from previously progressive multilingual and multicultural policies (2007, 175).

2.3.2 The Status of Languages in the Internet

Whilst economic forces as well as socio-political changes have been the primary drivers of globalisation, technical developments have contributed to shaping and speeding up the process. The profile of internet users perhaps best provides information of languages' status as well as points towards the big challenge

for language education. Table 2.2, showing English and non-English internet users from 1999 to 2002 (in percentages), clearly indicates that the percentage of non-English speaking users increased from 43.7 to 59.8, in contrast to English-speaking users which decreased from 56.3 to 40.2 per cent.

Table 2.2: English-Speaking and non-English-Speaking Users of the Internet 1999-2002 (percentage)

Year	1999	2000	2001	2002
English	56.3	51.3	47.5	40.2
Non-English	43.7	48.7	52.5	59.8

Source: (quoted in Mauaris 2004, 22).

Table 2.3 using figures in 1999 shows that on the Internet, the use of English has increased from 103.6 million to 270 million in 2003, or a 260 per cent increase. Similarly, the use of 'large' languages has increased. For example, German increased from 13.8 million to 49 million and French from 7.2 million to 28 million respectively. It is obvious enough that other languages have also substantially increased during that period. For example, Spanish from 14.2 million in 1999 to 53 million in 2003, Portuguese and Italian from 1.8 million to 26 million and 3.2 million to 27 million respectively, followed by Russian from 1 million to 15 million. Asian languages have increased substantially. The greatest increases were seen in Chinese and Japanese from 6.4 million to 125 million and 14.2 million to 75 million, correspondingly. Overall, while the numbers of English users have increased, the corresponding increase is not as exponential as other European languages (without English).

Table 2.3: Change in the Number of Internet Users by Language (1999-2003, in millions)

Languages	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
German	13.8	19.9	27.5	38.6	49.0
English	103.6	172.3	215.6	228.0	270.0
Catalan	-	-	0.6	1.9	2.2
Danish	-	-	2.6	3.2	n/a
Spanish	14.2	19.5	20.4	40.8	53.0
French	7.2	13.2	16.6	22.0	28.0
Finnish	1.4	2.2	2.3	2.1	3.5
Greek	-	-	1.5	1.6	3.0
Hungarian	-	-	0.8	1.3	3.0
Icelandic	-	-	0.1	0.2	n/a
Italian	3.2	10	14.2	20.2	27.0
Dutch	4.2	6	9.6	11.8	13.0
Norwegian	1,5	2.2	2.4	2.5	n/a
Polish	0.95	3.1	3.1	6.7	8.5
Portuguese	1.8	7.7	11.5	14.9	26.0
Romanian	-	-	0.6	0.8	1.2
Russian	1	7.7	9.3	11.5	15.0
Slovak	-	-	0.7	0.7	1.5
Slovenian	-	-	0.5	0.6	1.0
Swedish	3.6	3.6	5	6.2	n/a
Czech	-	-	0.4	2.2	3.0
Turkish	-	-	2.2	3.9	7.0
Ukrainian				0.8	2.0
Total European Languages (without English)	55	100.6	131.2	192.3	259.0
Arabic	-	-	2.5	4.1	6.0
Chinese	6.4	18.0	40.7	55.5	125.0
Korean	3.5	11.7	19.8	25.2	35
Hebrew			1.0	1.9	2.5
Japanese	14.2	27.3	38.8	52.1	75.0
Malay	0.68	2.2	2.8	4.8	7.0
Thai			1	2.3	3.0
Total Asian Languages	25.3	63.1	106.6*	146.2*	254.0

Notes: After 2001 the Asian languages include Arabic and Hebrew

Source: (quoted in Maurais 2003, 21)

The dominance of English as a global language is a growing issue challenging language planning and language policy across countries. Regarding English, scholars taking up radically different positions ranging from a linguistic imperialism (Phillipson 1992) via views of linguistic hegemony (Pennycook, 1994) to the belief the English was incidental to the process (Crystal 1997). Table 2.4 presents the Internet world users (percentage) in the ten largest languages in 2008. Internet world statistic present its latest estimates for Internet users by language.

The following table 2.4 reveals the top ten languages used in the web in 2008 in number of internet users per language. An example for data interpretation is that there are 124,714,378 Spanish-speaking people using the Internet. This represents 6.8 % of all the Internet users in the world. Out of the estimated 451,910,690 world population that speaks Spanish, only 27.6 % use the Internet. The number of Spanish-speaking Internet Users has grown 405.3 % in the last eight years (2000-2008).

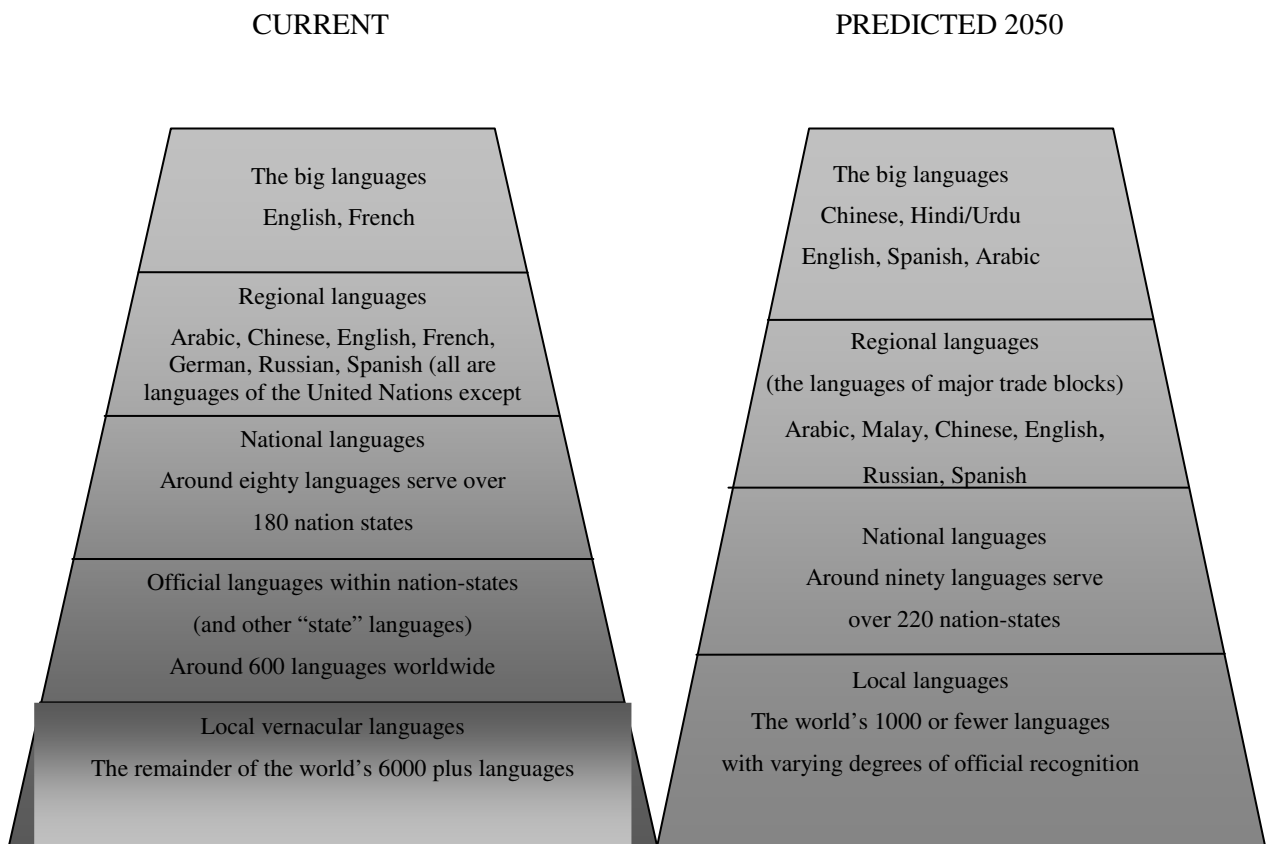
Table 2.4: Top Ten Languages Used in the Web in 2008 (number of internet users by language)

TOP TEN LANGUAGES IN THE INTERNET (2008)	% of all Internet Users	Internet Users by Language	Internet Penetration by Language	Language Growth in Internet (2000 - 2008)	2008 Estimated World Population for the Language
<u>English</u>	30.5	430,802,172	21.1 %	203.5 %	2,039,114,892
<u>Chinese</u>	20.4	276,216,713	20.2 %	755.1 %	1,365,053,177
<u>Spanish</u>	6.8	124,714,378	27.6 %	405.3 %	451,910,690
<u>Japanese</u>	1.9	94,000,000	73.8 %	99.7 %	127,288,419
<u>French</u>	6.1	68,152,447	16.6 %	458.7 %	410,498,144
<u>German</u>	1.4	61,213,160	63.5 %	121.0 %	96,402,649
<u>Arabic</u>	5.4	59,853,630	16.8 %	2,063.7 %	357,271,398
<u>Portuguese</u>	3.6	58,180,960	24.3 %	668.0 %	239,646,701
<u>Korean</u>	1.1	34,820,000	47.9 %	82.9 %	72,711,933
<u>Italian</u>	0.9	34,708,144	59.7 %	162.9 %	58,175,843
TOP 10 LANGUAGES	78.2	1,242,661,604	23.8 %	278.3 %	5,218,073,846
Rest of the Languages	21.8	220,970,757	15.2 %	580.4 %	1,458,046,442
<u>WORLD TOTAL</u>	100.0	1,463,632,361	21.9 %	305.5 %	6,676,120,288

Source: Table from Internet World Stats – www.internetworldstats.com/stats7.htm

The statuses of language in the globalizing process have become controversial in investigations (Christidis 1997; 2004). According to the ‘engco’ model (Figure 2.1), in the upcoming decades e.g. French is predicted to decline, and its role will be further weakened heading towards an oligopoly by 2050 (Graddol 1997; 2005). Likewise, the conclusion of the British Council report is that no language in the twenty-first century would have the hegemonic position that English had in the twentieth century (Maurais 2003, 17).

Figure 2.1: The Present and the Predicted Hierarchy of Languages in the Year 2050 Respectively



Source: (Graddol 1997, quoted in Maurais 2004, 17)

According to Jonstone (2003) the spread of English will continue to position countries having English as the dominant language in a position of increasing importance.

2.3 Language Planning and Language Policy: Governance Perspectives

2.3.1 The Role of English

As already extensively articulated (see chapter one, p. 34) the internationalisation of English has impacted and will impact linguistic patterns. Lo Bianco (2004), in Australia has placed language policy-making within the larger context of globalisation (Singh 2002; Dale 2005; Deacon 2005; Pang 2005) where English as the international lingua franca forces a consideration of the dynamics and implications of identity (Schmidt 2000; Extra 2007, Cahill 2009). Imam (2005) in Bangladesh pinpointed the need to redesign the school curriculum to enhance both Bangla literacy and English. According to Sieloff-Magnan and Tochon (2001), so far, languages have been learned to explore a new culture, for travelling and to finding a job. In contrast, at a time of globalisation, multilinguals are at competitive advantage for a growing number of jobs (Ghemawat 2007). Bilinguals earn more in the United States and, more recently, in the U K, as well as in Europe and Asia (Tochon 2009). Kirkgoz (2009), based on available research, official legislation and curriculum documents, argues that the status of English has been increased in the Turkish education system.

2.3.2 The Effects of Transnational Movements

The integration of immigrants and refugees into societies and language policy change is a crucial process in public discourse(s). Gallagher (2002) pointed out that many immigrant communities in Quebec prefer an English language education and have sought ways around the law concluding that the process of integrating immigrants and refugees into Canadian society is crucial because of the country's 'national unity' debate. The concepts of language(s) and ethnicity are so closely related that language functions as a major component in most definitions of ethnicity (Fishman 1977; Smolicz 1980, 1992; Cahill 2009). Trujillo (2005) has mapped the relationship of cultural ideology and prospective language policies in the Crystal City Independent School District as part of language planning and policy. Likewise, the present study has addressed similarities and differences in Australian and Greek governments' responses to migration.

Different countries' responses to language policy over the decades, was anticipated. For instance, in China, the constant struggle between accommodationism and integrationism since 1949 has divided the government's responses into three stages. The 'pluralistic' stage (1949-1957) which recognized minorities' language rights. The second 'monopolistic' stage (1958-1977) promoted Chinese over minority languages and reduced them to the minimal. The third 'pluralistic' stage (1978-present) was legislated for bilingual education but also this stage faced its dilemmas. However, according to Zhou and Heidi (2001) and Li (2009) the Chinese experience represents the limitation of minorities' rights and choices worldwide. Likewise, Adamson and Feng (2009) in a comparative study of trilingual

policies for ethnic minorities in China found that ethnic minority languages are at a disadvantage compared to Chinese and English.

2.3.3 The Intrinsic Importance of Languages

A number of countries have begun to emphasize the intrinsic importance of languages. In 2002, in the US, some panellists and educators expressed this opinion and demanded that the nation's leaders support schooling systems in bilingualism. Brau using the term 'heritage-language speakers' notified the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) of the particularly high need of people to master English along with any of the following language(s): Arabic, Cantonese, Dari, Farsi, Hindi, Mandarin, Pashto, Punjabi and Turkish (Gottlieb and Chen 2001; Kirkpatrick 2002). In the last decades, due to a number of socio-political changes taking place in many, if not all, European countries, 'heritage' languages have shifted their position to become part of the linguistic situation (Bot 1997; Liddicoat 2002; Freeland and Patrick 2004). European states' treatment towards minority languages aligns with the status assigned towards them at both European and national levels, Norway (Bull 2007), Sweden (Boyd 2007), Scotland (Lo Bianco 2007), Belgium and Germany (Nelde 2007), France, Netherlands and Spain (Extra, 2007). Pachler, Evans and Lawes (2007) pointed out that "Foreign Languages (FLs) are a unique case in the sense that they are a political concern within the European Union in a way that no other school subject is" (2007, 15).

Mechanisms and strategies for raising community awareness towards languages is an ongoing issue word-wide. In Europe, the objectives of the European Year of Languages 2001 were: (i) to increase awareness and appreciation for teaching Europe's linguistic heritage; (ii) to celebrate linguistic diversity; and (iii) to promote it in regional and national situations and possibilities (King 2001). Since 1990, numerous reports and articles in the US have described the mediocrity of students' second language skills (Tucker, 1998; Liddicoat et al. 1999).

Language policy practice is closely linked to the theory in the discipline. Guided by three interrelated research questions on 'ideology', 'policy' and 'politics', Ovando (2003) discusses 'permissive', 'restrictive', 'opportunist' and 'dismissive' perspectives on language education. The study argues that rather than driven by any consistent 'ideology', varying historical, political, social and economic challenges have shaped a nation's responses to language diversity. Taylor (2002) examined the new national language policies and practice in Estonia and South Africa using four public policy tests: 'desirability', 'justness', 'effectiveness' and 'tolerability'. The major findings from the study (p. 255-56) argue that theory and practice are not consistently connected because of the concomitant changes in both countries which is a basic tenet in Taylor's work. Despite the crucial interplay between theory and practice, the implementation in both countries was incoherent and ineffective due to concomitant changes and challenges across political, social and economic spectrum. According to Tollefson (2002)

one of the basic reasons why societies continue to adopt language policy contributing to linguistic imperialism is because the predominance of the undemocratic structure of the state.

For the politics of languages other than English, particularly in relation to the importance of languages such as Greek, at the beginning of the 20th century, the 'linguistic problem' dominated educational issues, (including language education) in Greece. The 'linguistic problem' has been academically described by Glinos (1975) as "*Kathareousa* which is a false and artificial language...should completely depart. *Dimotiki* language should be learned and naturally introduced into the schools" (p. 113) It is to be understood that the 'linguistic problem' was a socio-political issue:

"...the creation of a socialist society is the awakening of popular conscience...the awakening of conscience in the masses is impossible if there is not used the language that the population speaks.....and (this) will begin the construction of the socialist society...from the state, all social organisations as well as the newspapers and from all, everywhere and always" (Glinos 1975, p. 110).

The 'linguistic problem' "dimotikismos" had taken three forms, a) literary; b) educational; and c) social. Representatives of the social form had dreamed of resurrecting the "Byzantine empire" in a new form ([Ramas, Idas, Delta) (ibid p. 115). For the other two forms, their representatives were believed to have either been attempting to organise a robust modern urban state with educated workers (sociologists) or were presented as protagonists for "dimotikismos" or precursors of socialism (Chatzopoylos, Skliros, Tagkopoylos, Gkolfis, Paroritis] ([ibid], p. 115). In the middle of the 20th century when the socio-political framers endeavoured to set up a new and original school, the same opposition was expressed again by the National Congress organized by various institutions such as the Church and the police (Dimaras1986, p. [mg]-[md]).

In 1975, the 'linguistic problem' was summarized by Glinos:

...today the urban order does not have anymore any inclination to resolve the 'linguistic problem'. On the contrary, as long as the 'linguistic problem' becomes more conscious and more evident, like its solution,...the urban order has an interest to blur the waters....That is to say, the urban order does not want to resolve the 'linguistic problem', it wants to give a crooked solution, in order to complicate the strength of the intellect of the worker population (p. 116).

In 1975, Law no. 1234 concerning the '*dimotiki*' language was signed and enacted by the Minister of Education, Georgio Ralli, and its teaching was introduced at all levels of education (primary, secondary, tertiary) across the country.

2.3.4 The Technical Improvements

Facilitating governance's perspectives of language planning and language policy at national levels worldwide, innovative technologies and media, undoubtedly, improve language teaching and learning. London (2003) for the institutionalization of English, in Trinidad and Tobago, has critiqued the micro-technologies and ordinary practices used by managers as a form of colonial statecraft. He stressed that the enculturation provided by the political and economic imperatives of the imperial state was limited. According to Almanac (2004), about one million people, one-sixth of the world's population, were online. Not surprisingly, Panagiotidis (1999, 2004) pointed out that "Governments need to upgrade technical infrastructure in schools and telecommunications networks" (2004, 329). Also, scholars (such as Giddens 1999; Xatzidaki 2004; Burn 2005; Ghadar and Spindler 2005; Pachler 2005; Mishra and Koehler 2006) supported that technology is providing more access to information and entertainment and increases interaction with speakers of other languages and colleagues abroad.

McDermott (2000) disputed that technology provides chances/solutions to personal challenges. Analysing qualitative data from teacher narratives in many countries, he found that the schooling system had limitations to promoting cultural and linguistic maintenance in its student population. Garland (2006) argued that "...changing world geopolitics is already reforming the pressures on languages" (2006, 4). Using the rebirth of Hebrew and minority languages in Europe as examples, he concluded that certain innovations such as computer technology, support their preservation. According to Vanderplank (2009) the last technology using DVD, streaming video, video on demand, interactive television as well as older technologies is well established in language education, but in contrast, digital language(s) laboratories are in their infancy. Lastly, language professionals help societies to realize the role of language(s) in understanding and producing knowledge, creating and upholding multiple communicative networks (e.g. South American countries), (Kloss 1977; Johanson 1995; Morris 2003; Jong 2005).

2.4 Managing Multilingual Knowledge Economies

Educational systems and institutions have focused on the generalization and maintenance of legitimate language(s) and the creation of a unified linguistic market and its perpetuation. According to Bourdieu (1990; 1991) beyond the contextual background to the emergence of an official language(s) in each country(s), agents contribute to the perpetuation and standardization of language(s) as well as to the inevitability of the unification of the linguistic market. Multiple challenges and policies influence multilingual education across the globe. Tucker (1998) in a research study in Brunei Darussalam, Guatemala, Luxembourg, Namibia and Philippines argued that the world is not as monolingual as the media and some of the transnational corporations (Coca-Cola and McDonalds) have been led to believe (p. 13-14).

Not surprisingly, authorised governing organisations and governments resist language development for economic reasons. In Australia, the 1994 “Asian Languages and Australia’s Economic Future”, a key commonwealth language document, nominated four Asian languages (Chinese, Indonesian, Japanese and Korean) for Australia’s economic development. Cahill (2009) has argued that since the implementation of this 1994 report, the establishment of the study of Asian languages in Australia has become significant; however, the Howard government’s decision to cut their Commonwealth funding in 2002 was inappropriate at a time when Australia’s engagement with the nations of Asia became increasingly significant.

2.4.1 The Effects of Economic Prosperity

In a globalising workplace, countries, organisations and companies settle their management operating strategies for cultural appropriateness in culturally diverse environments. According to Guirdham (1999), successful multicultural teams are those which “have found ways of integrating the contribution of their members, and have learned to find solutions that add value due to their diversity not in spite of it” (1999. 204). Nowadays, the Council of Europe (2002) has created a Euro-pass for European citizens to increase their mobility within the EU, and in order to negotiate contracts. Citizens assess their language skills on a scale based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Little 2006).

Language(s) in economic terms is not valuable itself but holds a determined value in business and industry. Vaillancourt (1983, 1991) has produced an overall framework (Appendix 1) for the economics of language(s). The eighteen listed factors relate to various businesses and sectors of the multilingual economy at different times; it is unlikely to find any simple solutions to a country’s language needs. Not surprisingly, Lesser and Prussak (2000) pointed out that managers attempt to increase the level of social capital in their organisation through the development of communities of practice, creating, sharing and using knowledge, including linguistic knowledge.

Nowadays, universities as agents of knowledge production have been impacted by student mobility, curricula’s internationalisation, increased access to technology, and transition of the perception of knowledge into an economic good (Gibbons 2004; Ryan 2004). Also, publishing houses are pivotal agents shaping the world’s emerging multilingual knowledge economy. Due to the development of the second generation digital technologies (e.g. blue ray disc), language products are published in more than just one language. The indication of multilingualism is evident through the increased use and application of non-English language websites and e-banks, as well as through the advances of second generational digital technologies (Drucker 1998; Giorgas 2000 and Singh 2001).

According to Cope (2001) five areas of multilingual publishing that second generation technologies may have an impact on, are the following: (a) Unicode offered to everylanguage in the world; (b) the

convergence of linguistic and visual text creation tools; (c) the concept of text-structuring systems; (d) the potential for machine translations; and (e) the potential for flat economies of scale to enhance revival of small languages through digital print. Gerber (2001) pointed out that technology changes the market form of translation: (a) it simplifies translation projects in all areas; (b) types of translation done by humans will shrink; c) it provides a viable option for many more types of translation; (d) real-time translation becomes available for most texts between any written languages (Barton 1994); e) semantic annotation and analysis may alleviate the problem of language combinations (Gerber 2001, 105).

2.5 Second Language Education in Global Perspective

In various geographical regions, linguistic diversity, especially increasing linguistic diversity resulting from population movements, challenges educational responses. According to Morris (2003), the continuing influx of native Spanish-speakers to the US, especially from Mexico and their geographical concentration in strongly bonded communities along with the support received from the Mexican government, is positively impacting on maintaining/promoting home language. She criticised the North America Free Trade Area (NAFTA), a fairly well-structured organisation, that to achieve specific economic and political outcomes, it often does not consider the linguistic implications of issues. Inglis (2004), in a study conducted for its responses to ethnic and linguistic diversity, suggests that Australia needs to take into account achievements at a global scale to adapt adequate responses regarding languages' studies at a local level.

2.5.1 Second Language Education in Regional and National Contexts

Many multicultural countries teach the 'home language', a language other than the dominant one, thus advancing minority populations in regional and national contexts (Mitchell 2003; White 2004; Sliva 2005 and Jones 2006). In Canada, scholars have indicated that the most successful practices were found in 'heritage' language programs (Pachler, Evans and Lawes 2007). In Australia, Kipp and Clyne concluded that language shift/maintenance amongst different migrant groups was influenced by (i) the intergeneration factor; (ii) metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas; (iii) religion; (iv) geographical concentration/dispersion; and (v) language maintenance amongst speakers (2003, 36-40). The present research illustrates that there is some corresponding data for newcomers in Australia and Greece. According to Lambert (1999) intercultural teaching should examine prior knowledge about which aspects should be included and focus on moving the benchmark in language acquisition. Likewise, the present study will demonstrate how second language teaching was integrated into curriculum policies.

In the UK, the Nuffield Languages Inquiry (2000) examined the need to improve the situation of the teaching and learning of languages in relation to: (i) economic competitiveness; (ii) personal fulfilment; and (iii) civic responsibility. The most frequently cited problems facing primary school

foreign language programs (Carr and Pauwels 2006) were funding shortages, inadequate in-service teacher training, inadequate transitioning from primary to secondary school classes, and a high ratio of students to teachers. In addition to the problems cited by elementary schools, the most frequently cited problems facing secondary school foreign language programs were teacher shortages, lack of quality materials, and poor academic counselling for students. Some other scholars, such as Nelde (2001), Muller (2002), Morris (2003) and Kibbee (2003) who analysed language policy in Australia, Europe, the USA and Asia as countries with many students learning English as a second/foreign language under diverse funding arrangements, despite the different contextual factors, pinpoint the necessity of the provision of language learning teaching and learning.

In 2008, the International Expert Group pointed out that individuals and collectivities have (a) the right to maintain and to use their own language; and (b) the right to be educated in their mother tongue (either in state schools or in their own schools). But, world languages are the key to global understanding. Tochon (2009) suggests language education should be one of the strategic goals of public and private education. Similarly, Woodrum (2009) and Corbett (2009) pointed out that in rural New Mexico, language policy in the schooling system creates cultural and political tensions, triggering a wrenching choice between indigenous cultural identities and economic survival.

Current data collection methods are rapidly growing more complex in transnational contexts. Extra (2007) has highlighted how the increasing range of transnational contexts are currently impacting on language policy and on accompanying research, with the tensions between the country of birth and nationality criteria possibly misleading the aim of the research due to non-identification. This can happen in at least the following cases: (i) an increasing group of third and further generations (e.g. Chinese in the Netherlands); (ii) different ethnocultural groups from the same country of origin (cf. Turks versus Kurds from Turkey); (iii) the same ethnocultural group from different countries or origin (cf. Chinese from China versus from Vietnam); (iv) ethnocultural groups without territorial status (cf. the Roma people) (2007, 37).

2.5.2 The Changing Sociolinguistic Profile in Selected Multilingual Cities

Using the sociolinguistic perspective, a previously quoted study was conducted of more than 1,600,000 pupils in six multilingual cities (Brussels, Goteborg, Hamburg, Lyon, Madrid and The Hague). On the basis of the home-language profiles of all major language groups, a cross-linguistic and pseudo-longitudinal comparison was made of the reported multiple dimensions of language proficiency, choice, dominance and preference. Table 2.5 presents a ranking of the language vitality index (LVI) per language group of the combined pupil group (aged 6-11 years). Romani/Sinte was found to have the highest language vitality across the groups, and English and German had the lowest. The bottom position of English was explained by the fact that this language has a higher status as a lingua franca than as a language spoken at home. According to Extra, “one reason why language vitality is a core value for the Roma across Europe is the absence of source country references as

alternative markers of identity – in contrast to almost all other language groups under consideration” (2007, 45).

Table 2.5: The Language Vitality Index Ranked per Language Group in Six Multilingual Cities in Europe:

Ranking	Language group	LVI
1	Roman/Sinte	70
2	Turkish	68
3	Urdu	68
4	Armenian	63
5	Russian	60
6	Serbian/Croatian/Bosnian	59
7	Albanian	59
8	Vietnamese	58
9	Chinese	58
10	Arabic	58
11	Polish	56
12	Somali	55
13	Portuguese	54
14	Berber	52
15	Kurdish	51
16	Spanish	48
17	French	44
18	Italian	39
19	English	36
20	German	33

Source: Based on Extra and Yagmur 2004, 375 (quoting Extra 2007, 45)

Nelde (2007, 60) through a long, overdue and thorough analysis dealing with the ‘Production and Reproduction of Minority Language Groups in the European Union’, known as the Euro mosaic Report, pointed out some new perspectives impacting on multilingualism in the new century: (i) multilingualism...for many European countries...is becoming commonplace; (ii) ...multi-lingualism today increasingly serves as a driving economic force, creating more jobs and improving the standard of living (cross-border traffic, translation profession, supranational employers); (iii) economic driving forces such as globalisation, while promoting the major languages, are inconceivable without the strong tendencies towards regionalization that provide small and medium-sized languages in all spheres of a multilingual environment with new chances of survival; (iv) most recent developments are that multilingual speakers of ‘small’ language no longer need to deny their identity and exclusively assimilate to the prestigious language.

Nelde continues by outlining five propositions for (future) European language policy as follows: (1)...strong demands to move towards a “New Multilingualism”. (2). contact linguistic models ...to

illustrate the multidisciplinary nature of multilingual phenomena; (3). linguistic conflicts (natural or artificial) in Europe are not only historical; they are already pre-programmed for the future by European language politicians; (4). the share that individual European languages have in present language conflicts varies with German as the biggest EU language presenting an interesting case; (5). a successful subsidiary language policy in Europe ... in view of conflict, neutralization must be “Europeanised”, that is, it must become an integral part of a European language policy. He concluded that “if the politicians concerned with minority languages were not adopting such an exemplary attitude of reserve, new 'artificial' conflicts would almost be inevitable” (Nelde 2007, 66);

Moreover, census language data in multilingual situations should be treated with some scepticism. According to Nelge bilingual people for some reason or other, depending on their socio-economic status, their cultural identity, and so on, always prefer one language, “therefore a collection of data on bi-or multilingualism in the form of a numerical survey of the speakers will hardly produce socially reliable information on a particular region”. A good example is Germany where it is not easy to distinguish the different terms used with respect to ‘newcomers’, persons who have arrived since the mid-1980s, and to reveal the different ideological points of view inherent or even hidden behind them (transit-guest-foreign-immigrant-emigrant-worker, re-settler, repatriated persons, economic refugee, ect.) (2007, 72).

2.6 What Works in Countries Worldwide

In recent years, language planning and language policy have undergone a somewhat turbulent period, leading to a reassessment of their place within the education domain. The basis for questioning, discussion, debate and critical reflection, is provided in Table 2.6 in which Pufahl et al (2000) compared ‘foreign’ language education in twenty countries. The table includes first foreign language, age of introduction, compulsory language(s) as well as additional foreign language(s). As the fifth column shows, fourteen out of twenty countries listed have English as a first compulsory language. Two of the remaining (Morocco, Luxembourg) offer it as additional foreign language, whereas Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the US have English as national or official language.

Table 2.6: Foreign Languages Offered in Different Countries Worldwide

2X means that two languages are compulsory

Country	First Foreign Language	Starting Age	Compulsory	Additional Foreign Languages
Australia	Varies	6		French, German, Greek, Italian, Indonesian, Chinese
Austria	English	6	X	French, Italian
Brazil	English	11 or 12	X	Spanish, French, German
Canada	French	10	X	German, Spanish, Italian, Japanese, Mandarin, Chinese, Punjabi
Chile	English	>12	?	French, German, Italian
Czech Republic	English and German	9	2x	French, Russian, Spanish
Denmark	English	10	2x	German, French, Spanish
Finland	English or other	9	2x	Swedish, Finnish, German, French, Russian, Spanish, Italian
Germany	English or other	8	2x	French, Spanish, Russian, Italian, Turkish
Israel	English	10	X	Hebrew, French, Arabic
Italy	English	8	x	French, German, Spanish, Russian
Kazakhstan	English	10	x	German, French
Luxembourg	German and French	6 and 7	2x	English, Italian, Spanish
Morocco	French	9	x	English, Spanish, German
Netherlands	English	10 or 11	2x	German, French
New Zealand	French	>12		Japanese, Maori, German, Spanish
Peru	English	>12	?	French, German
Spain	English	8	x	French, German, Italian, Portuguese
Thailand	English	6	x	French, German, Chinese, Japanese, Arabic
United States	Spanish	14		French, German, Japanese

Source: Pufahl, et al (2007)

2.6.1 An Early Learning

Factors facilitating or inhibiting language education across countries are major issues. Early learning of language(s) appear(s) to promote the achievement of higher levels of language proficiency (Sharpe 2001; Jonstone 2003; Bialystok and Martin 2004). A well-articulated curriculum framework is important to motivate and guide language education. Such framework(s) (e.g. Council of Europe) bring(s) consistency and coherence, coordinating efforts and initiatives of organizations and governments. Accordingly, during the past decade many European countries have already adapted their language education to the 2001 “Common European Framework of Reference for Languages”, promoting multilingualism. The Council of Europe’s project “Language Policies for a Multilingual

and Multicultural Europe (1997-2000)” launched activities of what learners should be able to master when using a language in daily life. Due to increasing attention paid to foreign languages by its Ministry of Education, world business, parents and media, Italy introduced new, different and more challenging perspectives to be adjusted according to the Common European Framework of Reference.

2.6.2 Well-trained Teaching Professionals

Well-trained teaching professionals are related to excellence in language education. In Europe, rigorous pre-service training and the expansion of language teacher training has been a successful development. In Netherlands and the UK, study and work abroad programs are specifically related to the high level of language proficiency. The Czech Republic has established new language teacher training departments. Likewise, in Italy, new graduate and post-graduate language courses have been introduced. In most German states, there is a trend towards higher demand for foreign language teachers for specific purposes outside the school sector (Nuffield, 2000). Italian teachers of the English language are sometimes trained at exactly the same time as becoming teachers whilst learning English simultaneously. This study will document the evolution of trained teaching professionals over the years in both Australia and Greece as a critical issue.

In-service training, not surprisingly, is considered one of the keys to success. Several countries use similar activities to accommodate language teachers’ specialisation (Lambert and Pachier 2002). The Czech Republic’s language teachers increasingly study abroad or attend international courses in Sweden and the Netherlands, countries having excellent reputations for foreign language teaching (Nortier 2008). In Germany, language teachers choose from a variety of in-service training courses. Likewise in Italy, language teachers, compared to teachers of other subjects, can look back at a long tradition of in-service training. Since 1990 Spanish primary school language teachers have been required to be specialists in their chosen language. Language teachers’ participation in courses, seminars, and conferences is very high in Finland and Germany. Similarly, China’s language teachers are trained by English teachers from abroad (Li, 2002). In the present study, a discussion of the nature of in-service training for language teachers for both Australia and Greece has been discussed.

2.6.3 Language Education as a Medium of Instruction

In many countries language education as a medium of instruction in other subjects works as well. Learning content-area subjects through the medium of a language has become increasingly popular in many countries. For example, in Norway, Sweden and Australia, Germany and the Netherlands various schools teach geography, history, music, physical education, and vocational or technical skills (usually in English). Similarly, in the Netherlands and Luxembourg, vocational schools teach hotel management using French or German. In Canada, the English-speaking majority is learning French in immersion bilingual programs. Likewise in Austria and the Netherlands immersion bilingual programs

in English can be found. In Germany in two-way immersion programs students spend half the day using German, and the other half use another foreign language in addition to English, with English being the first compulsory foreign language with a subsequent choice between French or Italian and/or Turkish as a second foreign language (Truchot 2003, Klapper 2003; Schmenk 2004; Hellinger and Pauwels 2007; Garcia 2009). The present research will discuss bilingual programs during the years for both Australia and Greece.

Intercultural learning, regardless of subject content of shaping identities, is a common approach in many countries. In Peru in predominantly rural areas a project to teach Spanish to Quechua-speaking children was successful. China introduced Western-style teaching methods and educators realized that they have to be modified to Chinese learners' needs and to specific socio-cultural contexts (Schlyter 2003). Also, national language policies facilitate language education at local levels. Finland's national long-term and systematic macro-level language policy helped for a more local level development. In Spain, core curriculum, precise time allocation with a compulsory timetable in the weekly teaching at the same time allows great flexibility at the local level. In Canada curricular framework provided by the governments gave tremendous freedom to language teachers' strength their respective local systems (Morris 2003).

2.6.4 The Status of Languages within the School Curriculum

The status of languages within the school curriculum as a core subject is an ongoing issue and has been also of considerable concern to a number of scholars who are interested in the role of language in the school curriculum. In Germany, in particular, languages claim the same status as mathematics and social studies. In Finland, language learning has been accorded the status of a core study. This means that, since the early 1970s, all students study a minimum of two languages: one of the two official languages, Swedish or Finnish (whichever is not native to the student), and one foreign language, most often English. At least one third of students select to study a second and a third foreign language. In Canada, Kazakhstan, Morocco and Thailand, at least one foreign language is compulsory for all students (Garcia 2009).

In 2000, a study conducted in New South Wales, Australia investigated teachers' perceptions about LOTE practice in primary schools. Some key findings, from 119 teachers, relevant to the importance of LOTE were the following: (1). Teachers recognized the cultural benefits (strength) but lacked understanding of cognitive and vocational benefits; (2). LOTE has poor status as a subject, received minimal teaching time, and was poorly resourced by schools and funding authorities (weaknesses); (3). Most teachers believed LOTE should not be taught in the early years of school (Andreou 2000, quoting Erebus 2002, 78-79).

A number of countries have begun to emphasize the intrinsic importance of community language teaching (CLT) from cultural, legal and economic respects. The US began to recognize the value of learning other languages mirroring findings from other parts of the world (Garcia 2009). Christian et al. (2005) argued that “the U.S. needs to put into place the kinds policies and practices that other countries have successfully established...teaching and learning languages” (Bot and Gorter 2005, 3). Concerning the educational perspective, Extra (2007) very well points out in a cross-national summary the outcomes of a comparative study of nine parameters of CLT in primary and secondary education in six countries (Sweden, Germany, Netherlands, Belgium, France and Spain) (see Table 2.7).

Table 2.7: Status of Community Language Teaching in European Primary and Secondary Education, according to Nine Parameters in Six Countries (Sw=Sweden, G=Germany, N=Netherlands, B=Belgium, F=France, Sp=Spain)

CLT parameters	Primary education	Secondary Education
1. Target groups	Immigrant Minority children in a broad vs. narrow definition in terms of the spectrum of languages taught (Sp < N B F < G Sw). Language use and language proficiency (G N B Sp < Sw F)	de jure: mostly Immigrant Minority pupils, sometimes all pupils (in particular N) de facto: Immigrant Minority pupils in a broad vs. narrow sense [see left((limited participation, in particular B Sp)]
2. Arguments	Mostly in terms of a struggle against deficits, rarely in terms of multicultural policy (N B vs. other countries)	mostly in terms of multicultural policy, rarely in terms of deficits (all countries)
3. Objectives	Rarely specified in terms of (meta-) linguistic and (inter) cultural skills (Sw G Sp vs. N B F)	specified in terms of oral and written skills to be reached at interim and final stages (all countries)
4. Evaluation	Mostly informal/subjective through teacher, rarely formal/objective through measurement and school report figures (Sw G F vs. B V Sp)	formal/objective assessment plus school report figures (Sw G N vs. B F Sp)
5. Minimal enrolment	Specified at the level of classes, schools, or municipalities (Sw vs. G B F vs. N Sp)	specified at the level of classes, schools, or municipalities (Sw N vs. other countries)
6. Curricular status	Voluntary and optional within vs. outside regular school hours (G N Sp vs. S B F) 1-5 hours per week	voluntary and optional within regular school hours one/more lessons per week (all countries)
7. Funding	by national, regional or local educational authorities by consulates/embassies of countries of origin (Sw N vs. B Sp, mixed G F)	by national, regional or local educational authorities by consulates/embassies of countries of origin (Sw N F vs. B Sp, mixed G)
8. Teaching Materials	from countries of residence from countries of origin (Sw G N vs. B F Sp)	from countries of residence from countries of origin (Sw N F vs. B Sp)
9. Teacher qualifications	From countries of residence from countries of origin (Sw G N vs. B F Sp)	from countries of residence from countries of origin (Sw N F vs. B Sp)

Source: (Extra 2007, 49-50).

Fundamental to any examination of language planning or policy initiatives is access to data documenting linguistic diversity. Australia has used a national survey (Census) since 1976 to detail its linguistic demography (Kipp 2007). Collection of language data at the European level is not yet a

reality; information on population figures in EU member states can be obtained from the statistical Office of the EU in Luxembourg (EuroStat). Greece as a member state of the EU can obtain data from EuroStat (Boyd 2007). What follows is an address of the research process describing its aim and objectives and how they were met.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH PROCESS

3.1 The Research Process

This comparative research study is fundamentally about public policy in regard to language education planning and policy in Australia and Greece. In the collection of data, the research strategy was, in the main, based on:

- (i) **documentation data (both published and archival) from the mid-1970s to the first five years of the millennium, supplemented by**
- (ii) **interviews with key informants in both Australia and Greece.**

In the first part of this chapter, the underpinning research process will be explained followed by the theoretical framework for interpreting the data. The third section will detail the research methodology. In developing the present research process, considerable effort was put into answering two questions in particular. First, what methods were employed in the research study? Secondly, how were this choice and the use of methods justified? The answer to the second question addressed the key research aim and objectives.

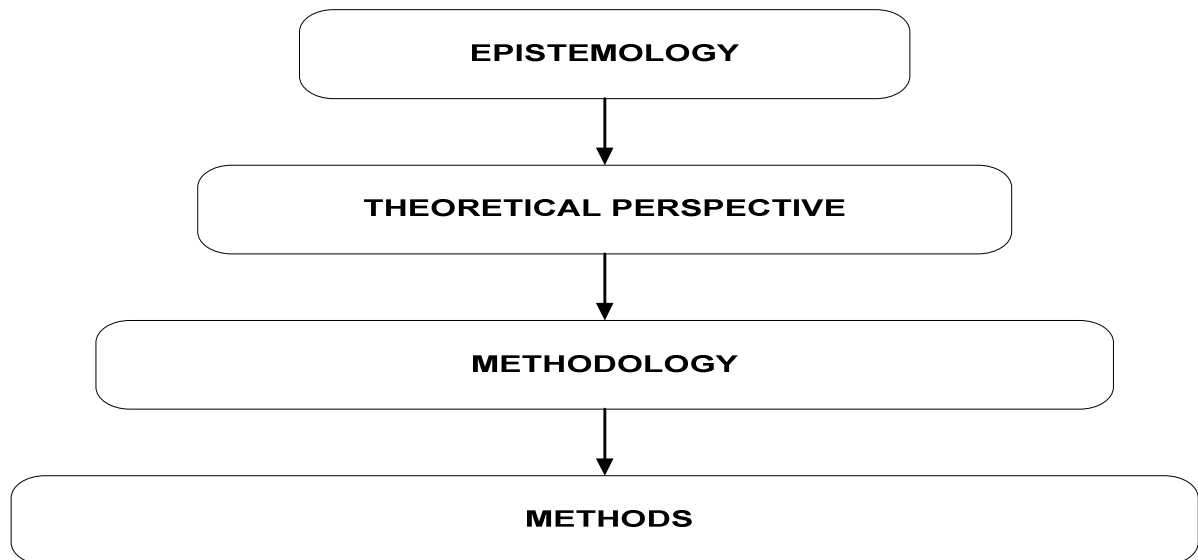
In developing the present research, considerable effort was put into addressing the following four elements:

- (a) the underlying epistemological underpinning (Hacking 1999; Douglas 2002) which, as Crotty (1998, 3) states is: “the theory of knowledge embedded in the theoretical perspective and thereby in the methodology”;
- (b) the theoretical perspective or “the philosophical stance informing the methodology and thus providing a context for the process and grounding its logic and criteria” (Crotty 1998, 3);
- (c) the methodology approach, including the strategy, plan of action, process and design that lay behind the choice and use of the particular methods and linking the choice and use of methods to the desired outcomes (Crotty 1998); and

(d) the actual research methods or “the techniques and procedures that were used to gather and analyse the data related to the key research question” (Crotty 1998, 3).

These four elements informed one another, as portrayed in figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1: Four Epistemological Elements



Source: (Crotty 1998, 4).

3.1.1 Epistemology

Epistemology deals with “the nature of knowledge, its possibility, scope and general basis” (Hamlyn 1995, 242). Maynard (1994, 10) explains the relevance of epistemology: “Epistemology is concerned with providing a philosophical grounding for deciding what kinds of knowledge are possible and how it can be ensured that they are both adequate and legitimate”. Hence there was a need to identify, explain and justify the epistemological stance which was adopted. Crotty (1998) nominates three main epistemologies: (a) Objectivism; (b) Constructionism (Giddens 1984); and (c) Subjectivism. Constructionism epistemology was assessed to be the theory or nature of knowledge most appropriate for investigating the given research aim and objectives; it states that human beings do not find or discover knowledge so much as construct or make it (Crotty 1998). Another justification is that qualitative researchers tend to invoke it (Mason 2002; Maxwell 2005). Since documentation was one major source of data, constructionism as an approach is important because each relevant key document is a socially and educationally constructed text.

According to Crotty (1998), “Truth, or meaning, comes into existence in and out of our engagement with the realities in our world. There is no meaning without a mind. Meaning is not discovered, but constructed” (p. 8-9). Furthermore, in the view of Crotty (1998) constructionism “is the view that all

knowledge, and therefore all meaningful reality as such, is contingent upon human practices, being constructed in and out of the interaction between human beings and their world, and developed and transmitted within an essentially social context” (p. 42). In this understanding of knowledge, it is clear that different people (in this study, different people in Greece and Australia) may construct meaning in different ways, even of the same phenomena (such as language planning and language policy).

3.1.2 Theoretical Perspective

The theoretical perspective brought to the research task and reflected in the methodology used, as the most appropriate for investigating the given research aim and objectives, was interpretivism. “Sturcturation theory is ultimately a synthesis of *interactionist* and *interpretive* thinking...with its focus on the operation of social systems and the resilience of objective structures” (Giddens 1984, xxi). According to Crotty (1998) interpretivism is the theoretical perspective that grounds the assumptions in most explicit fashion and deals directly with issues such as language, communication, interrelationships and community. ‘Theoretical perspective’...means the philosophical stance lying behind a methodology. It provides a context for the process involved and a basis for its logic and criteria. Whenever one examines a particular methodology, one discovers a complexus of assumptions buried within it. These assumptions constitute one’s theoretical perspective and they largely have to do with the theoretical school of thought that the methodology envisages. Different ways of viewing the world around us shapes the different ways of researching the world. Interpretivism attempts to understand and explain human and social reality. “The interpretivist approach looks for culturally derived and historically situated interpretations in its explanations of the social life-world” (Crotty 1998, p.66- 67).

3.1.3 Methodology

The research methodology is the research design that shapes the choice and use of particular research methods (Burns 2000; Maxwell 2005) and links them to the research aims and objectives. The methodological dimension of the present research has to incorporate an ethnographic element. The term denotes a qualitative orientation to research (Hollway and Jefferson 2000; Mann and Stewart 2000). As Colton and Covert (2007) have stated, the methodological dimension comprises the argument that social research necessarily has to incorporate an ethnographic element. “a common way to do qualitative inquiry” is through the case study of which there are three types according to Stake (quoted in Denzin and Lincoln 2000, p. 444-45) all of which are used in the thesis. The three types used are, the *intrinsic case study* which is for better understanding of this particular research for the thesis, the *instrumental case study* which provides insight into an issue or to redraw a generalization, and the *multiple case study* or *collective case study* which extends to several cases. Likewise, Harrison White (1992) categorized social science casework according to three purposes: case studies for identity, explanation, or control (quoted in Denzin and Lincolns 2000, p. 447). Based on the

aforementioned, it is likely that the type of present study for the thesis is partly intrinsic and instrumental case study, mostly for explanation. One of the drivers for the selection and analysis of the present case study interviews as a part of the research for this thesis was the following: “Comparison is a grand epistemological strategy, a powerful conceptual mechanism, fixing attention upon one or a few attributes. Thus the case study approach to the thesis obscures any case knowledge that fails to facilitate comparison” (Denzin and Lincoln 2000, p. 457). The selection and analysis of the case study interviews was designed featuring comparison substituting (a) the comparison for (b) the case as the focus of the study

In this thesis, four methodological dimensions describe the research process, in terms of combinations of elements across these dimensions: (a) the research design according to the strategic principles of research (here, case-comparative study); (b) the data elicitation methods (here, collection of documents, individual interviewing); (c) the data analysis procedures (content analysis, coding, indexing, semiotical, rhetorical and discourse analysis); and d) knowledge interests (Lee 2000; Stake 2000).

Before the specific research methods used in the research were decided upon, the research problem and the aim and objectives of the research were spelled out. ‘Languages’ is used throughout this document in place of the term ‘Languages other than English’ and refers to all languages other than English, including Australian indigenous languages in primary and secondary schools. In this research the term ‘languages’ does not include Australian Sign Language (Auslan) and adult languages education. Additionally this study does not utilise any specific theory, for example social or democratic theory as its foundation to critically analyse the data contained in this thesis.

3.2 Research Problem

The process of globalisation in the 21st century rendered the world diversified, interconnected and multilingual, and despite some concerns about an emergence of a homogenized ‘global village’, communication between people is conducted in many languages. Movements of people have positively impacted on the levels of mutual understanding amongst many different diversified cultures. The governing of multilingualism, as well as economic and commercial values generated by linguistic diversity, are specific problems facing many national governments in multicultural and in multilingual countries.

Within decades, several studies have examined language planning and language policy development in Australia and Greece as well as worldwide (Haugen 1983; Haarmann 1990; Luke et al. 1990; Gonzalez 1990; Alderson and Baretta 1992; Cahill 1996; Kalantzis and Cope 1999; Dendrinos 2004; Ricento 2000, 2006), but the solutions in the schooling context remain an ongoing and ever-changing

process. According to Steiner-Khamsi (2006) divergence prevails. Whereas scholars such as Phillipson (2003; 2008) and Skutnabb-Kangas (2006) see a clear connection between (a) the interests of those in power at regional, national, and international levels; (b) the language that is internationally privileged across countries; and (c) the policies that support these developments, a few analysts (Block 2004; Pennycook 2006; Ricento 2006) question the link between these variables because of the relative autonomy of educational actors, communities, and agencies.

In Australia, little is known in any succinct chronological listing of national and state key documents for language planning and policy across the last three decades. Likewise, in Greece, factors that would likely influence language planning policy development have not been examined previously. On the other hand, there is a need to be aware of international policies regarding language education planning and policy development because: (a) planning and policy in language education depends on the geopolitical, sociocultural and educational context of each country, and (b) especially in Greece, because of the challenges of the EU, it is more likely that it is vital to have the latest outcomes surrounding policy and planning in language education based on the experience of multicultural countries, such as Australia. According to Boyd "...Australian policy has led to be praised in North America, New Zealand and Europe" (2007, 165).

A further matter for consideration is that both in Australia and Greece, language planning and policy development lies in partnership with Australia's national-region and the EU's language planning and policy, respectively. Australian and Greek language planning and policy development seek to address cultural and linguistic diversity to enable people to participate in social, political and economic institutions, and on equal terms. From a school policy perspective, this study sets out to explore the value of languages in the schooling system and how these have been addressed in the aforementioned from a school policy perspective.

However, both in the case of Greece and Australia, it is a question related to language planning and policy at large rather than with each country separately. Very limited research has been carried out with regard to comparative and constructive perspectives of Australia and other countries and how each, in its own way, may contribute to developing language planning, processes and practice in a variety of circumstances. It should be pointed out that this picture of Australian language policy is incomplete, because it describes mainly Commonwealth policy (Boyd p. 170) (Chapter 1, 2 and 3). Two broad factors, globalisation and the shared Europeanist ideology of one nation-one language, constitute grounds for comparison between Australia and individual Greek practices in relation to language planning/policy.

3.3 Aim of the Research Study

As already articulated, the aims of this thesis were to investigate how well Australia and Greece have, each in their specific context, designed policy and program implementation for language education and what they can learn from each other. To achieve this aim, the research project benefited greatly from being structured around three interrelated research objectives.

Objective one: To document the evolution of language planning and policy development over the past thirty five years in Australia and Greece.

Objective two: To analyse the process of language policy development over the past thirty five years in Australia and Greece within their educational, socio-political and economic contexts at local, national and global levels.

Objective Three: To assess for both Australia and Greece the impact of policy upon practice, and of evaluation upon both policy-planning and practice over the past thirty five years.

3.4 Research Methods

Given the scope and the nature of the aims and objectives of the present research, it was decided to focus on two different ways of collecting data: (a) documents (both published and archival) as the major data source; and (b) individual interviews (Yin 1994; May 2001; Plummer 2004; Marshall, 2006).

3.4.1 Documentation Data

Over the last three decades, government language documents have been put in place in Australia and Greece from the 1970s up to 2005. The strategy was that both the official archival (Greek) and published (Australian and Greek) documents be collected and presented chronologically.

A succinct chronological mapping of the official Greek archival and published data was conducted. Twelve published official documents; government gazettes (see Appendix two) representing the official legislative government responses (1978-2003) to language education in Greece were identified and gathered by the Greek National Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs (then called), Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs (now called). For the archival data, the Greek Pedagogical Institute was approached. For several decades archival volumes concerning all key learning areas of primary and secondary education were documented. 'Praxes' conducted at KEME (Centre of Educational Projects and Professional Development for Secondary Education) and the Pedagogical Institute have addressed all key learning areas; the selected 'praxes' (346 documents

or ‘praxes’) refer to language policy development. ‘Praxis’ in this context means official written policy documents held at KEME from 1978-1989 and at the Pedagogical Institute of the Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs from 1989-2005.

‘Praxes’ involved government representatives, public servants as well as many others involved such as experts, academics and others working together to develop language policy. It seems that any ‘praxis’ represents a ‘policy cycle’ or a ‘policy development framework’ and has been organised most times around the frameworks (as described in chapter 1, p. 65). ‘Praxes’ describe the evolution of the behind-the-scenes story of negotiations, dialogue and disputes in the Greek Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs (1978-2005) and other bodies in global, national and regional contexts to clarify how, why, when and by whom language planning and policy was developed. Any individual ‘praxis’ and all combined together, along with the official government gazettes, are relevant with what Dendrinis pointed out in “...the resulting decisions are shaped in the framework of specific discursive practices and texts (Ball 1993) through which the pedagogic aims and goals of foreign language programmes are defined” (Dendrinis 2001, i). Overall, the ‘praxes’ reveal how language policy has been formulated, carried out and subsequently changed once these policies were initiated.

Essentially, 1978 was selected as the beginning year because there were no records at KEME before that year and 2005 as the end year because ‘praxes’ beyond that period were not bound in an official hard copy available to the public. A succinct chronological timeline of the ‘praxes’ titles are listed in Appendix 11. It includes a table with five columns and 334 rows which present all the ‘praxes’ for language planning and policy development in Greece. The first row of the table (Appendix 11) includes the following: A/A: Ascending order for the purposes of the thesis, N: Praxis number recorded in the official record books, Y: Year of praxis conducted, T: title.

The translation policy from Greek into English titles was not based on a literal translation. Although a succinct translation was made when appropriate, it is important to also note that the translation was shaped according to linguistic appropriateness. For instance, some Greek expressions, if translated in the literal sense, would not linguistically make sense in English. Therefore, some words in English (that may not have been used in the Greek phrases) were utilised in translation in order to retain the original intention of the Greek phrase. In some titles, one or more words were used to be more succinct with their content. Some titles are repeated because either the ‘praxis’ or subjects (including language policy) were postponed to be discussed for the next ‘praxis’. In addition, considerable effort was made to use the terminology of the times so as to reveal its changes over the years.

In effect, key ‘praxes’ were highlighted as milestones, as language planning and policy developed through the years. In analysing the praxes, considerable emphasis was given to the political nature of foreign language education illustrating how ideology impacted on related social practices in a complex

network of social, political, cultural and economic relationships. Focus was also maintained on four major issues: (a) Selection or rejection of foreign languages in primary and secondary schools; (b) Curriculum policy; (c) Materials policy and (d) Ministerial Joint Standing Committees between Greece and other countries. The official archival documents or “praxes” have been described and analysed in the light of what Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) have stated:

“First, it has to determine which language(s) will be taught within the curriculum...to specified hours/day, days/week, and weeks/academic year...to determine what sort of proficiency is deemed to meet the needs of the society...second it must define the teacher supply...the nature of pre-service training...of in-service training...as well as equity in the reward structure...third, it will need to determine what methodology (ies)...what materials will...how and by whom...and how they will be disseminated through the system...fifth, it will need to define assessment processes...finally, it will need to support...all of this activity fiscally and physically...(ibid, 124).

In Australia many documents were surveyed according to chronological order and were viewed “as attempts at persuasion” (May 1993). A total of 154 published Commonwealth (see Appendix 9) and 76 Victorian (see Appendix 10) language documents were identified. These lists were constructed by searching electronic libraries’ lists across Victoria, as well as in bibliographies and references within the documents. Most of the documents were collected through ‘document delivery services’ by the RMIT University asking for each document the following: first and last cover, contents, summary, introduction, rationale, terms of reference, conclusions and recommendations. In the analysis, some documents were identified as milestones. These key documents were identified to address the aim of the study. Accordingly, 48 Commonwealth (see Appendix 9) and 24 Victorian (see Appendix 10) key documents were thus identified.

Nowadays, not surprisingly, international educational agreements are increasing features of educational co-operation and the globalisation of education. Through bilateral agreements, countries are committed to exploring the development of joint activities to facilitate more or less precisely the maintenance and/or the promotion of cultural and linguistic issues in education. The protection, maintenance and promotion of diasporic communities and minority languages constitute a crucial factor for peace and harmony, facilitated by such agreements and contribute to the legalization or recognition of actions undertaken from the signatory countries. Moreover the network governance of cultural and language issues between the hosting and posting countries, as well as the diasporic communities and/or minorities, not surprisingly, is facilitated by reciprocity agreements and contribute to language education planning (Department of Education and Training Victoria 2006).

Since the 1970s Australia has responded, officially, to the increasing challenges of migration in its schooling system. As mentioned above, part of the aim of this thesis is to examine how well Australia

has designed its language education planning in a global context. To achieve this aim, objectives were formulated asking three questions to guide the research. First, have official government-to-government agreements been signed between Australia and other countries for language education? This question seeks to map their number, the countries and the year of signatory. Second, which major issues have been addressed to facilitate implementation? This question examines specific means and joint activities to address the major issues of implementation. Third, can these specific government-to-government agreements be considered tools, which either less or more precisely have contributed to the language education planning in Australia? This question examines specific negotiated attempts.

After having answered the above questions, a brief history of the latest constitutional talks taking place in Greece for migrants' languages will be presented exploring the possibility of Greece learning from Australia's experience. To respond to the above questions, the State of Victoria was selected as the most multicultural and multilingual State in Australia across the decades. The international division of the Department of Education and Training in Victoria was approached through the Minister for Education and Training, concerning official bilateral educational agreements. Based on the data that was given, 17 educational agreements and memorandums have been signed between Victoria and other countries (see Appendix 12). What do these agreements contain, what has been agreed about?

In order to analyse and interpret the agreements the following definitions were used. Language planning "refers to deliberate efforts to influence the behavior of others with respect to the acquisition, structure, or functional allocation of their language codes" Cooper (1989, 45); it "is a body of ideas, laws and regulations (language policy), change rules, beliefs, and practices intended to achieve a planned change (or to stop change from happening) in the language use in one or more communities" (Kaplan and Baldauf 1997, 3). These descriptions and Vries's (1991) suggestion that language policy is the implementation of language planning in conjunction with Silverman's statement that qualitative research deals with interpreting social realities were also used to conduct a content analysis (Bryman 2001; Silverman 2009). If these agreements were/are virtual tools, what must be addressed or to what extent these were/are effective tools, this is beyond the aim of this study.

3.4.2 Interview Data

As a supportive element to the research strategy, several interviews (individual or depth interview) with key informants were conducted. According to Burns (2000), key informants interviewing allows the informants to share with the researcher their special knowledge and status. Individuals were chosen in order to ensure representativeness. Interviews were designed and conducted, according to what Elliot (2005) stated that the real purpose of qualitative research is not counting opinions or people but rather exploring the range of opinions and the different representations of the issue. The interviews had one main advantage and this was that data was collected from a reasonable and representative number of informants both in Australia and Greece. All in all, 15 key informants (eight

in Australia and seven in Greece) who were or are involved with educational and language matters were approached.

The reliance on interviewees enabled the researcher to draw upon a number of perspectives in the analysis of the historical events, as well as current and future challenges. Such an approach enabled the collection of a richer description of the events analysed in the key documents because of variation in emphasis and the use of different perspectives to illustrate points in the discussion and conclusion chapters. Assessment of the various documents and events was also facilitated by these series of interviews, minimised bias as much as possible. Interviewing key informants gave the study more validity and reliability. The key informants were purposefully sampled to add reliability and validity to the research. The data of these interviewees served the following purposes: (i) They allowed access to past events; (ii) They allowed access to situations at which the researcher was not historically present; (iii) They allowed cross-checking against documents and data collected in this thesis; (iv) They were used to allow a further understanding of language planning and language policy, reinforcing the reliability of the data collected.

Table 3.1 presents the characteristics of the informants in terms of their work roles. The informants were/are educational policy makers or educational authorities who were approached in Greece and were or are involved with educational matters or were in positions to influence language planning and policy. In regards to preserve anonymity within the relatively small respondent field, as well as not be read as negative gender-discrimination M (male), F (female), the capitals letters of A, B, C, D, E, F, G representing the Greek informants (Appendix 8), and H, I, J, K, L, M, N, O representing the Australian informants (Appendix 7), were used (Table 3.1). Informants were asked to explain their role from 1970-2005 and they are detailed in Appendixes seven (Australian informants) and eight (Greek informants).

Table 3.1: Greek and Australian Informants

<u>GREECE</u>		
<u>Greek Informants</u>	<u>Informants Gender</u>	<u>Current or Past Role</u>
A	F	Professor in an English faculty in a Greek University
B	M	English Educational Consultant at the Greek Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs
C	F	Linguistics Lecturer in a Greek University
D	F	English Teacher in a Greek Primary school
E	F	Associate Professor in a French faculty in a Greek University
F	F	French Educational Consultant at the Greek Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs
G	F	English Primary Teacher attached to the Greek Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs
<u>AUSTRALIA</u>		
<u>Australian Informants</u>	<u>Informants Gender</u>	<u>Current or Past Role</u>
H	F	Professor of French in an Australian University
I	F	Professor of Spanish in a Australian University
J	F	ESL Consultant in an Australian Department of Education
K	M	Professor of Greek in an Australian University
L	M	Greek community activist
M	M	Associate Professor of second language education in an Australian University
N	F	Head of Multicultural Education in a diocesan Catholic Education Office
O	M	Head of Multicultural Education in a State Department of Education

The informants were asked the same questions both in Australia and Greece. It was clarified that in answering these questions, see Appendixes five (English) and six (Greek), it was not expected that they comment on all time periods, but only on these time periods best known to them.

The interviews followed a semi-structured format. The interview questions were derived from the literature relevant to language education planning and policy in each country, as well as the international literature. The design of the questions was organized into a coherent document relevant to the research aim and objectives. The language used was meaningful to the informants to maximize

valid and reliable responses and creating smooth conversational flow for data analysis. The questions were also framed to gather data that enabled explanation of historical events, opinions and confirmation of central events. Each interview was a directed conversation, gathering data by means of administering the same set of questions to all selected informants. The basic checklist for determining question content was a list of the research aims and objectives conceptualising the components of each objective in conjunction with the theoretical framework by listing relevant topics and variables that should be covered in the interviews.

As was probably apparent, the question types were mostly not open-ended and the data was mostly qualitatively. In addition, some open questions were included, which meant that comparisons between different answers could be made. As a result, the informants were unlikely to understand them in the same ways based on the period examined and their work role. The context or intended meanings of the questions were obvious to respondents. Likewise, the questions were not condensed into one to provide several sorts of information at once. So they were unlikely to lead to confusion amongst the informants. Most questions invited descriptions, taking things further, eliciting contextual information, were projective, tested key informants' hypotheses, went from the specific to the general and vice versa, took naïve positions and asked for final concluding thoughts.

Approximately a month prior to the interview, initial contact was made. An introductory telephone call described and scheduled the interview. In this period, the nature and the aim of the research was explained to the key informants via an official letter, see Appendixes 3 (English) and 4 (Greek). The length of the interview; confidentiality and anonymity were also discussed. Assurance was given to informants that identifying information known about them (e.g. name, telephone) would not be revealed in any way. The interview took about one hour (together with another ten minutes for the inventory). All key informants were interviewed either at their workplace or in their homes. The interviews commenced in August 2006 and were completed by June 2007. Once the interviews were completed and all inventories were collected, the responses were transcribed and recorded into forms suitable for qualitative analysis. The researcher made every effort to accurately translate the responses from Greek to English in the same way as described above for the Greek archival data titles. A constructed matrix with the research aims and objectives set out in questions as the column headings and what each key informant said as the rows. This structured the data brought responses together in an accessible way. In the final column notes were added and preliminary interpretations made. As the transcripts were read and reread, notes were made of ideas that came to mind.

The research aim and objectives were kept at the forefront in searching for patterns and connections to form the larger picture that went beyond the specific detail. At the same time, it is important to note contradictions, for the way in which attitudes and opinions in the interviews were developed, and for typical rationalizations hinging on creative insights. As the interpretation developed, a return to the

raw material, both transcript and tape recording, was done to check that any interpretation was rooted in the interview data. Computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software (Nvivo 7.0 software) was implemented of textual transcription and analysis. To analyse transcripts paragraph by paragraph and to identify various themes relevant to each specific interview question, codes were developed. Data collection and coding occurred at the same time, hence that insights that come from the coding informed subsequent interviews and interaction. Nvivo 7.0 was also used to analyse differences in the views of those interviewees of different age group, sex, education level and skill levels of previous and current work as well as the overall answers. The major criterion to develop codes to be used in NVivo was 'key words in the interviews' questions', allowing greater and quicker locating of passages of the basis of several codes developed. Further analysis was undertaken when differences were apparent between different persons, to investigate whether these differences appeared to hold regardless of variations in other characteristics. For example, some responses varied in a number of ways due to their level of knowledge as well as their work roles. The use of computer analysis of qualitative data aimed at ensuring that the policies of analysis were transparent, and that a diversity of voices was heard.

It was certainly not the case that all informants were entirely in agreement on most issues. General agreements and different opinions were provided and their responses were comparable. While some issues were specific to particular informants, common themes were evident. The majority of the informants had a tendency to not follow the chronological periods but to answer generally. Using the policy analysis frameworks, drawn from the theoretical background material (chapter one), in conjunction with the literature review (chapter two), the key documents and interviews were critically reviewed and analysed. A by-product is that the key documents, taken together, present the evolution of language planning and policy development in Australia and Greece.

3.5 A Theoretical Framework for the Interpretation of the Data

A content analysis was used, which according to Bauer and Gaskell (2002) is the "only method of text analysis that has been developed within the empirical social sciences" (2002, 134-35) and it is "a medium of expression allowing to construct indicators of worldviews, values, attitudes, opinions, prejudices, stereotypes and compare these across communities". Normative analyses that make comparisons with standards and cross-sectional analyses from different document contexts were used along with the complex problem raised here, that of how to analyse policy documents, given that there is always the bias that a researcher can bring in the telling his/her version of the story. A theoretical framework was shaped from chapters one and two for the interpretation of the data. The Bridgman and Davis (2004) Australian policy cycle as follows: (identify issues, policy analysis, policy instruments, consultation, coordination, decision, implementation, evaluation) (Bridgman and Davis 2004, 26) was applied to analyse the data. The framework was applied to document, analyse and compare data between these two countries. However, each document was not analysed following strictly the above

cycle. Occasionally, and based on the document, different parts of the framework were pinpointed with the overall aim to meet the aims and objectives of the thesis. Edwards's (2001) policy development framework outlined in chapter one (p. 27) was also used as complementary framework.

The Australian policy cycle is an aide which is used to illustrate the regular sequence of steps involved in decision making, exploring possible responses, applying the resources and expertise of government and testing whether the desired outcome has been achieved (Bridgman & Davis 2007). The methodology of the Australian policy cycle usefully suggests that the policy process can be broken down into components. According to Burch and Wood (1989, 16 quoting Bridgman and Davis 2007, p. 37) "the emphasis upon phases suggests some kind of chronological sequence which is inevitably involved in policy making. We believe the process to be more fluid...". The advantage of employing the Australian policy cycle and Edward's policy development framework as a model is that they facilitate the understanding of the public policy process of language planning and language policy in Australia and Greece, by breaking it into sub-processes. Some of the sub-processes of the models solely investigated the process either in terms of the sub-processes relationship to the other stages of these two frameworks or some sub-processes solely emphasized the telling-the-story approach. These two frameworks' greatest virtue is their empirical orientation enabling an analysis of a wide range of different issues/factors at work at various stages.

Likewise Ruiz's (1984) typology of three common 'orientations' to language (a) as a problem; (b) as a right; and (c) as a resource; as well as Cobarrubias' (1983) four possible concepts of language ideologies were utilized to analyse the data. These are: (a) assimilation; (b) pluralism; (c) vernacularization of an indigenous language; and d) intensionalisation through the use of a language of wider communication. The historical models of language planning such as Haugen's (1983) 'status planning' and 'corpus planning'; Haarmann's (1990) 'prestige planning'; William's (1994), macro, meso and micro levels of language planning; Cooper's (1989) acquisition planning comprising eight components: (a) actors; (b) behaviours; (c) people; (d) ends; (e) conditions; (f) means; (g) decision making process; and (h) effect were also all used in describing the data.

The five issues of the implementation policy: (a) curriculum policy (Wicksteed 2005); (b) personnel policy; (c) materials policy; (d) community policy; and (e) evaluation policy (Taylor 2002) were utilised to analyse the data. Key terms reflecting the governments' main activities, such as (i) 'legislative' (ii) 'executive' or the 'administration' and (iii) 'judicial' (Thompson and Tillotsen 1999; McKenna 1999) as well as 'economic' (Vallancourt 1983, 1991; Rubinstein 2000; Grin 2006, see Appendix one) 'social' and 'political' and 'internal' and 'external' mirroring forces and their broader role and value were also used in demonstrating the data.

Furthermore, Watson's (1979) concept of 'linguistic pluralism', distinguishing between a 'recognition approach' in contrast to a 'separation approach' were used. Other key terms such as 'organisational processes', 'key players' as well as 'networks' (politicians, academics, media) (Edwards 2001), reflecting their value of careful choice were also useful in describing the data. The policy complex issue of forwards and backwards – 'policy dance' - due to stakeholders, lobby groups and media attention conflicts (Eyestone 1978; Hall et al. 1986; Anderson 1994; Dery 1994; Kingdon 1995; Haugen 1996; Edwards 2001) were useful in illustrating the data.

The Gantt chart (see Figure 1.5, Chapter 1 of this study) shows the budget estimating time of policy development processes was introduced to understand the analyses of the government activities and arrangements. Moreover, another much-utilised framework for the analysis of strategic planning-policy, 'strengths', 'weaknesses', 'opportunities' and 'threats' (SWOT) along with all types of evaluation, such as a) 'appropriateness evaluation' b) 'efficiency evaluation' c) 'effectiveness evaluation' and d) 'meta-evaluation' were exploited to analyse the data.

The overall notion of *network governance* and public policy was used in relation to how it relates to the manner in which language planning and language policy in Australia and Greece was governed or regulated. Further the notion was used as a method of management and a system of regulations to describe inter-governmental coordination, formal bureaucratic structures and relationships between governments and organizations (Candace, Hesterly and Borgatti 1997). Likewise, the overall notion of *network theory* provided the overview of the methodological framework from which to understand the research process by analysing and interpreting the patterns of interaction in exchanges and relationships, as well as flows of resources between independent units (Gerlach 1992). The diffusion of knowledge, in social *network theory*, occurs more readily through interorganizational networks providing preexisting modes of communication, enhancing the potential for collaboration and information exchange as well as mutual observation (Kraatz 1998).

Furthermore, particularly in relation to the selection and analysis of documents (both published and archival) as the major data source and to the case study interviews the term *language planning* was used as: "a body of ideas, laws and regulation (language policy), change rule, beliefs, and practices intended to achieve a planned change (or to stop change from happening) in language use in one or more communities" (Kaplan and Baldauf 1997, 3). The four basic areas of language planning working within: a) governmental agencies; b) education agencies; c) quasi/non-governmental organizations; and d) all sorts of other groups were used to illustrate and analyse data in the context of language planning and language policy in the context of public governance. McKenna's (1999) mechanisms such as *political opportunism* (taking advantage of an unexpected situation to achieve political goals) and "policy entrepreneurship" (an active promotion of a policy idea by a public servant), as well as Edwards' (2001) three coordinating domains towards shared goals: a) politics; b) policy and c)

administration, were also used as a methodology in demonstrating and analysing data. Kaplan's and Baldauf's schematic view of a national language planning situation (Figure 1.2, chapter 1, p. 31) of one national/official language, one religion, eight minorities, a language spoken in a neighbouring polity, classical/historical languages and a language revival in progress helped to conceptualise data analysis.

Likewise, the internationalisation of English due to its geographical-historical contexts, socio-cultural as well as economic reasons (Crystal 2006) along with the geopolitical and sociolinguistic context of Australia and Greece were taken into account in illustrating and analysing data. The definition of language planning and language policy terms, the contemporary challenges to language planning and language policy such as the dimensions of globalization, and the status of languages on the internet as well as what works in countries worldwide were utilized to analyze data.

3.6 Importance and Contribution of Research to New Knowledge

This study was undertaken in and for both Australia and Greece. The project investigated the language planning and policy in both countries, focusing in particular on: (a) The past and current provision of languages programs in government and non-government schools; (b) Issues related to both successful and unsuccessful policy development, policy implementation and program evaluation of languages programs; and (c) Implications for future strategic directions for languages programs in Greece and Australia. The overall contribution of this research will be its attempt to use empirical evidence from Australia's multicultural experience to benefit Greek language education and to use Greece's experience in teaching traditional world languages to benefit Australia's language education program. Direct benefits may include the implementation of specific recommendations as to language planning, policy implementation and program evaluation in Greece, given that Greece is a developing multicultural country, based on the experience of Australia.

This study also will substantiate the minimal comparative research that is currently available on language education planning and policy. It is not the purpose to develop a new theoretical structure on how language education planning and policy must, should or could be developed. It is hoped that it will advance theoretical and conceptual constructs about what does constitute language education planning and policy processes and perhaps, clarify the factors that can prevent language policy initiatives from stalling. It is also hoped that the case studies provided may assist scholars in further refining their models of the language policy process, especially in developed and developing multicultural countries, according to what Bailey (1994) has observed:

“...the interaction of scholars' works and practitioners' experience is relevant here 'the information the practitioners own is needed by scholars to develop and test theories, which can then be applied by practitioners

to improve the practice of public administration and by scholars both in further theory development and for the teaching of public managers” (ibid 190).

In writing this project, one of the intentions was to discover what other countries will learn from Australia’s and Greece’s language education planning and policy. It is also believed that despite the fact that the research findings arose from both Australian and Greek experience and under governments of various persuasions and different times, their lessons and reflections will be just as relevant both in Australia, Greece - and elsewhere. Especially linguists and students of linguistics in Australia, Greece and elsewhere who wish to become more acquainted with the Australian and Greek situations may discover some similarities to that in their own county.

Additionally, the recent past of language planning and policy in Greece has not been adequately addressed to provide a basis for analysis. It is hoped that the full list of praxes’ titles provides a starting point.

The following chapter documents the evolution of language education in Australia from 1970 - 2005.

CHAPTER FOUR

THE EVOLUTION OF LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN AUSTRALIA

4.1 Introduction

This chapter documents the evolution of language planning and policy development in Australia over the past 35 years with special and particularized focus on Victoria. It also assesses not only the process of language policy development and the impact of policy upon practice, but also an evaluation of both planning and practice. To achieve these objectives, the answers were sought from key documents of the Commonwealth (Appendix 9, titles represented in bold are key Commonwealth of Australia Government documents) and Victoria (Appendix 10, titles represented in bold are key Victorian Government documents). The findings follow within a timeframe drawn, in the view of this researcher, from other timeframes as outlined in chapter one. To this end a stage-by-stage presentation and interpretation of the key documents follow within three major phases: (i) the 'Transitional Multicultural' (1971-1980) Phase; (ii) the 'Growth-analytical Pluralist International' Phase (1980 to 1991); and (iii) the 'Cooperation and Transformation Phase' (beyond 1991). This will be prefaced by a brief look at the pre-1971 period.

4.2 The pre-1971 or 'Pre-recognition Exclusionist or Anglo-assimilation' Phase

In the pre-1971 or 'Pre-recognition Exclusionist or Anglo-assimilation' period, the prevailing philosophy, reflecting the narrow nationalism of the time, was an aggressive cultural and linguistic assimilationism. Fostering minority languages in the pre-1971 phase was not on the agenda of government authorities, as documents of the time reveal: "...responsibility for migrant children in schools was that of the State Education Departments", Migrant Education Programme (MEP) Report for 1970-71; p. 2). Ethnic communities wish to maintain their heritage language, culture, their national diasporic identity as part of their ongoing new dual identity, along with their parish community operated and private after-hours classes, labelled firstly as 'Sunday schools' or 'religious education classes', later 'ethnic schools', and now 'after-hours ethnic schools'. Private schools received no government funding and given the financial status of the struggling communities of the times, it was not possible to establish full-time minority schools (Smolicz 1971; Taft and Cahill 1981; Arvanitis 2000; Cahill 1996, 2002). However, the Jewish managed to establish their schools.

Table 4.1 shows the number of languages documents produced in the 1950s-70s period. The meager number (23) during the 1950s-60s compared to 84 in the 1960s-70s, perhaps reflects the ongoing changing ideology (from assimilation to integration). In regards to their provenance, while in the 1950s, South Australia was prominent with 35 per cent of the written documents, in the 1960s Victoria was prominent with 49 per cent. For the two decades, Victoria was a leader with 42 per cent. Up to the end of the 1960s, the Commonwealth government made a very small contribution (4 per cent).

Table 4.1: Minority Language Documents in Australia (1950-1970)

Place of Publication	1950-60 N=23	%	1960-70 N=84	%	Total	%
Victoria	4	17	41	49	45	42
New South Wales	4	17	19	23	23	21
Canberra	2	9	10	12	12	4
Western Australia	0	0	8	9	8	8
South Australia	8	35	2	2	10	9
Queensland	4	17	1	1	5	5
Tasmania	0	0	0	0	0	0
Overseas	1	5	3	4	4	4
Total	23	100	84	100	107	100

Source: (Martin 1978, 86).

Table 4.2 indicates that in the period of 1950-70, the key activists addressing the policy deficits and thus meeting the educational needs of migrant children were teachers, perhaps reflecting migrant education movements in university and school circles. Overall, over two-thirds (70 per cent) of the documents were written, half by tertiary teachers (35 per cent) and half by teachers (35 per cent). The few sandstone universities of the time played virtually no role in terms of more activist intervention of language planning and policy of the times

Table 4.2: Occupation of the Authors of Migrant Language Documents (1950-70)

Occupation	1950-60	%	1960-70	%	Total	%
Tertiary teacher	4	31	23	36	27	35
Teacher	4	31	23	36	27	35
H. E. administration	0	0	1	2	1	1
L E. administration	0	0	2	3	2	3
Research Officer	0	0	1	2	1	1
N. T. professional	0	0	6	9	6	8
Other	2	15	6	9	8	10
Unknown	3	23	2	3	5	7
Total	13	100	64	100	77	100

Source: (Martin 1978, 87).

Late in the 1950s, in its various meetings of the Commonwealth Immigration Advisory Council (CIAC), the Commonwealth Government had begun to report on the progress of migrant children in Australia (CIAC 1959-60). The initial Commonwealth involvement, through intense pressure by parents and teachers activists (bottom up), was announced in the federal elections in 1963 by the Prime Minister, R.G. Menzies, with 'teacher aides' and 'laboratories'. Late in 1967 the Commonwealth Department had called through a survey (consultation-evaluation) for educational planning of the needs of migrant children. 'Schools libraries programs' were started in 1968 (MEP Report for 1970-71, 1-2). Gradually, the aggressive assimilationism (Cahill 1996, 8) changed character towards child-migrant education. Australia had realised that the industrial revolution and the dominant economic conception must bring with in an emphasis onto other policies, such as being more person-oriented and student-oriented as in equal opportunity through education. The efficacy of the alliances of activists such as the lobbying of governments by schools, teacher unions, parent organizations and academics, reflecting the pull of 'political', linguistic' and 'social' forces for government initiatives and funds, led in 1969 to a report on the situation of migrant children in government and independent schools in New South Wales (Martin 1978, 1-2).

Thus, due to the confluence of post-World-War II migration and the emergence of a social philosophy via organizations such as Melbourne's Ecumenical Migration Centre, the Australian Greek Welfare Society and the Migration Education Action Committee, the Child Migrant Education Program (CMEP) was born. Subsequently, through a Ministerial Statement on 23 April 1970, the first federally funded 'expenditure of AUD 1,844,984', (policy instrument), was provided (1970, 3) for 'teachers' salaries-training' (personnel policy), 'material' policy, as well as for research in institutions (e.g. de Lemos) (p. 13) and at school level to increase proficiency levels in English among students from non-English speaking backgrounds across the country. During the 1960s "no large-scale research or evaluation program was initiated by either the Commonwealth Department of Immigration or of the Commonwealth authorities in education whose priorities were located elsewhere" (Cahill 1996, 10).

4.3 The 1971 to 1980 or 'Transitional Multicultural' Phase

In 1971 to 1980 or during the 'Transitional Multicultural' phase, a new environment for migrant participation in social action, cultural life and equal economic opportunity was created by community activism (bottom up) and parallel federal activities (top down). On 12 May 1971 a nation-wide legislation as 'authority' response, the "[Immigration (Education) Act]" "[Immigration (Education) Act]" was the policy instrument under the Gorton Liberal government to accommodate and address cultural differences and language as a problem, as a right and as a resource (orientation). The report "Migrant Education Programme" (Report for 1970-71, parliamentary Paper No 192), published in 1971, was selected as the first key document. It hailed the "...substantial progress in migrant education in the relatively short period since the new initiatives were announced (April 1970)", but "...much has yet to be done in further developing and refining the programme..." (p. 17). The

following Table 4.3 indicates that of the 417 documents written in the 1950-1976 period, 310 documents were written during 1970-1976, reflecting the increasing transition ideology, compared to 84 in the 1960s and 23 in the 1950s. From 1970-76, Victoria was prominent with 55 per cent of the documentation; overall for 1950-1976, Victoria generated the most documents with 52 per cent and 17 per cent of the Commonwealth, reflecting its increasing commitment.

Table 4.3: Migrant Language Documents in Australia (1950-1976)

Place of Publication	1950-60 N=23	%	1960-70 N=84	%	1970-76 N=310	%	Total N=417	%
Victoria	4	17	41	49	170	55	215	52
New South Wales	4	17	19	23	50	16	73	18
Canberra	2	9	10	12	59	19	71	17
Western Australia	0	0	8	9	8	3	16	4
South Australia	8	35	2	2	4	1	14	3
Queensland	4	17	1	1	5	2	10	2
Tasmania	0	0	0	0	4	1	4	1
Overseas	1	5	3	4	10	3	14	3
Total	23	100	84	100	310	100	417	100

Source: (Martin 1978, 86).

Similarly, Table 4.4 shows the number and percentage of the various professional groups of the 417 items (nine are unknown) in the period between 1950-1976, with 40 per cent written by tertiary teachers compared to 25 per cent from teachers, a similar relation to the profile from the period of 1970-1976. Almost the same relation is found in the period of 1970-76 with 43 per cent written by tertiary teachers, probably from teacher training colleges, and 22 per cent by teachers.

Late in the 1960s and in the early 1970s, a shift in official thinking occurred with a focus on the need to teach Asian languages and cultures in schools. This shift took place even though the White Australia policy was still in force, and was to be changed in the early 1973 only. The Commonwealth Minister for Education and Science, Mr Malcolm Fraser as the key player and later to be Prime Minister (1975–1983), put this issue on the agenda (status planning). He justified this focus through a political rationale referring to “...the steady growth in the economic, cultural, political and military links between Australia and Asia during the last two decades...” (p. 7). Fraser went on to say that “the number of Australian students studying an Asian language is small and that there is clearly a need for greater emphasis on Asian affairs in our education system” (p. 7).

Table 4.4: Occupation of the Migrant Language Documents' Authors in Australia (1950-1976)

Occupation	1950-60 N=	%	1960-70 N=	%	1970-76 N=	%	Total N=	%
Tertiary teacher	4	31	23	36	93	43	120	40
Teacher	4	31	23	36	49	22	76	25
H. E. administration	0	0	1	2	7	3	8	4
L E. administration	0	0	2	3	5	2	7	2
Research Officer	0	0	1	2	12	5	13	4
N. T. professional	0	0	6	9	21	9	27	9
Other	2	15	6	9	23	10	31	10
Unknown	3	23	2	3	14	6	19	6
Total	13	100	64	100	224	100	301	100

Source: Martin (1978, 87).

In March 1969, an advisory committee was established to conduct a “comprehensive survey of the situation as it existed, including consideration of the factors that had tended to restrict the study of Asian languages and cultures in Australian schools and other educational institutions” (appropriateness evaluation) (p. 7).

The terms of reference, as expected, were: (i) To gather information on the extent to which Asian languages...are studied in schools and other institutions (status planning); (ii) To suggest what deficiencies exist...(weaknesses); (iii) To determine the factors which tend to give rise to these deficiencies for: (a) training of teachers (personnel policy); (b) the supply of appropriate course materials (material policy); (c) the acceptance of studies for admission to tertiary institutions and for the award of Scholarships; (d) the attitude of the community towards the values and standing subjects of study (community policy); and (iv) to report (evaluation) to the Commonwealth Minister for Education and Science and state Ministers for Education on the Matters set out above (p. 7). According to Cahill (1996) this was the beginning of the struggle between Asian languages and immigrant languages as strategically important languages which has lasted into the present. However, in recent decades, a merger has occurred.

The advisory committee had received “500 submissions, undertook two questionnaire surveys and submissions (state/Commonwealth persons and organisations) by correspondence...” (p. 9) to clarify objectives, resolve key questions and to develop options and proposals (Colebatch 1998, 2006; Edwards 2001). The report had found the following ‘weaknesses’: “...deficiency...inadequacy and inappropriateness of books...teaching material” (material policy) and “...teachers should be specifically prepared...” (personnel policy) (p. 99). In order to develop “aims and objectives for future implementation” as “strategic planning”, the report (McKenna 1999) suggested specific languages “...Indonesian/Malay, Japanese and Chinese...” (status planning) and “...teachers’ regular in-service

refresher courses...”, (personnel policy) (p. 100). In March 1971, the committee presented the document for implementation with the title *Teaching of Asian Languages and Cultures in Australia*.

Early in the 1970s, in Victoria, at state level, a committee was established to discuss the education of migrant children in schools. ‘Consultation’ was invited with “representatives from community, school staff, the state Education Department and the Commonwealth government...” (1973, 4-5). In 1973, a collection of papers was published by the Migrant Study and Workshop Group of the Psychology and Guidance Branch of the Department of Victoria (1973, 1). Its content titles reflected the education of migrant children in schools of the time as follows: (1). The Problems of Migrant Schoolchildren; (2). Notes for the Teachers of Greek Migrant Children; (3). Immigration-Italian Style; (4). The Yugoslav Migrant; (5). Notes for Teachers of Turkish Migrants; and (6). Difficulties and dilemmas of schools with high migrant enrolments. The document published in 1973 with the title *The Migrant Child and the School* helped teachers, social workers and others interested to the field.

At a national level in the mid-1970s, the Commonwealth Government in order “to address social, cultural and ideological struggles embedded in Australia’s educational responses to migrant children education” (1974, (i) undertook an initiative on part-time ethnic schools through the Department of Demography of the Australian National University. A post-doctoral fellowship was awarded to Dr. Tsounis. The background and context to these discussions were that “offering (language) classes in the late afternoons or evening or during the weekends...system has had certain consequences” (1974, i). These were: (a) children were usually instructed by the clergy or untrained lay folk (personnel policy); (b) instead of being taught during their ordinary schools hours...real conflict between them and their parents” (community policy) (1974, (ii). The specific rationale was that “Greeks...reverse their age-long culture and language...heritage...much has been said and written...yet very little had been done in terms of allocating human and material resources” (communication, community, dual identity) (1974, (iii). Evaluation of the Greek ethnic schools’ implementation was addressed by the following key questions: (a) reasons and need for Greek schools; (b) their number and size; (c) the way in which they were organised and maintained; (d) their aims and principles; and (e) practices and problems (1974, (iv) (appropriateness, efficiency and effectiveness evaluation).

In a ‘policy analysis’ stage, relevant ‘data’ and ‘information’ were largely collected by: (a) a questionnaire; (b) interviews; and (c) official Australian government and other records (p. iii). The report concluded that despite their many inadequacies and shortcomings (weaknesses), “Greek ethnic schools are important and necessary educational institutions” (p. iii). To guide future government responses in regards to ethnic schools’ integration into the educational system recommendations were to: (i) “Better or standard classroom facilities” (infrastructure); (ii) “qualified teachers and facilities of teacher training” (personnel policy); (iii) “a more standardised curricula and teaching material” (curriculum-material policy); (iv) “ethnic schools or classes to operate preferably during normal

schools hours”; and (v) “the encouragement of the students’ expected interest into the existing relationship between the Greek and English languages” (corpus planning) (p. iii). According to Cahill (1996), Tsounis’ research (1974) was a pioneer monograph, drawing attention to the existence and long-reaching impact of the part-time ethnic school sector in Australia over their long history.

‘Weaknesses’, ‘threats’ and ‘unaddressed’ issues (McKenna 1999) since the introduction of the CMEP and the Immigration Education Act 1971-1974, in “order for Australia’s responses to meet the needs of all pupils” (p. 1), led to another major federal initiative in the mid-1970s. Some more specific “identified issues’ were as follows: (a) “Inadequate teachers...June 1974...1508 teachers, June 1975...1900 teachers...still not reaching all children in need (personnel policy); (b) “data’s omission...of the 1023 and 1222 declared disadvantage and receiving resources respectively, 343 are common to both lists”; and (c) “withdrawal classes...increasing concern has been expressed that the system may not be effective in schools with high proportion of these children” (1974, 8). Relevant organizations, institutions as ‘authorities’ (Australian Department of Education, Schools Commission, New South Wales and Victorian state and Catholic education authorities) decided to initiate an inquiry to “inquire into the situation in selected schools of high migrant density for the purpose of identifying factors which impede the schools in providing educational programs structured to meet the needs of all pupils” (1974, 2-3). Subsequently, “a co-ordinating committee was set up in each of the two states to guide for school visits by investigating panels (four in Sydney, six in Victoria) and to collect statistical information”. “Discussions...statistics...reports...seminars for teachers and community to recommend unaddressed issues (weaknesses) for management and leadership, as well as material policy to put these ideas into effect” were undertaken (1974, 29).

As Table 4.5 shows, in 1974, in New South Wales and Victorian schools, in primary schools 70.5 per cent of the children in total were from immigrant families and 29.5 per cent of non-migrants, the corresponding figure for the secondary schools were 60.6 per cent from immigrant families and 39.4 per cent from non-migrants. Overall 66.5 percent of the children were of migrants and 33.5 per cent were of non-migrants (p. 5).

Not surprisingly, this inquiry into high immigrant density schools showed that most had over 60 per cent of immigrant children. This emphasized the need for a “...change in social attitudes and the development of more positive community attitudes towards migrant groups...” (community policy) (1974, vi). Equally unsurprisingly, the recommendations for implementation were made in the following five major areas:

Table 4.5: Summary Children Statistics (New South Wales-Victoria in 1974) into Schools of High Migrant Density

State - Type of School	% of Migrants	% of non- Migrants	Total
NSW Primary	68.7	31.3	100
Vic Primary	73.1	26.9	100
Total Primary	70.5	29.5	100
NSW Secondary	51.1	48.9	100
Vic Secondary	71.7	28.3	100
Total Secondary	60.6	39.4	100
Grand Total	66.5	33.5	100

Source: Inquiry into Schools of High Migrant Density (1974, 5).

(1) school and community relations (community policy); (2) the acquisition of language skills (corpus planning); (3) the curriculum in migrant education (curriculum policy); (4) teacher education (personnel policy); and (5) the staffing and resources of schools (material policy) (1974, 35-36). The report was published in 1974 with the title *Report of the Inquiry into Schools of High Migrant Density: 1974*.

After the mid-1970s, major federal reports and reviews gave a degree of legitimacy to language issues in Australia. The Australian Schools Commission's report for the triennium 1976-1978 undertook a quantitative and qualitative assessment. The report found that (1975):

- (a) Although 15 per cent of all Australian primary school children came from bilingual homes only 1.4 per cent were studying their native language at schools;
- (b) only 10 per cent of all bilingual students were offered to study their mother tongue in secondary schools;
- (c) there were major quality issues in teachers' qualification, materials development and their availability and suitability and closer cooperation between "ethnic schools and day primary schools to promote the study of migrant languages and cultures" (1975, 69) was needed.

In 1977, in a 'decision' stage, the committee sponsored a conference with the title: "Migrant Languages - Many Promises, No Action". In lack of government responses, the following recommendations were made: (i) The issue of bilingual education; (ii) The choice of languages; and (iii) The need for schools to respond to migrant languages and cultures. The planning *Report for the Triennium 1976 – 1978* of the Fraser government for the 1976-1978 triennium, though prepared under the Whitlam government, was published in 1975.

In 1977, the pattern of migration and the roles of the Commonwealth government in responding to migrant needs to ensure that “the changes of migrants are being met as effectively as possible within the limits of available resources” led the government on 31 August 1977 (leading up to a federal election in the Fraser period of government) to conduct a major review of existing post-arrival programs and services for migrants and refugees (1977, 1) (appropriateness, efficiency and effectiveness evaluation). The terms of references were: (1). to examine and report on the effectiveness (strengths) of the Commonwealth programs and services...and to identify any areas of needs (weaknesses) or duplication of programs or services; (2). to consider (a) the roles, functions and ‘leadership’ of government and non-government organisations; (b) which of these available to the general community could be better designed to ensure that migrants are as well served as others (1977, 1); (c) which of these could be better integrated with, or absorbed into; (d) the extent to which disadvantages and difficulties experienced; (e) appropriateness and effectiveness of the role and organisation to migrants are as well served as others; (f) interrelationships of their role, including relations with Good Neighbour Councils; and (g) the role of the Commonwealth in funding non-governments organisations and most appropriate arrangements for any such funding (1977, 2).

This major review, chaired by a very well-known Melbourne lawyer close to the immigrant communities, Mr. Frank Galbally, was strongly supported by the Prime Minister Malcolm Fraser, who was also assisted by his speech writer, Mr. Petro Georgiou, himself a child immigrant born at Corfu in 1947. Not surprisingly, the review identified areas of ‘needs’ [little or no understanding of English language (refugees and migrant children)] (1977, 5) or “...important gaps and deficiencies ‘including some duplication of effort’...” (1977, 6). The review concluded that the Commonwealth government needed to encourage ‘multiculturalism’ in the following principles: (1). Equal opportunity, access to programs and services; (2). maintenance and embrace of other cultures; (3). special services and programs...to ensure equality of access and provision; and (4). consultation (community policy). The Report had made 43 recommendations which were all accepted by the Government with “extra funding to children who do not speak adequate English...and the establishment of a Commonwealth-state working party” (1977, 7) “to supervise, over a three-year period, the implementation with at least an annual report (appropriateness, efficiency, effectiveness evaluation) to Prime Minister and other concerned ministers” the following Australian Institute of Multicultural Affairs (AIMA), (1977, 13).

The Galbally Review according to Martin “has the distinction of being the first report commissioned of the Commonwealth to be tabled in a language other than English” (1978, 12). According to Cahill (1996), the publication of the Galbally Report was a major breakthrough and it represented the end of the assimilationist period and the beginning of a multicultural social and educational policy. The Review, presented to the Commonwealth Government on 27 April 1978, was published for implementation on 30 May 1978 with the title *Migrant Services and Programs: Report of the Review of Post-arrival Programs and Services for Migrants*.

After the Galbally Report, multicultural education was the centre of national focus and action for direct provision of services (social welfare) to migrants. The Australian Ethnic Affairs Council (AEAC) responding in three areas: (i) settlement; (ii) community consultation and ethnic media; and (iii) education, and attempted to establish guidelines for immigration and settlement policies appropriate for a multicultural Australia (p. 3). To meet this aim, a committee was established to advise the Minister for Immigration and Ethnic Affairs. Not surprisingly, the terms of references had been: (a) the position of migrants in the community in relation to education and well-being; (b) the suitability and effectiveness of existing government and community services and programs directed to the integration of migrants; (c) the promotion and development of harmonious relations within the Australian community affecting migrants; (d) the development of communication and consultation between the Minister and ethnic communities throughout Australia; and (e) the undertaking and encouragement of studies and research programs of direct relevance to all the above (p. iii).

A Green Paper, “Immigration Policies and Australia’s Population” was released for ‘consultation’ to explore the subject of the Commonwealth government’s action in educational welfare, regulative legislation, grants for innovative programs or research in education” (1977, 3). Not surprisingly, the committee, drawing on the conclusion of “A Decade of Migrant Settlement” concluded that “...there is no justification for a policy of building up some ethnic groups already established in Australia in comparison with others...” (p. 16). Another important statement adopted at the UNESCO meeting on “Cultural Pluralism and National Identity” (Calgary, Alberta, Canada, June 1977) concluded “Cultural pluralism is increasingly becoming a matter of conscious choice”, adding:

“...our goal in Australia should be to create a society in which people of non-Anglo-Australian origin are given the opportunity, as individuals or groups, to choose to preserve and develop their culture – their languages, traditions and arts – so that these can become living elements in the diverse culture of the total society, while at the same time they enjoy effective and respected places within one Australian society, with equal access to the rights and opportunities that society provides and accepting responsibilities towards it...multiculturalism means ethnic communities getting “into the act” (1977, 16-17).

The document was published in 1977 with the title *Australia as a Multicultural Society*.

At a federal level, the first ‘evaluation’ of the committee established to oversee the Multicultural Education Program begun in 1979 and was based on two recommendations of the Galbally report, namely no 45 that “the Commonwealth allocate \$5m...” and no 46 that “a small committee be appointed to consult how the recommend \$5m...can be used most effectively in the three years ahead...fostering the teaching of community languages in schools...” (YEAR, 1-2). In the ‘policy analysis’ stage, the committee had discussed: (i) “...the notion of multicultural society...” (ideology-orientation); (ii) “...necessary changes within the general curriculum to reflect the multicultural nature...” (ideology-orientation-curriculum policy); (iii) “...the place of languages...” (status

planning); (iv) "...relationships between parents, teachers and pupils in the multicultural society..." (community policy); and (v) "...co-ordination and support of ethnic schools and their place in the overall education process (management) (1979, 4). The report resulted in 18 recommendations; and some of them were as follows: (1). Funding...for 1980 and 1981 (\$1.5m and \$3.0m respectively) for seminars...national liaison for personnel's aware...(1979, 59-60); (2). Education for a Multicultural society; (3). The School in the Multicultural Society (a). General Curriculum; (b). Language Learning and Teaching; (c). Relationships; (d). Essential Support; and (e). Ethnic Schools. However, multicultural language education according to Singh (2001) "was not only a compromised product of government self-interest, but also a less than desired result of the policy activism by European Australians engaged in struggles with Anglo-fundamentalist advocates of English-only pedagogy and politics" (1979, 131). The report was published for implementation in 1979 with the title *Education for a Multicultural Society*.

In the late 1970s, an enquiry was conducted at the state level of Victoria to reform teacher training in a multicultural society. The enquiry was conducted due to the impact of "radical claims for ethnic rights, power and participation, well-being and social cohesion...", (1979, 6). In Victoria in the late 1970s, an enquiry was conducted to reform teacher training in a multicultural society. Ethnic groups were invited to assist the Ministry of Immigration and Ethnic Affairs in the scope of the enquiry which was to "raise and consider some issues connected with teacher education in Australia's multicultural society" (1979, 6). Not surprisingly, its basic principles were quite coherent with the policy conducted at a federal level. These had been: (a) All Australians should be given the opportunity to become fluent in English; (b) education should be a harmonious influence within families; (c) all students should be helped to develop an appreciation and understanding of their own background and culture as well as those of the Australians; and (d) no-one should be discriminated against because of ethnicity (1979, 6). The enquiry had recommended: (i) Mandatory subjects be introduced into all pre-service training courses of Australian society (curriculum policy); (ii) mandatory components of multi-cultural society be included in pre-service and in-service courses for teachers and trainees (curriculum policy); and (iii) awareness programmes designed to sensitize teachers and trainees to the nature of the society and the cultures of their students (personnel policy) (1979, 7). The enquiry also focused on the hidden curriculum. The document was released by the Victorian Ministry of Immigration and Ethnic Affairs in 1979 (prepared by D. Fitzgerald) with the title *Teacher Education for a Multicultural Society*.

In an international context with specific reference to Greece, in 1979, a three-page bilateral educational agreement between Victoria and Greece was signed to protect, maintain and promote the Greek diasporic community, its language and culture in Victoria. It consisted of eleven articles encouraging cooperation in the areas of culture, civilization, science, education, the mass media, youth and sport. As Fox (2003) has commented, cultural and language issues between the hosting and

posting countries for diasporic communities and/or minorities are facilitated by reciprocity agreements.

4.4 The 1980 to 1991 or ‘Growth-analytical Pluralist International’ Phase

In the early 1980s, at the federal level, several major language policies were initiated involving important debates within political, community and academic circles. In 1981, the Australian Institute of Multicultural Affairs, with its director Petro Georgiou, prepared a review of multicultural and migrant education throughout Australia driven by the need for a national strategy in Australia. In line with evaluations leading back to policy revisions, not surprisingly the objectives of the review were as follows: (a) to survey nationally current activities; (b) to assess whether programs can be improved, and if so, to make recommendations for change; and (c) to identify areas requiring further research (1980, v). The committee explored community views (community policy) based on a wide-scale consultation (YEAR v). Some ‘weaknesses’ as key ‘identified issues’ were as follows: (a) “...there is little point in concentrating on teacher training...” (personnel policy); (b) “...in the central development of curriculum and materials...” (curriculum policy); (c) “...Australian cultural diversity...Australian multiculturalism...”; (d) “...resources are severely circumscribed by the lack of any sustained organisational focus or coherence (material policy); and (e) the various aspects of multicultural education are separated from one another” (1980, 130).

The review published in 1980 with the title *Review of Multicultural and Migrant Education* recommended: (i) well-phased and co-ordinated government objectives; (ii) a need for better monitoring of program implementation; (iii) more knowledge about the actual utilisation of funds in several programs and a thorough evaluation of program effectiveness; (iv) curriculum and materials be contracted to the states or other suitable bodies; and v) a coordinating group that comes together three or four times each year to co-ordinate an activity (1980, 131-132).

After the first two years of the MEP provision, an evaluation policy (appropriateness, efficiency and effectiveness) was conducted at the federal level on the post-arrivals programs and services for migrants. On 15 September 1981, the Immigration Minister with responsibility for the AIMA under the section 17 of its Act was requested to prepare the evaluation (review) under the following terms of references: (a) to assess the implementation’s effectiveness; (b) to assess objectives and recommendations’ achievement; (c) to assess their validity; and (d) to recommend if they should be pursued in the future changes (1982, 8). The review was guided by four principles: (1) Equality of opportunity; (2) a multicultural society which values the diverse cultural heritages; (3) provision of specific programs and services for migrants; and (4) the need for consultation between service providers and clients (1982, 10).

The review's major findings mostly in weaknesses were as follows: (a) The CMEP expenditure in real terms had remained fairly constant since 1976; (b) Significant unmet needs in the area of migrant children's proficiencies in ESL; (c) Inadequate information where additional funds are needed; and (d) the Schools Commission's lack of power to acquire information from the states. The review for 'evaluation', 'funding', 'curriculum policy' and 'legislation' had recommended: "...initiate a research to identify factors which affect and determine English competence...States grants' legislation should include arrangements for the collection of data on financial...an evaluation of the impact on school curricula...an assessment of future community language teaching needs" (p. introduction). The report, published in 1982 as *Evaluation of Post-Arrival Programs and Services* had also recommended the establishment of a National Advisory and Coordination Committee on Multicultural Education (NACCME).

In the same year, but at the national level, the modest co-ordination of policies concerning LOTE and their relation to English was apparent with Australia's realignment in economic and cultural relations and its ideal as a multicultural nation. The Senate released a discussion paper, *Towards a National Language Policy*, to stimulate public debate on language policy. "Concerns of groups advocating an acknowledged status for languages other than English...inadequacies in the quality of English among schools...Australia's economic and cultural relations...availability and effectiveness of ESL...lack of co-ordination of LOTE..." had increased discussions to develop a comprehensive and co-ordinated approach to language policy within Australia as well as in the international arena (1982, 21). The discussion paper, built on the international literature of the time, not surprisingly, had noted that "other countries notably Canada, Finland and Sweden, as well as the European Economic Community are seeking to develop comprehensive policies on language matters..." (ibid, 23).

At a state level, early in the 1980s, and mirroring the corresponding federal level, ethnic affairs was placed very firmly on Victoria's agenda. In early June 1982, the government had established a small working group to report to the Victorian Minister of Immigration and Ethnic Affairs on "social, administrative and legislative changes required implementing the government's policies on ethnic affairs" (1983, 1). The broad objectives were: (a) To review and evaluate the existing affairs (current programs, policies, staffing, administration, procedures, expenditure and budgeting), (appropriateness, efficiency and effectiveness evaluation); (b) To advise on procedures necessary to set up a new Ethnic Affairs Commission (legislative, administrative and staffing requirements, a timetable for implementation, consultation, commissioners to represent ethnic communities...) (community policy); (1983, 1); (c) To advice on priorities, strategies, and implementation proposing in detail a planned and staged three-year program...; (ibid, 2). Extensive 'consultation' process, survey questionnaires and requests for information were conducted involving members from all ethnic communities resident in Victoria. The review had recommended: (a) Monitoring programs should be established around: (1) Child migrant education... (7)...culture; and (b) Community feedback programs: "...community

liaison party for marketing strategies and feedback processes...” (ibid, 83). The document was published for implementation in 1983 with the title *Access and Equity: The Development of Victoria's Ethnic Affairs Policies*.

In 1983 a major government report evaluated more extensively the issue of ethnic schools in Australia. Its ‘background and context’ was that in 1980 the *Review of Multicultural and Migrant Education* had recommended “...for an interim 2 year period (1981-82) \$30 per eligible student...to include smaller ethnic communities recently arrived, modes of upgrading teaching qualifications, curriculum materials, equipment and administrative support...” (1983, 1). In May 1981, “...advertisements in English...twenty community languages...inviting applications from ethnic schools’ authorities for the funding...in June 1981, Marlene Norst was appointed to undertake a survey beyond the interim two-year period” (1983, 1) with the following terms of references (a) Identify attitudes and views held about ethnic communities, ethnic education authorities conducting part-time schools and classes (community policy); (b) outline the characteristics (objectives, practices, courses) of part-time schools provided of smaller ethnic communities (rural areas, more recently arrived); (c) examine teacher qualifications and modes of upgrading them (personnel policy), maintaining standards, curriculum materials and equipment (curriculum policy), administrative support; and (d) assess current and future relationships between ethnic schools and the formal education system (1983, 2).

In 1984, a complete census across Australia of ethnic schools showed there were schools in 57 languages in 973 locations. The report found “a slow but ongoing acceptance of the part-time schools and their incorporation into the activities of the day-time schools” (1983, 15) and made the following recommendations (i) The program be known as the Community Languages Teaching Program; (ii) per capita grant be increased to \$40; (iii) \$0.4m be provided to support projects in eligible schools; and (iv) that ethnic schools and eligible day schools be eligible to participate in this program (p. 46). The report was published in 1983 with its title of *The Report on the Commonwealth Ethnic Schools Programs*, thus mirroring the 1974 Ethnic Schools Report “The Report on the Commonwealth Ethnic Schools Programs”.

By 1984, two national assessments of the Multicultural Education Program had been conducted. These are the 1980 ROMME review and the 1982 AIMA evaluation. The latter had suggested another review to examine the initiatives funded and their integration into school programs. Based on this ‘background and context’ in 1984, within nine months, a review was conducted to fill this gap. The aim was “to provide a descriptive overview and a qualitative and quantitative analysis of the program’s operation since 1979 to assist in deciding about its future directions and future funding” (appropriateness, efficiency and effectiveness evaluation) (1984, 19). The review team from Phillip Institute of Technology led by Desmond Cahill using the ‘team approach’ consisting of 13 education academics led to a deep level of debate in regards to multiculturalism and to a wide search for

deliverable options. A strong feature of the review strategy was the amount of data collected from the eight multicultural education co-ordinating committees in each state and territory, reflecting its validity and reliability. An analysis of projects of national significance elements, an analysis of the funded list of 2,871 projects, and four groups (principals, teachers, members of schools governing or advisory bodies and ethnic community leaders) were surveyed (ibid, 21-22).

As the centerpiece of the research strategy, using a stratified sampling approach, 50 schools (case studies) were randomly selected from across Australia, which had received MECC grants between 1981-1983 “to address how and to what extent the multicultural perspective was perceived by different groups within the school community” (1984, 244). A strong feature of the review was the nationally conducted ‘consultation’ process. The review found that whilst some real growth had occurred (e.g. in 1979 AUD 1.5 m to AUD 4.7 m in 1984), its budget had been relatively modest in comparison with other Commonwealth Schools Commission programs. The major empirical findings of the review were the following: (1). Knowledge of the program and the funded activities (policy instrument) were lacking (weakness) to a very considerable extent; (2). At school level, much needs to be done to implement high quality programs (curriculum policy); (3). Lack of experience and knowledge of the printing and publishing fields and of the marketability of materials (community-material policy); (4). Need for State and Commonwealth responsibilities’ clarification in the funding and implementation of the programs (coordination); and (5). The program needs to be firmly co-ordinated at the national level and should not become state-focused. The central finding of the review was that whilst the program had resulted in many achievements “it has not as yet brought about substantial and lasting change in the Australian schooling system” (1984, 351). The review known as the Cahill report was published in 1984 with the title *Review of the Commonwealth Multicultural Education Program*.

The Commonwealth Schools Commission in order to provide comprehensive information on the ESL program’s operation, to identify critical issues, to assess its effectiveness and to provide information to assist future developments. In July 1982, the team head by Campbell was invited to conduct the review. A natural-history orientation approach (framework) was used which had involved different ‘levels of reality’ (intentions, structures, curricula and perceived outcomes) as a measure of comprehensiveness within each of the educational agencies. Data (mostly qualitative) was gathered during the first half of 1983 in the six states and two territories from: (a) Documentation analysis; (b) group interviews (more than 350 involving more than 1000 persons); and (c) questionnaires, random sample of 500 schools, (360 did so).

Three findings were identified and these were: (a) ...intentions, structures, materials, strategies, teachers, learners’ lack of...; (b) long-term perceptible qualities which are absent due to ESL programs’ short existence; and (c) no objective data on student outcomes, (1984, 85). Overall the review team concluded that “...with respect to the issue of the effectiveness of the ESL program...not

proven” (1984, 97). For future developments, the review suggested: (1). Intentions of the Schools Commission; (2). Structures established by the Schools Commission; (3). Conceptualization of ESL by the Education Authorities; (4). Structures established by the state and territory Education Authorities (administrative, teachers, their training, career structures for ESL teachers, training of non-ESL teachers, funds, resources and curriculum units, ESL advisory staff, school level intentions, structures, level curricula). The review controversially suggested that “the ESL industry detach itself from the multicultural lobby represented by the ethnic communities” (quoting Cahill 2002, 81). The review known as the Campbell report was published in 1984 with the title *Review of the Commonwealth English as a Second Language Program*.

In order to stimulate public discussion and to provide a basis for consultation on the role of community languages in society and the importance of multilingualism in the commercial world, in the same year, the Victorian government released a discussion paper through the Ministerial Advisory Committee on Multicultural and Migrant Education (MACMME). It focused on three main issues (a) How languages other than English are maintained; (b) How the structure of the languages themselves has changed over the years; and c) How the government responded to such ethnolinguistic diversity (1984, 1). According to Ozolins, this paper “gave a comprehensive rationale of the community language programs for all children...continuously referred to community language maintenance...” (1993, 183). The paper, published in 1984 as *The Place of Community Languages in Victorian Schools*, in the following year, for implementation purposes, was renamed as *The Place of Languages other than English in Victorian Schools*. The document enabled schools to implement this newly developed government policy (Ministerial Paper No 6, Curriculum Development and Planning in Victoria) “for young people to be able to participate effectively in the life of a multicultural society” (1984, 12) and “students to acquire proficiency in another language used in the Australian community” (ibid, 17). The document had recommended that (1) By the end of 1985 students continue studying in one or more languages additional to English...; (2) A committee to be established to develop, implement, monitor and review progress; (3) Implementation: teacher training (personnel policy), curriculum materials production (curriculum policy), data collection-analysis and dissemination (evaluation policy), provision of consultancy services...(consultation); (4)...tertiary institutions to develop teacher training programs...; and (5) ...overseas teachers’ qualifications need to be upgraded...; (personnel policy) (1984, 21).

Within the Department of Education, the document had recommended (i)...collate and maintain accurate records; (ii)...implication in regions...; (iii)...language teachers required...; (iv)...consultants be increased...; (v) discussions be held with teachers’ unions...; (ibid, 21) (vi)...Catholic Education Office...to address...learning languages additional to English...; (vii) future provision of appropriate professional development programs; and (viii) pilot programs...(maintenance of existing programs, programs in post primary schools, the extension of the Saturday School of

Modern Languages into regular school, advanced technology and the Correspondence Schools in isolated areas...the sharing of resources and teachers between schools to...the use of super-numeracy staff in initiating new language programs...student access to language programs in the post-compulsory years of schooling...(ibid, 22). According to Djite (1994) the change in the title from 'Community Languages' to 'Languages Other Than English' was meant to reflect a broader approach and not just a 'community' or 'ethnic' approach to language education policy (ibid, 31) though it also resulted from pressure from the French and German language lobbies who were afraid they might not be considered as community languages.

In the same year of 1985, the Victorian government in order "to encourage and extend bilingual and community language programs in primary schools" had published a revised guideline for schools (ibid, 3-14) published *The Implementation of Bilingual and Community Language Programs in Primary Schools*. The guidelines addressed the following major issues: (1) Definition of community language programs (planning and organising the program); (2) their aims in primary schools; (3) evaluation strategies; (4) support; (5) visits by the Community Languages Implementation Committee; (6) staffing appointments (membership of the community languages implementation committee and its terms of reference; (7) the roles and responsibilities of principal, bilingual and community language teachers, (8) total school staff, school council...; (9) child migrant education services (10) other support services and resources; and (11) framework for establishing bilingual or community language programs.

At a national level in December 1985, the Commonwealth Minister for Immigration and Ethnic Affairs with the purpose to advise the Federal government "to assist overseas-born residents to achieve their equitable participation...commissioned a national-level committee to undertake a two-stage review of migrant and multicultural programs and services (1985, 1). The central focus for stage one was to propose appropriate 'principles' and to advise on the essential 'element' of, 'priorities' within, a 'strategy' based on these principles guiding the development for the role of the federal government role and 'policies' over the next decade. The committee was also required to overview needs (weaknesses); identify current arrangements; note any gaps and overlap; advise on the nature of policies, programs and services required to meet needs; make proposals for future structures, levels and modes of service delivery and for their co-ordination; and advise on stage II of the review and propose approaches for ongoing monitoring and evaluation (ibid, 29). Stage II had evaluated key programs and services already in place against the plan thus developed. The federal government committed itself to the "promotion of the right of every resident of Australia's multicultural society to have equal access to and an equitable share of the resources it manages of behalf of the whole community" (ibid, 2). All the above were addressed in the document published in 1986 with the title *Don't Settle for Less* but it did not address schooling issues.

As in 1986, Victoria prepared a policy guideline document in order to achieve specific education outcomes in multicultural education and to explain and define what the many references (in the Ministerial Papers 1-6) to multiculturalism actually meant in Victorian schools (1986, 4). The aim was to “assist school communities to develop policies and curricula enabling students to participate effectively in a multicultural society acknowledging, accepting and reflecting the past and present multicultural nature of the Victorian population, as well as a commitment to fostering linguistic and cultural diversity within a cohesive society” (ibid, 6). An extensive consultation was conducted with community groups and education authorities. The document in section A had addressed the broader context: current government policy, cultural diversity (1986, 4), principles of education in, and for, a multicultural society; and outcomes of education in, and for, a multicultural society (p. 6). In Section B *Implications for School Communities* addressed, the role of school councils (p. 7), curriculum for a multicultural Victoria (p. 8) and the place of languages in the curriculum (p. 10) and the classroom (p. 11). The document was published for implementation in 1986 with the title *Education in and for a Multicultural society: Policy Guidelines for School Communities*.

In this same year of 1986, another new document was produced “to assist teachers, schools administrators, supervisors, parent, council and board members to develop quality LOTE programs and to evaluate and improve existing programs” (1986, 5). Multi-skilled people across networks (government and non-government) were meeting regularly in 1984-1987 to participate in its preparation. The document promised government support for schools according to their own plans and priorities in (i) planning; (ii) developing and (iii) reviewing their programs. The recommendations of the document had related to (a) Teaching and learning; (b) Selection of content (curriculum policy); and (c) Assessment and reporting (evaluation). The document with the title *First Language and Second-Language Development: Guidelines for Primary and Post Primary Schools* was published for implementation in 1986, though it was not until 1986 that Victoria abolished legislation prohibiting bilingual education (Clyne 1991).

At the Commonwealth level, the first effort towards a unified, coherent and constructive language policy had been made in 1982 by the Senate Standing Committee on Education and the Arts (SSCEA) with its *Towards a National Language Policy* – as previously mentioned. It reported in 1984 that “competence in English and provision of LOTE...”; however this paper was never implemented (1987, 5). ‘Identified issues’ of the time were the following: “public authorities response to pressing issues of language and culture had not been guided by an overall, coherent and integrated policy...” or “major gaps...identified...” or “the neglect of Australia’s language resource had as a consequence, become an issue of major national significance” (ibid, 5). Based on this ‘background and context’ in July 1986, Lo Bianco was commissioned by the Minister for Education, Senator Susan Ryan, to prepare a National Policy on Languages (NPL). Four social goals had framed the rationale for languages (a) Cultural and intellectual enrichment; (b) vocational and employment opportunities in

foreign trade for economic growth; (c) social equity and justice in overcoming disadvantage for all; and (d) Australia's role in the region and the world as a model of a multicultural society (ibid, 44).

The policy stressed four main distinctive roles of language categories: (a) English and literacy for all; (b) support for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Island languages; (c) a language other than English (LOTE) for all; and d) equitable and widespread language services (p. 44). The NPL advocated language maintenance programs and then nominated, as a valuable resource "nine languages of wider teaching, Arabic, French, German, Greek, Indonesian-Malay, Italian, Japanese, Mandarin Chinese and Spanish...at a national level...expected that more students will take these than others...and more schools will teach these...than others..." (ibid, 125). According to Cope (1997) the NPL gave support to the argument for the emerging knowledge economy using the idea of 'productive diversity'. Another scholar, McKay (2001), critically noted that one of the weaknesses of the NPL was that although it provided a strong rationale for ESL, it left a gap between federal and state responsibilities for funding provision. The NPL document was published for implementation of the Commonwealth Department of Education in 1987 with the title *National Policy on Languages* – it was the result of a long process begun very early in the 1980s.

In 1987, in Victoria the Committee of the English Language Centre, Curriculum Branch and a committee of ESL consultants from Multicultural Education Services (MES) invited school communities to discuss a draft paper accompanied by a questionnaire to "suggest how ESL programs might be supported and improved" (1987, 4). The draft discussion paper was revised by the Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) Committee "to a further support guidelines document" which was published by the Curriculum Branch, Victorian Ministry of Education (Schools Division) (p. 4) to help schools to (a) clarify the nature and the purposes of the ESL programs; (b) provide teachers, administrators, parents and the community with a description of the role and responsibilities of ESL teachers within a school (personnel-community policy); (c) provide guidelines for the identification of students in need of ESL assistance (corpus planning); (d) provide a range of options to assist schools to organise effective ESL programs as integral part of the total school curriculum (curriculum policy); (e) provide ESL teachers with guidelines that will assist them to plan and teach programs based on the needs of their students; and (f) provide guidelines for the assessment of student progress (p. 4). The document was published in 1987 with the title *Teaching of English as a Second Language (ESL): Guidelines for Primary and Post primary Schools*.

Late in the 1980s, at a federal level, while multiculturalism had become an accepted component of Australian society, the provision of resources and information regarding multicultural education, had remained uncoordinated. At a national level, the National Advisory and Co-ordinating Committee on Multicultural Education (NACCME), which had been established in late 1987 with the task of furthering, developing and implementing the goals and priorities of the NPL, undertook a review to

address the above 'weakness' and to "provide a valuable and informed basis for the consideration and further development of the Australian multicultural education" (1987, v) as well as to "prepare a blueprint for the establishment of a nationwide information and exchange network" (1987, v). The review was conducted by the Phillip Institute of Technology, led by Lidio Bertelli, an expert in library and resources management, and preceded by five stages (1) a nationwide survey to determine the availability of existing facilities and/or services, as well as the needs of potential users of and contributors to a national information exchange system; (2) an analysis of a returned questionnaire; (3) visits to major centres in each state and territory; (4) an analysis of qualitative data analysis collected during the visits; and (5) preparation of a report incorporating the findings from the study (1987, 62).

Out of the sent out questionnaires, 250 returned their forms and approximately 300 various consultations overall confirmed the ad hoc provision on multiculturalism. Specific findings were the following: There is no service which adequately and comprehensively monitors, collects and/or disseminates information and documentation; Although some useful resources (human and material) exist...various facilities remain underutilised; All states and territories have developed resources...however no facility has the capacity to monitor them in other states and territories; Existing facilities focus on two major areas (individual and/or different groups); Where major collections (materials, resources) do exist, none are comprehensive...omissions, duplications; Feelings of dissatisfaction by users; Reliance on traditional sources...; No data bases provides...; There is no establishment of a national system... (1987, 64).

Regarding the lack of provision for LOTE provision for immigrant and refugee communities, later on, Singh (2001) would critically observe that "where Anglo-ethnic interest took control of the language debate they advocated the teaching of Asian languages for their strategic economic value to business interests...community languages such as...Vietnamese or Greek Diaspora, was not recognised due to limited economic imagination and outright antagonism" (1987, 136). The Bertelli review suggested the establishment of a national unit under the name of "Multicultural Education National Information Unit" (MENIU) (1987, 64). In 1987 the NACMME had published a further review with the title *Education in and for a Multicultural Society: Issues and Strategies for Policy Making*.

In 1987, the LaTrobe University academic, Howard Nicholas, was commissioned by the NACMME to conduct a key study on the training needs of teachers in community language (personnel policy) in primary schools. 'Identified issues' were: (1). In all states, the demand for teachers far exceeded potential supply (e.g. Victoria 71.4 per cent); (2). Unclear career paths and promotion structures; lack of recognition of overseas qualifications; (3). Shortages of materials and relative inexperience of teachers (material policy); and (4). Curriculum and practices were not available to teachers (curriculum policy) (p. 18). The report for pre-service and in-service education to language teacher training made specific recommendations. These recommendations regarded: (a) Policy; (b) Content

(corpus planning); and (c) Institutional practices (training institutions and employing authorities) (p. 18). The report outlined four constraints before the recommendations could be properly contextualized as follows: (1). Absence of a policy for the funding of teacher training practices; (2). The skills already present within teacher education institutions with some exceptions (e.g. Arabic in Victoria); (3). Currently, the methodology offered seems to focus on the development of English, of non English-speaking, and not for the teaching of CLs, as either first or second language; and (4). The criteria of teachers' selection was ad hoc and inconsistent, varied from State to State and from language to language...teachers were unable to gain access to general curriculum in-service education...teachers as marginal...as a "nice extra" (p. 19). The report was published for implementation in 1987 with the title *Teacher Training Needs of Community Language Teachers in Primary Schools*.

In a bilateral context in 1987, a Ministerial Joint Standing Committee on Education (as a policy domain) between Greece and Victoria with interdepartmental and community membership was established. The committee was responsible for educational planning and policy implementation of the Greek language education programs across the state of Victoria. At this time, students studying Greek composed the highest number of LOTE Year 12 enrolments across the State of Victoria in 1985 and the previous years. In this case, both 'bottom up' and 'top down' policy processes led to this government-to-government educational agreement.

The recognition of the importance of immigration at a national level prompted the federal government to make an election commitment in 1987 that "Immigration's importance will continue to profoundly shape Australia's social and demographic development...even sharper focus at a time when significant economic readjustment is under way" (1988, ix). To this end, on 4 September 1987, the Minister for Immigration, Local Government and Ethnic Affairs appointed a committee to inquire and report on Australia's immigration policies by asking "why Australia should accept immigrants and how many it should accept and who they should be...national or ethnic origin, race, sex and religion...international humanitarian assistance...has ruled out of amnesty for illegal immigrant...full consultation with interested parties..." (1988, ix). It partly came in the aftermath of the Asianization debate as to whether Australia was taking in too many Asians, initiated in the famous 1984 Warrnambool speech by Professor Geoffrey Blainey. Members were carefully selected led by Stephen Fitzgerald, academics and businessmen, the chairman of the Asian Studies Council, members of the Advisory Council on Languages and Multicultural Education, the former Ambassador to China and the former Deputy Chairman of the Australia-China Council. It included the Melbourne barrister and chairman of the Victorian Ethnic Communities' Council, Tony Bonnici (economist and executive director of the National Centre for Development studies, at the Australia National University), Helen Hughes as well as representatives from the trade unions and local government.

The Committee was obliged to consult widely through face-to-face consultations, written submissions, participants' workshops and consultations, as well as by way of surveys. The commission in "full cognisance of the six-month time frame" examined, not surprisingly, the social, cultural, economic and demographic dimensions of immigration and the relationships between them (1988. 129). The following major recommendations were made in the report: (a) Central issues in immigration "reform"; (b) Community views and perspectives; (c) The economic focus and population issues; (d) Immigration and society; (e) The size and composition of the immigration program; (f) Selection; (g) Administration; and (h) Legislation. *Immigration: A Commitment to Australia* was published in 1988 and received a hostile reception, especially from the immigrant communities (the legislation volume is a separate document), but it was more or less implemented by the Hawke government. However, it had nothing to say on schooling or ESL/LOTE issues – in fact, on these issues, as we shall see, the tide was flowing backwards.

The same year 1988 in the state of Victoria, due to ongoing ethnic community and LOTE teacher concerns of the continuity of the primary children language learning into post-primary level, a LOTE transition project was established to "identify major problems and solution strategies" (1988, 4). Five major problem areas (weaknesses) were identified: (i) Poor communication between primary and post primary teachers and students; (ii) Lack of continuity in language education (status planning), in the methodology employed, and in the use of materials (material policy); (iii) Difficulty in catering for a range of student needs; (iv) Low status accorded to LOTE learning in terms of the overall curriculum (curriculum policy); and (v) Low priority given to transition issues. The recommendations were grouped under the following headings: (a) professional development activities (e.g. transition issues, release and emergency teacher's funding) (personnel policy); (b) Administration, organisation and evaluation (e.g. clustering or networking of primary and post-primary, transition programs evaluated and documented in details); and (c) Resourcing and promotion of LOTE transition (1988, 4). The research project was published in 1988 by the Ministry of Education (Schools Division) Victoria with the title *Transition Issues in LOTE Learning*.

The same year in Victoria, in terms of 'corpus planning' and with an emphasis on the maintenance and development of the mother tongue of children from non-English-speaking backgrounds, the Victorian Curriculum and Assessment Board outlined a new approach to LOTE "to legitimise its presence in the school curriculum..." (1985, 5). The new document-guidelines assisted those who wanted to develop a quality LOTE program (teachers, school administrators, supervisors, parents, councils and board members) to improve and evaluate LOTE programs. The document was published in 1988 with the title *The LOTE Framework P-10*.

At an international level, in 1988 due to "...the growing importance of Spanish as a language of special significance to Australia..." a five page *Memorandum of Understanding on Educational Co-operation between Victoria and Spain* was signed. The establishment of a "Joint Standing Committee on Education" and an "Agreement on the Participation of Spanish Teachers in the Ministry of Education in the State of Victoria", as well as provision for a "Spanish Language Adviser" were agreed upon with the salaries paid by the Spanish government for 1988 and 1989. Accordingly, its membership was comprised of three representatives of the Victorian Ministry of Education, two of the Spanish Ministry of Education, one from the Spanish community and the Consul-General for Spain (ex officio), reflecting 'network governance' for teaching Spanish in Victorian schools. Equally, it was in accordance with expectations not also surprising that their value was agreed to vary according to the "conception of international laws (such as UNESCO, Council of Europe or any international organisation) prevailing in their respective countries" (p. 2).

Due to the complexities of language teaching and learning in Australia, a national initiative was developed in 1988. The Curriculum Development Centre through an Australian Language Levels project led to a common approach to the teaching and learning of languages in Australia. The aim was to coordinate the expertise of language educators across the country and to respond to some of the emerging issues. A learner-centred activities approach to language-learning based was produced to guide the teaching/learning process as well as a set of goals common to all language learners and all languages across Australia. An organisational framework was outlined, allowing for commonality and portability across all states and territories through four books. The first book *Language Learning in Australia* outlines the context of language teaching and learning (corpus planning) and describes the place of languages in the school curriculum (personnel-curriculum policy). It also provides a definition of the meaning of the 'languages curriculum' by means of a curriculum 'jigsaw', and examines the prevailing trends in language learning at the time.

Furthermore, *Syllabus Development and Programming* suggests possible syllabuses content at different learning stages, describing procedures for the planning of both syllabuses and classroom programs. Moreover, the third book, *Method, Resources, and Assessment*, provides advice for teachers in questions of the interrelated areas of method, resources and assessment. Lastly, *Evaluation, Curriculum Renewal, and Teacher Development* underlines that none of the above ought to be viewed as static. On the contrary, curriculum and professional expertise is in a state of constant development (1988, 35). This series was published by the Curriculum Development Centre for implementation in 1988, under the title *Australian Language Levels Guidelines*.

At the end of the 1980s, Australia's international and regional economic relations, not surprisingly, had impacted on language reform. Australia's economic relations with Northeast Asia, prompted the Australian government to commission a report in 1989 by Ross Garnaut, to report to the Prime Minister and the Minister for Foreign Affairs and Trade for the development of trade with Northeast Asia. The report's terms of references were: (a) to analyse and report on economic growth and structural change in national economies with a particular focus on Japan, China (including Taiwan and Hong Kong) and Korea with a time frame stretching back to the previous year and into the end of the 20th century and beyond; (b) to assess the effects of these developments on Australia...and the wider international economy; (c) to review the Australian response to economic growth and structural change...; and (d) to recommend on policy and other responses which would increase the economic, political and wider benefits while reducing the costs to Australia..." (1989, v). 'Consultation' by both 'internal' and 'external' key players (persons and institutions) and their networks (economic and political) was conducted. The key players were the Departments of Foreign Affairs and Trade; the Prime Minister and his Cabinet; Industry Technology and Commerce; Immigration, Local Government and Ethnic Affairs; Employment Education and Training; Primary Industries and Energy; Transport and Communications; Defence; and Treasury as well as Qantas...Australian Embassies in Tokyo, Beijing and Seoul and the Consulates-General in Hong Kong and Shanghai...New York...many ministers and government officials in Japan, China, Korea and Hong Kong and in Korea (trade unions)...Bill Mattingly of the Australian Commerce and Industry Office in Taipei..." (1989, vii).

Five inter-related and unsurprising conclusions were reached: (a) Australia carries many assets in its relations with Northeast Asia favourable to its own interests...; (b)...international discussions affecting its future, but not the capacity to secure objectives through the exercise of national power...; (c) its economic diplomacy should be placed behind efforts to secure open, non-discriminatory trade in the process of sustained rapid growth in Northeast Asia...; (d) developing professional excellence in the management for an effective economic diplomacy to allow Australian enterprises to make the most of commercial opportunities...; and (e) domestic economic reform to build a flexible, internationally-oriented economy grasping the opportunities in the decades ahead (1989, 7). The report for sustained and rapid economic growth provided the following implications: (i) Knowing Asia and being Australian: through migration the skills of migrants in their own languages and cultures should be used deliberately and extensively in teacher training and retraining and education more broadly (p. 31); (ii) Knowing Asia and being Australian: through education, Australia's long term success in getting the most out of its relationships with Asia depends more than anything else on the quality of its investments in education. The report concluded that only when the study of Asia was widespread in schools would a "substantial number of Australians....achieve mastery of Northeast Asian languages, economics, politics, and other subjects, or reasonable proficient on Northeast Asian in conjunction with high achievement in other profession or disciplines" (p. 33). The title of the 1989 report,

Australia and the North-East Asian Ascendancy, reflected the rapid and forthcoming rise not just of Japan and Taiwan but of Korea and China itself.

At the end of the 1980s, educational provision in multicultural education constituted a significant need in the Australian society. The federal government emphasizing this need conducted a study across Australia in 1988 through the Office of Multicultural Affairs attached to the Department of the Prime Minister and Cabinet, with the aim to examine multiculturalism as a policy, through the experience of Australians; as a set of beliefs, through their attitudes; and as an aspect of cultural maintenance. The study examining and analysing three major objectives concentrated on: (1) The attitudes of the Australian and overseas-born towards multiculturalism, focussing in particular on views about the maintenance of customs, way of life and patterns of behaviour among immigrants; (2) The barriers which exist to provide full access and equity to groups born overseas, principally in the fields of education, jobs and the provision of general health and welfare programmes and services; and (3) The levels of participation in the social and political spheres in community, cultural and work related organisations, and in the use of the political process to remedy problems and grievances (p. 1-2).

To meet the above objectives, the study was designed with the following four surveys: (i) a general sample of the population; (ii) non-English speaking born immigrants in general (the NESB sample); (iii) persons born in Australia whose father or mother was born in a non-English speaking country (the second generation sample); and (iv) persons who migrated to Australia since July 1981 from non-English speaking countries (the new arrivals sample). The total universe included persons aged 15 years and over living in private dwellings throughout Australia. Persons living in sparsely populated rural areas and isolated urban centres with a population of less than 10,000 were excluded. Using personal interviews as the data collection method, the number of units (cases) refer to the general sample, the NESB sample, the second generation sample and the new arrivals sample respectively were: numbers of units in original sample: 2510; 1379; 1181; 1647; number of losses: 915; 393; 358; 506; number of replacements: 243; 0; 0; 0; number of cases (unweighted): 1552; 986; 823; 1141. The title of the report was *Issues in Multicultural Australia*.

In response, the following year, in 1989, in order to meet both short-term needs and long-term objectives for multiculturalism, the Australian government had designed a series of policy initiatives. The major initiatives were: (1) A major reform to recognize overseas qualifications through the establishment of a National Office of Overseas Skills Recognition; (2) a major community relations campaign over three years to ensure that ethnic diversity goes hand-in-hand with social cohesion; (3) strengthening of the Government's Access and Equity Strategy, to improve access to government services and to overcome barriers of language, culture and prejudice; (4) specific access and equity initiatives for community services...programs and activities in the education sector; (5) legislation; (6) extension of the TV channel SBS television; (7) a package of English language measures including:

(a) \$3 million per year to extend ESL in schools; (b) substantial additional resources for ESL...by correspondence; 8) a firm government commitment to support second language learning; and i) co-ordination of collection and documentation activities undertaken by cultural institutions libraries and museums (1989, ix-x).

The agenda also required the Office of Multicultural Affairs to examine the desirability of a Multiculturalism Act for Australia, but this has yet to happen. The rationale was the following: “A major objective of such an Act would be to define the principles and, quite explicitly, to set the limits to multiculturalism...provide a means of giving a legislative basis for the Government’s Access and Equity strategy” (1989, x). The necessary process of wide community consultation and with bipartisan political support defined the desirability of specific legislative measures in the following three dimensions of multicultural policy: i) cultural identity; ii) social justice and iii) economic efficiency (1989, x). In July 1989, based on the above principles, the Commonwealth government (Office of Multicultural Affairs) published the document, *National Agenda for a Multicultural Australia*. Language maintenance was implicit in the commitment both to cultural identity and economic efficiency in developing language proficiencies for the economic well-being of Australia.

In 1989 in Victoria, an action plan document had set its priorities at the universal acquisition of standard English, the widespread learning of LOTE and, in particular, the maintenance of languages spoken by communities in Australia. The document in terms of ‘status’ and ‘acquisition’ planning promoted languages of key geographic, political and economic importance promoting language teaching in all schools and for all students. Yet another document was published for implementation in 1989 by the Victorian Ministry of Education with the title: “*Languages Action Plan (LAP)*”.

At a federal level in 1990, an evaluation was commissioned by the AACLAME to report to the Minister for Employment, Education and Training on the NPL programs from December 1987- March 1990. Figure 4.1 shows the six NPL supplemented programs and the funding amounts.

Figure 4.1: NPL Programs and their Funding (1987-1990):

Program	1987-88	1988-89	1989-90	1990-91
	\$	\$	\$	\$
Australian Second Language Learning Programs	3.9	7.7	7.7	3.9
Adult Literacy Action Campaign	1.96	1.96	-	-
Multicultural and Cross-cultural Supplementation Program	0.75	1.5	1.5	0.75
National Aboriginal Languages Program	0.5	1.0	1.0	1.0
Asian Studies Program	1.85	1.95	1.95	1.95
English as a Second Language, New Arrivals Element	12.425	18.85	21.15	22.3
AACLAME	0.19	0.2	0.2	0.2
Total	21.575	33.16	33.5	30.1

Source: The National Policy on Languages (1990, v).

The programs were: The Australian Second Language Learning Programs, the Adult Literacy Action Campaign, the Multicultural and Cross-cultural Supplementation Program (the old ethnic schools program), the National Aboriginal Languages Program, the Asian Studies Program, the English as a Second Language and the New Arrivals Element. The NPL also supported an advisory council (AACLAME) to the Minister for Employment, Education and Training and the Languages Institute of Australia.

The AACLAME had found that while all programs were effective in meeting their short-term goals, the needs they were set up to address, cannot be met effectively in such a short period a second triennium was needed to identify desired implementation strategies through the following recommendations: (1). For a comprehensive national literacy learning for both native and non-native speakers of English; (2). to maintain the highest standards among the English as a foreign language industry; (3). for a research facility dedicated specifically to the English teaching needs of children; (4). to develop existing and potential linguistic resources to meet domestic and international communication requirements; (5). to ensure that language services reflect the needs of all members of the community...; and (6). to maximise access to information for all people. The document was published in May 1990 with the title *National Policy on Languages: December 1987-March 1990*, but its recommendations on school ESL/LOTE issues remained pedestrian.

In 1990, at a federal level, a further review, albeit in-house, was prepared concerning the Australian Second Language Learning Program (ASLLP), by the Asian Studies Branch of the Department of Employment, Education and Training. It found that while “achievements are encouraging...and the quality of programs has generally increased...” the range of initiatives funded was “extremely diverse with a decline towards its last year of the first phase” as follows: (1988, AUD3.9 m; 1989, AUD7.7 m; 1990, \$ 7.7 m; 1991, AUD3.9 m (1990, 5). Three major recommendations were made: (1) The continuation of the ASLLP: (a) three more years (stage two); (b) link with LOTE; and (c) national consultation; (2) The dissemination of its outcomes: (a) the report’s distribution to other government offices and projects; (b) exemplary programs and material projects; and (3) Administration. Recommendations were also made regarding specific projects for professional development of LOTE teachers (personnel policy) and research studies in bilingualism (ibid, 12-21) – clearly the Nicholas recommendations had not been appropriately implemented. The Review was published in 1990 with the title *A Review of the Australian Second Language Learning Program*.

Growing concerns at the end of the 1980s about Australia’s international trade competitiveness and second language competence, had prompted in May 1989, the AACLAME to sponsor a report at the federal level. The same relationship which was “fairly well established in a number of studies in the UK, US, Japan and Germany” and the ‘identified issue’, namely the internationalisation of the trade which “...has left Australia at a competitive disadvantage”, had prompted the AACLAME to conclude that “there was little reason thinking that Australia was excluded for the general principle that links the two...” (1989, 97-98). The report was undertaken by the Brisbane College of Advanced Education’s David Ingram, John Stanley and Gary Chittick over a period of 12 weeks. Establishing a correlation between LOTE skills and export success, the report elicited opinions based on company experience of the need for LOTE competences as a factor in determining export success. This approach involved 2,000 companies nominated by Austrade as exporters. The return rate for the questionnaire was 25 per cent; the awareness of a possible relationship between LOTE skills and export success by companies was found to be very low (ibid, 99).

While 27 per cent felt that their exports “had been negatively affected by a lack of LOTE skills”, the “lack of knowledge of foreign markets” was rated among the most serious (p. 99). Overall, the report, *The Relationship between International Trade and Linguistic Competence*, found that the nine languages most in demand were Mandarin, Japanese, Arabic, Indonesian, Korean, Thai, Spanish, German and French in approximately that order. According to the companies sampled, of the categories of management, marketing, personnel, technical and secretarial staff, the first two had the greatest need of LOTE. The review also made the following recommendations: (a) Both European and Asian business languages are to be fostered (no 4); (b) Relating to business (no 22); (c) Relating to the language teaching profession with particular reference to the needs of industry and commerce (no 7); (d) Relating to students with bilingual skills (no 3).

At the beginning of the 1990s, the concerns remained paramount: “through the NPL a great deal has been achieved but much remains to be done”, “...literacy needs and difficulties are an urgent issue...”, “...the demands for higher literacy skills are increasing”, “there is an urgent need for a clear focal point in the community, which is presently missing” (1990, ix-x), “...non-English-speaking immigrants’ English language needs are not being met...” or “participation in the learning of LOTE remains low in both the schools...” and “...both literacy and English as a second language provision is of special concern...” They prompted in March 1990 the Prime Minister’s commitment to maintain and develop the NPL programs (1990, xiii, xiv). A Discussion Paper (Green Paper) was published for “consultation” to inform the preparation of a Policy Information Paper (White Paper) by June 1991 that would rationalise and refocus the wide array of literacy and language programs. The title of the Green Paper was *The Language of Australia. Discussion Paper on an Australian Literacy and Language Policy for the 1990s*.

The aim was to set out the government’s policy that might be governing Australian ‘Literacy’ and ‘Languages’ policy arms together for the 1990s. Thus it was perhaps not surprising that the Green Paper was grounded in well-researched and scholarly detail. The process essentially, also unsurprisingly, was supported by the principles agreed upon in a previous effort, namely, the “Special Premiers’ Conference” in October 1990. Over 340 submissions were received, in addition to scores of yet another round of consultations around Australia. The goals of the policy were: (1). All Australians should attain and maintain...in spoken and written forms of English; (2). the learning of LOTE...both within the Australia community and internationally; (3). “....”.

A series “of options had developed to improve discussions, strategies and levels of participation and services (Commonwealth with those of the states and territories, industry, the community and the individual) in literacy in English and LOTE...” (1990, xiii). The action proposed to reorient with 73 strategies and give priorities to: (a) build on state and territory strategies so Commonwealth’s contributions appropriate meet these goals through “bilateral” agreements; (b) adopt consistent mechanisms to assess outcomes; (c)...; (d)...new strategic framework; (e) encourage the use of ‘Plain English’; (f) propose a national centre to monitor, assess and promote current usage in Australian English; and g)... (ibid, xv). The Discussion Paper was launched by John Dawkins, the Minister for the Department of Education in December 1990, in two volumes. Volume one dealt with all the above and volume two consisted of a series of Appendixes which had examined specific issues in more detail.

The same year in the State of Victoria, a change in Greek educational planning and policy development occurred with the appointment of a Greek Language Adviser at its Department of Education and Training for both ‘status’, ‘acquisition’ and ‘corpus’ planning purposes through a three-page bilateral agreement between Victoria and Greece.

4.5 Beyond 1991 or ‘Cooperation and Transformation Phase’

The views expressed in the consultations and 340 written submissions *Language of Australia: Discussion Paper on Australian Literacy and Language Policy for the 1990s* in conjunction with extensive reviews of previous years regarding the adequacy of Australia’s national efforts in language and literacy education, its problems and possible solutions, led to a Policy Information (White) Paper, for action. This document submitted in reaction to the criticism of the Green discussion paper put language policy developments on a different track. The White Paper addressed issues related to the development or increased proficiency in “English through improved literacy and English as a second language provision and LOTE” (1991, vii). Each state and territory identified priority languages meeting the nominated criteria including the status of the language in terms of Australia’s global, regional, and/or national or domestic importance. The European languages were French, German, Italian, Modern Greek, Russian and Spanish. The Asian languages were Chinese, Indonesian, Japanese, Korean, Thai, and Vietnamese, plus Arabic together with Aboriginal and Torres Strait islander languages (1990, 64-65). The states were asked to nominate eight of these priority languages for Commonwealth funds to be made available on a per capita basis depending on the number of Year 12 students enrolled in a priority language (ibid, 76). The White Paper also recognised the following: (i) “languages as a right”: “...the efforts of the ethnic communities to promote language teaching through the Ethnic Schools Programme”, (ii) “personnel policy”: “...the employment and supply of teachers of LOTE languages”, (iii) “community policy”: “...language teaching and cultural awareness in Australia...” (ibid, 80).

For first time, a common national curriculum committee was established, namely, the Curriculum Assessment Committee (CURASS), to oversee the development of national curriculum guidelines (the Curriculum Statements and Profiles for Australian Schools). While funding measures had been based on existing program arrangements, not surprisingly for new proposed arrangements, budgetary flexibility for states and territories was increased. In striking contrast, the magnitude of difference in scope between the NPL (1991, 20-21 this chapter) and the ALLP can be illustrated by the four year figures for the latter’s implementation: 1991-92: AUD278.46 m; 1992-93: AUD320.51m; 1993-94: AUD333.33m. The White Paper had established four goals involving amendments to the earlier three inspired by the NPL principles (English for all; support for Aboriginal and Torres strait Islander languages; a language other than English for all) and a new fourth one (equitable and widespread language services) (p. 4, 14, 19, 20). However, according to Brock (2001) “some already existing ‘buckets’ of funds in around twenty programs that previously had been located in other parts of DEET” (p. 58) and Wickert (2001) “although there is some dispute about how much of these funds were ‘new’ in the sense that the ALLP had picked up and combined a number of existing programs (1991, 79).

Likewise Brock (2001) commented that "...the effectiveness of the programs...established under the ALLP...while some of the programs have survived and even thrived, quite a number of the initiatives have either disappeared or have failed to win continued support under the two federal coalition government administrations" (1991, 70). Similarly, according to the same author, "the target of having 25 per cent of the year 12 student population complete one of the fourteen designated priority languages was emphatically not achieved by 2000" (1991, 71). The document was also criticized by Singh (2001) in that "it drove a major division...by its prioritisation of commercial Asian languages...failed... incorporating Australia's other languages within an interlinked, globally...linguistic diversity locally...it denied the speakers of different Australian languages (Clyne 2005) the opportunity to secure resources for engaging in the ongoing struggles around White Australia's English-only politics" (1991, 137). The White Paper was released for implementation at a federal level in 1991 by the Minister for Employment, Education and Training entitled *Australia's Language: the Australian Language and Literacy Policy (ALLP)*.

At an international level, in 1991 a three-page *Agreement on Cultural, Educational and Scientific Co-operation between Australia and Spain* was signed, inspired by the "desire to develop closer cultural, educational and scientific relations, and desirous of strengthening friendship and co-operation between the Spanish and Australian peoples" (Australian Treaty Series 1991; No 17, p. 1).

During the same period, the Commonwealth Department of Education and Training commissioned the Centre for English as a Second Language at the University of Western Australia to review ESL teaching. This 1992 report, known as the Herriman Draft Report and entitled *Evaluative Study of the Commonwealth ESL Program*, was never formally published of the Commonwealth. According to Cahill (1996; 2001), this was unfortunate for it contained many useful insights. However, it was implicitly critical of the Department. Consultations with the systems revealed some dissatisfaction with it. Personnel in other systems wondered why DEET had not acted on its conclusions. Cahill also pinpointed one 'weakness' of the program as follows: "the report lacked an immigrant settlement perspective, and hence did not sufficiently address the changing nature of the permanent and temporary immigrant intake and the changing dispersal patterns of immigrant families" (1992, 52).

The ongoing desirability of the Victorian government that by 1996, all students study a second language at Victorian schools in years 7-10, was proclaimed in the 1991 Ministerial Statement on Education and Training *Education for Excellence*. The Victorian government in order to meet the above aim adopted increasingly, sophisticated approaches to data collection and reporting on LOTE in Victorian government primary and secondary schools (p. 3). The report had provided information on the then current LOTE provision in two parts. Part 1 described the provision at the secondary level (secondary colleges, the Correspondence School and the Victorian School of Languages). Part 2 contained information on languages at the primary level. Not surprisingly the report included other

sources of data such as the school census returns for July 1989 and February 1991, and the 1989 LOTE survey data. That was the fourth annual LOTE survey (p. 8). The overall findings of *Languages other than English in Government Schools 1991* were the following: (a) the renewed interest by schools to include more languages in the curriculum (status planning-curriculum policy); (b) the number of secondary schools providing a language other than English at one or more levels has increased twelve per cent since 1989; (c) eighty-two per cent of students at year 7 study a language other than English; (d) nine per cent of all primary students were in language programs; and (e) enrolments had risen since 1989 in most of the languages taught in both primary and secondary schools with a proportionately greater increase in Asian languages. It was anticipated that these findings would have increased the capacity of the Ministry to assess progress in increasing and improving the learning of LOTE (p. 3).

At a national level in 1992, the Australian National Audit Office (ANAO) reviewed the operation of the ESL program. The scathing report's scope was to "assess the efficiency and effectiveness of the Department's administration of the ESL program, the program's design, and its funds disbursement and accountability arrangements" (p. ix). ANAO's key findings were the following: (1) "...its effectiveness is not known..."; (2) "...no uniform, accepted standards..."; (3) "...outdated funding formula..."; (4) "...no link between payment of the New Arrivals grant and the level of instruction..."; (5) "...in July 1990 was announced...assistance which was not finalised until June 1992; (6) "...accountability statements...insufficient information..."; 7) "...inadequate checking of the eligibility for New Arrivals students..."; and 8) "...the Department needs to recognise more clearly its wider responsibilities for management...(p. x). The ANAO's recommendations for the expected implementation impact had included: (a) greater transparency of the Commonwealth's role; (b) clearer objectives, targets, indicators; (c) closer alignment of New Arrivals funding; (d) allocation of General Support funds on a more equitable basis; (e) better program planning and improved management and control of funds; (f) improved analysis and reporting; (g) more timely and improved accountability for expenditure to the Commonwealth (1992, xii).

The highest priority was given to the following two recommendations: *to set specific operational objectives* (no. 2) and *link ESL funding to the level of ESL instruction* (no. 6). The Department had required the assistance of state and territory government and non-government education authorities in implementing the following six recommendations: Rec 1: *...education authorities to provide more information on ESL expenditure*; Rec 2: *...set specific operational objectives*; Rec 7: *...require disclosure of fund allocation principles*; Rec 10: *...exchange planning information with education authorities*; Rec 22: *...improve quality of program accountability information*; Rec 23: *...expedite timely preparation of reports*.

The ANAO, not surprisingly, had acknowledged that “it may take some years to introduce progressively the program arrangements recommended in this report” (ibid, 53). According to Cahill (2002), in regard to the ESL program’s lacklustre administration, “in response to the criticism, the Commonwealth Department of Employment, Education and Training stated explicitly that it was not responsible for ESL education in Australian schools” (ibid, 72).

In 1992 the Commonwealth government had requested that each state nominate eight languages which would attract per capita funding for Year 12 enrolments. Victoria’s choice of Chinese, French, German, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, Modern Greek and Vietnamese was based on demand and enrolments and reflected community interests and consensus (1993, i). In May 1993, the draft *Strategy Development Plan for Languages other than English* (1993, 1) was published for a widely circulated consultation across Victoria. To assist in finding solutions in LOTE provision, the draft document contained 25 recommendations regarding: (i) Policy; (ii) teacher supply (personnel policy); (iii) continuity of provision; (iv) curriculum development (curriculum policy); and (v) promotion and publicity (community policy). The major recommendation was “to provide language programs for all students P-10 and for at least 25 per cent of Years 11-12 students by the year 2000” (1993, 9). The document was published in October 1993 for implementation by the Directorate of School Education and the Ministerial Advisory Council on Languages other than English Languages with the title *Languages Other Than English Strategy Plan*.

At a national level early in the 1990s, problems of ‘co-ordination’ and the ‘meeting (of) nationally-agreed goals had required additional structures and processes for LOTE teachers. Due to the large number of languages, there was a problem in language education planning: “from where do you get the teachers”? Moreover, language planning into the employment and supply of teachers of LOTE was characterised by a large degree of institutional autonomy at all levels (including at university level). This had clear advantages in the capacity to respond to local needs and circumstances and to develop specialist concentrations in training, professional development and curriculum planning (1993, xii). Due to the above concerns a 1993 enquiry, *Language at the Crossroads*, was commissioned by the AACLAME in conjunction with the NLLIA with the aim to report on “a national enquiry into the employment and supply of LOTE teachers to provide data for immediate and future reference and a backdrop against which future development can be measured (1993, 3).

Data were gathered by way of questionnaires, consultation and reporting, detailing Commonwealth-state/territory relations, initiatives to improve ‘personnel policy’ in: “teacher quality; the demand of teachers; the supply, recruitments and deployment of teachers; preparation; ensuring job satisfaction and quality teaching; promoting languages in schools” (p. 8). The overall impressions conveyed to the Committee were: (i) “the striking energy and commitment...teachers wanted to go forward, seeking ways of expanding and improving LOTE...investing personal time, emotion and energy...enormous

hope...”; (ii) “despite progress...fragility...enormous uncertainty...deeply concerned at the future of particular languages or all languages...efforts unrecognized...deeply worried...languages once again go out of favour and their work undone” (introduction). The contrast and discourse conveyed both enormous hope and enormous uncertainty, leading to the ambiguity contained in the title. Language education was at the crossroads!

Internationally, in 1993 Victoria and Indonesia committed themselves through a one page *Memorandum of Cooperation in Education between the Department of Education in the State of Victoria and the Department of Education and Culture in the Republic of Indonesia* to “promote and expand the teaching of Bahasa Indonesia in Victoria and English in Indonesia...” (1993, 1).

Early in the 1990s, Australia’s burgeoning economic relations with North and South-East Asia had prompted Australian governments to take a national initiative for Asian languages. In December 1992, the Council of Australian Governments (COAG) agreed to “strengthen the development of an export culture in Australia and to secure the widest possible support for specific export strategies under the umbrella of the National Trade Strategy, particularly in regard to Australia’s economic relations with North-East and South-East Asia” (p. i). To this end the COAG had established a high-level working group to prepare a report by the end of 1993 with the aim to: (i) outline current efforts of the Commonwealth and States in Asian language and culture education; and (ii) develop a strategic framework for the implementation of a comprehensive Asian languages and cultures program in Australian schools by the end of the decade (1994, i).

The working group had commissioned the East Asia Analytical Unit (EAAU) of the Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade (DFAT) to employ appropriate quantitative models to project Australia’s most significant export markets up to 2012 with the aim: “...schools would produce the first graduate until the middle of the first decade of next century” (1994, iii). Some of the report’s major findings were “...Asian languages (be) a non-elective part for the compulsory years...”; “...New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland and South Australia have either adopted this policy decision or indicated they intend to move in this policy direction...the rest are currently under review of this issue” and “...there is a significant funding gap which needs to be addressed” (ibid, iii). In addition, the report listed eight of Australia’s top ten merchandise export markets as Asian: Japan, China, Taiwan, Hong Kong, Singapore, Korea, Indonesia and Malaysia”. Moreover, “...tourism in the 1990s...from 2.4 million will grow to between 4.8 and 6.5 and Japanese market could generate 2.28 million visitors...Taiwan, Hong Kong and Korea will grow in importance by the year 2000...” (ibid, iv).

Subsequently, and this was perhaps not surprising, the report recommended that efforts of the Commonwealth, state and territory specific programs must include: (1) the School Language Program: Priority Languages Incentive Element (PLIE) \$327 per student completing a Year 12 course in a

priority language; Community Languages Element: (Ethnic Schools Program) supported the provision of Asian languages in mainstream and ethnic schools (p. ii); (2) Languages, Asian Studies and Literacy Support Program: Innovative Languages Other Than English In Schools Program (ILOTES) (an estimated 52 per cent of these funds go to support Asian languages development), Asian Studies Program: (support curriculum and professional development), Asia Education Foundation: (promote learning about Asia across the curriculum); (3) the Asian Languages Teachers In-Country Scholarships (ALTICS): (short-term in-country study); and (4) the National Asian Languages Scholarship Scheme (NALSS) (ibid, viii-ix).

The report had also suggested:

- (1) "...future languages' expansion be Japanese, Chinese (Mandarin), Indonesian and Korean";
- (2) "every three years the DFAT...analyse...whether other languages may need...prioritization in the future";
- (3) "...governments endorse a school-based program...of achieving quantitative and qualitative improvement...";
- (4) "...the target date for achieving the 25 per cent be extended from 2000 to 2006; 15 per cent of Year 12 students by that date (to be) studying a priority Asian language (up from the then figure of 4 per cent); the remaining 10 per cent be met by studying other languages (up from the present figure of 8 per cent), (60 per cent of Year 10 students studying a priority Asian language);
- (5) "...trialing during 1995 and implementation at the beginning of the 1996.

Thus economic rationalism and corporate managerialism elevated economy goals with efficiency and effectiveness as the prime public management values. The influence of the foreign affairs department was at the fore. However, the report according to Scarino and Lin (2001) failed to "present the educationally-driven rationale which relates to the intellectual and cultural benefits of learning languages" (p. 309). Another scholar (Singh 2001) had commented:

"Where Anglo-ethnic interests took control of the language debate they advocated the teaching of Asian languages for their strategic economic value to business interests, and in return secured much of the resources allocated for language education. The global connectedness of community languages, such as those of the Vietnamese or Greek Diaspora was not recognised due to a limited economic imagination and outright antagonism" (p. 136).

Similarly, Moore (1995) has described the Commonwealth language education policy for economic wellbeing, rather than pluralism and multiculturalism, as "economic assimilationism" (p. 14). The report known as the Rudd Report (the 16th over the last 25 years) was published in February 1994 for implementation with the title *Asian Languages and Australia's Economic Future*. Of course, Rudd,

then heading the Queensland Public Service and a fluent Chinese speaker, would become Prime Minister in 2007.

At an international level, in June 1994 a one page *Memorandum of Cooperation in Education and Training between the Government of Victoria and the Ministry of Education, Thailand* was signed between Victoria and Thailand in “recognition of the importance of education and training in national development and desiring to strengthen and broaden cooperation and mutual assistance” in both countries with regards to “bilateral education programs” e.g “promoting and expanding the teaching of Thai in Victoria and English in Thailand...”. A Joint Standing Committee on Education was also established to “facilitate the implementation on the above stated programs”.

Unmet aims and objectives of language planning and policy at a federal level had forced in 1990 the NLLIA to review LOTE, with the rationale that although many language policy documents since the mid-1970s have charted the course of action to be taken, many of these often did not set out a clear plan of action to achieve their professed objectives. During 1993-1994 the NLLIA conducted a major sociolinguistic profiling study of the nine Languages of Wider Teaching as they were categorised by the 1987 NLP [Arabic, (Mandarin), French, German, Modern Greek, Indonesian/Malay, Italian, Japanese and Spanish]. The overall title of each document was *Unlocking Australia's Language Potential: Profiles of Nine Key Languages*. The aim was a new course of action which required an understanding of the state of play of LOTE provision and delivery in Australia with the following objectives: (i) What is the position of LOTEs at all levels of the education system? (status planning); (ii) What are the factors promoting or inhibiting the learning of LOTEs? (iii) What is the place or role of LOTEs in the language communities and the Australian community at large? (community policy); and (iv) What is the economic and strategic relevance of languages spoken within the Australian community? (1993, 1-3).

Some critical issues were identified: (i) shortage of language teachers (especially at primary school level) (personnel policy); (ii) shortage of teachers in languages such as Japanese, modern Greek and Italian at tertiary level; (iii) lack of appropriate pre-service and in-service training; (iv) limited training of LOTE teachers in language teaching methodologies (especially at tertiary level) (corpus planning); (v) teachers' dissatisfaction with their proficiency levels in the language(s) they were teaching; (vi) transition problems from primary to post-primary; (vii) shortage of adequate language materials and resources (material policy); (viii) students' limited exposure to the LOTE they study and the related issue of in-county training (1993, 155-156).

At an international level, on 30 May 1995, not surprisingly due to Victoria's interest in the economic languages of that period (the Asian languages for Australia's Economic Future was released in 1994), a three page *Memorandum of Understanding on Cooperation in Language Teaching between the*

Foreign Affairs Department State Education Commission People's Republic of China and Directorate of School Education State of Victoria Australia was signed between Victoria and China. The aim was to improve the teaching of Chinese in Victoria with the appointment of a Chinese language advisor at the Directorate of School Education with the stipulation that Australia “appoint a Chinese Language Advisor” (p. 1). What is perhaps surprising is that the Victorian Directorate of School Education “shall provide the Chinese Language Advisor with a tax free salary of \$ 25,000 per annum...the salary in China of the Chinese Language Advisor while the Advisor is working in Victoria shall be provided by the Chinese party” (p. 2). The above contrasts with other countries e.g. the agreement between Australia and Greece (1990) was that “...the salary will be met by the Hellenic Republic for the duration of the appointment of a Greek Language Advisor...”. Not surprisingly, the rationale between Victoria and Indonesia in 1995 highlighted the geopolitical factor “...mutual linguistic and cultural understanding between our neighbouring countries...”.

The changing immigration landscape's impact towards the educational environment had prompted the Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs in 1995 to commission a research team from RMIT University and the Australian Catholic University to review and assess Australia's schooling responses since the mid-1980s. The aim was to “assess the impact of students from immigrant backgrounds on Australian schools and the responses of schools to the presence of immigrant children and to overall immigration dimension of the Australian society” (p. 2). The multifaceted research strategy included a review of the literature, demographic analysis, submissions (written with face-to-face consultations) and consultations with systems' personnel and school case studies of schools, five intensive case studies in New South Wales, Victoria and Queensland and ten less intensive studies in New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland and South Australia.

Changes in the migration landscape since the mid-1980s were characterised by: (a) fluctuation in intakes and significant cutbacks in the 1980s (1986) and in the 1990s (1997); (b) a higher proportion of refugees; (c) the revving up of the business migration scheme during the 1980s before its curtailment and its later re-launch; (d) the cutback in concessional family reunion numbers; (e) greater ethnic, religious and linguistic diversity in the intake and a broader geographical dispersal of ethnic minority students across the education systems; and (f) the emergence of second- and third-generation cohorts and associated varying levels rates of language maintenance and a shift within ethnolinguistic communities, a shift that does not automatically lead to high levels of English-language competency (p. 144).

Some of the major conclusions from this 1996 study, known as the Cahill-report with the title *Immigration and Schooling in the 1990s* were as follows: (1) there should be a shift in responsibility of states and Commonwealth about funding...; (2) ESL from language maintenance...; (3) there is a lack of coordination between government and private systems; (4) the climate for LOTE education has

much improved since 1985 (strength) especially regarding Asian languages...however, progress by government authorities has been slower than expected... (weakness); (4) Australian schools' climate for students with cultural, religious and racial backgrounds is positive...perceptions that schools are hotbeds of racism...are ill-founded and simply wrong...; (5) the issue of racism needs to be reframed in terms of cross-cultural diversity within a supportive school environment...; (6)...school interaction with immigrant parents has been on the reverse for some time...(community policy); (7) an attempted evolution in curriculum design (1985 to 1995) remains to be seen...(curriculum policy); (8) ... half of the teachers have never participated in the areas of curriculum material and professional development (personnel policy) (ibid, 147-149). The report suggested that the future directions should be guided by the following considerations: (a) program quality and management; (b) ethnicity data collection; and (c) reconceptualising the multicultural education area (1996, 151).

At the national level, a review regarding language teacher quality and supply was conducted in the same year. The context of this review was that in June 1993, through the National Board of Employment Education and Training, the Australian Language and Literacy Council had received a reference from the Minister for Employment, Education and Training in the following terms: "Drawing on existing reviews, the Board is requested to provide advice on policy and implementation in the areas of Languages other than English teacher quality and supply" (p. introduction). The scope was to provide recommendations only on matters for which the Commonwealth had (directly or independently) responsibility (1996, 161). The key finding of the Council's investigation was that "Australia's language teachers are not themselves sufficiently proficient in the language they are teaching...the gaps between the rhetoric of policy objectives and the practice of classrooms...remain of chasmal proportions" (ibid, 180). The Council was made 14 recommendations in the following areas: (1). Student enrolment policies; (2). Data on teacher supply; (3). Use data to construct funding; (4). Sources of teacher supply; (5). Quality assurance; (6). Pre-service teacher education; (7). Language proficiency targets by universities; (8). Professional developments; (9). Funds to assist national, state and territory professional associations; (10). Dissemination of quality resources for pre-service and professional development; (11). In-country experience; (12). Administrative or management processes; (13). Schools programs carried out by properly qualified teachers; and (14). Research (ibid, 180-181). The document, published in May 1996, was entitled *Language Teachers: The Pivot of Policy*.

Annual data collection of LOTE studies across Victoria had started in 1987. The 1991 data showed progress had been made towards "achieving the LOTE Strategy Plan targets through the implementation of LOTE policy with careful planning and co-ordination between the various LOTE providers, especially in primary schools" (1996, 3). The major findings of the 1996 report were: (a) Nineteen languages were taught in primary schools; (b) Seventeen in Secondary schools; (c) Forty-one languages were taught through the Victorian schools of languages (VSL); (d) Seven languages through

the Distance Education Section; (e) Fifty-two languages were provided through after-hours ethnic schools (p. 3); (f) Primary Access to Languages via Satellite (PALS) enabled 56 per cent of the 1995 number to be taught LOTEs and supplemented the face-to-face increase of 26 per cent from the 1995 number; overall, the number of primary schools offering a LOTE rose to 97 per cent and the number of primary students studying a LOTE increased by 18 per cent; (g) For the first time, in 1996, all government secondary schools provided a LOTE; (h) Secondary Access to Languages via Satellite (SALS) commenced in 1996 and enabled 11 secondary schools to offer LOTE and supplemented the face-to-face LOTE programs in a further 624 secondary schools; (i) Teacher supply continued to be an issue in some areas, particularly in country Victoria; (j) In 1996, Chinese (Mandarin), French, German, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, Modern Greek and Vietnamese continued to be the languages in greatest demand (ibid, 3). The title of the document was *Languages Other than English in Government Schools, 1996*.

Anecdotal evidence suggests that access to languages via the satellite (PALS) program never went beyond the pilot program stage and was discontinued at the end of 1997. Likewise, the satellite (SALS) program was discontinued at the end of 2000. According to Cahill (2002) collection of data e.g. "...about ethnicity has been a problem since the 1970s..." because of the "...definition of a 'migrant child'..." or "...defining 'in need of ESL assistance'..." or "...many systems do not take parental birthplace data...cannot identify the second-generation group..." and he concluded: "this creates the situation that comparable data on ESL children and on ESL needs cannot be generated across the nation" (p. 74).

In the state of Victoria, it was admitted that "despite the number of languages provided by the Victorian School of Languages (VSL), the mainstream school system does not and cannot provide language maintenance and development programs for all the languages spoken in Victoria" (p. 5). In order to ensure the provision of high-quality LOTE programs provided by after-hours ethnic schools amongst other purposes, in March 1993, the Ministerial Advisory Council on Languages Other than English (MACLOTE) was established. MACLOTE commissioned the report, *Victorian Ethnic Schools Report for 1996*. It looked at the role of ethnic schools in Victoria, outlined the support made available to them from government sources, and documented their achievements. It set out the strategies then being developed as a base to enable further qualitative and innovative changes (p. 5).

Late in the 1990s, at federal level, despite the generally acknowledged success of Australia's multiculturalism, since early 1996 with the emergence of the right-wing extremist Pauline Hanson, Australia "...has seen increased questioning and criticism of certain aspects of multiculturalism" in the three key areas (i) cultural identity; (ii) social justice and (iii) economic efficiency, underpinned by the bipartisan *National Agenda in a Multicultural Australia* in 1989 (p. 3). Changes have moved the emphasis in multicultural policy "from a somewhat migrant oriented focus to a more inclusive whole-

of-community focus” (1996, 7). “Cultural diversity is now a mainstream issue” (p. 8). Views at that time about multicultural policy were recorded in opinion polls. In May 1997, the national newspaper, *The Australian*, published the findings of a Newspoll survey that asked “has multiculturalism been good or bad?”. Very significantly, 78 per cent of respondents considered that multiculturalism had been good. Similarly, in 1996 a survey by the *Sydney Morning Herald* found that 70 per cent disagreed that “multiculturalism should be abolished”. An earlier 1994 *The Saulwick Age* poll had found that around 65 per cent considered Australia a better place for having people from many countries. However, 60 per cent considered that immigrants should live like the majority and 63 per cent agreed immigrants should not be criticised for not mixing. 73 per cent considered Australia a tolerant society. Moreover, most agreed that since around 80 per cent of Australia’s trade was with non-English-speaking countries: “our diversity can assist Australia’s engagement with an increasingly global market place” (1996, 9).

Quite polarised views were also expressed, for example on social cohesion: “Many people view...multicultural policy as an expression of the quintessential Australian notion of giving everyone a ‘fair go’...”; others saw the policy of multiculturalism “as contributing to a general sense of uneasiness in the community and a cause of unacceptable separateness” and “...as a negative and divisive feature of today’s Australia” (ibid, 9). Similarly, for the role of government, while some saw “a need for significant government involvement...”, some others saw “... it should not support specific multicultural programs for migrants...”. Likewise some others in favour of shared values had commented “diversity is a fact of life in Australia but there does not appear to be a consensus about what this means for traditional Australian values...” (1996, 9-10).

In June 1997 with the arrival of the Howard Government, the new members of the National Multicultural Advisory Council (NMAC), later to become the Council for a Multicultural Australia, were appointed. They were charged to develop a report to recommend on a policy and implementation framework for the next decade to help “to maintain an inclusive, cohesive, tolerant and harmonious society while maximising the value derived from diversity and minimising any adverse effects” (1997, 13). An issue-paper was designed to promote community discussion and to help the council to consult with the community -164 contributors responded to the Issues Paper published in December 1997 as *Multicultural Australia: the Way Forward*. The council also had the benefit of several qualitative and quantitative surveys of community attitudes on a range of immigration and multicultural issues. The council spoke to the media, gave seminars and meetings to consult with a wide cross-section of the community, held discussions with senior Federal politicians from both the Government and the Opposition...at federal, state, territory and local government levels” (ibid, 11). Previously, on 30 October 1996 in the aftermath of Pauline Hanson’s maiden speech to the Australian Parliament, a resolution of bipartisan support for some core principles had said: “this House:

(i) reaffirms its commitment to the right of all Australians to enjoy equality and be treated with equal respect regardless of race, colour, creed or origin; (ii) reaffirms its commitment to maintaining an immigration policy wholly non-discriminatory on grounds of race, colour, creed of origin; (iii) reaffirms its commitments to the process of reconciliation with Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people, in the context of redressing their profound social and economic disadvantage; (iv) reaffirms its commitment to maintain Australia as a culturally diverse, tolerant and open society by an overriding commitment to our nation, and its democratic institutions and values; and v) denounces racial intolerance in any form as incompatible with the kind of society we are and want to be” (ibid, 11).

In April 1999, the NMAC published a report containing the findings and recommendations that “was aimed at ensuring that cultural diversity is a unifying force for Australia” (p. ix). Detail recommendations were made in the following broader areas: (1) The continuing importance of multiculturalism; (2) The meaning of multiculturalism; (3) A vision of Australian multiculturalism; (4) The democratic roots of Australian multiculturalism; (5) Multiculturalism and the concepts of ‘citizenship’; (6) Multiculturalism and Australian culture; (7) Multiculturalism for all Australians; (8) A call for leadership; (9) Principles of Australian Multiculturalism; (10) Unifying force; (11) Multicultural funding; (12) Diversity dividends; (13) Central coordinating agency; (14) Communication strategy; (15) Active support of successive governments; and (17) Parties working together (p. 78-88). The underlying principles of Australian multiculturalism were outlined as: (i) civic duty; (ii) cultural respect; (iii) social equity; and (iv) productive diversity. The report concluded that “a united and harmonious Australia, built on the foundations of our democracy, and developing its continually evolving nationhood by recognising, embracing, valuing and investing in its heritage and cultural diversity” (p. 91). According to Cahill (2002) “it...placed greater emphasis than previously on democracy and citizenship...was in fact a de facto policy of separatism and division (p. 61), especially the further cutting of the ESL program in schools in 1997. The title of the report was *Australian Multiculturalism for a New Century: Towards Inclusiveness*.

At the federal level, a “historic commitment to improve Australian schooling within a framework of national collaboration” was made because “the schooling of Australia’s children is the foundation on which to build our future as a nation” (1999, 1). In April 1999 in Adelaide, the State, Territory and Australian Government Ministers of Education agreed to act jointly to assist Australian schools to meet the challenges of the time. This became known as *The Adelaide Declaration on National Goals for Schooling in the Twenty-first Century*. The framework agreed that schooling should develop fully the talents and capacities of all students through a comprehensive and balanced curriculum in the compulsory years of schooling encompassing the following eight key learning areas: “1. Arts; 2. English; 3. Health and physical education; 4. Languages other than English; 5. Mathematics; 6. Science; 7. Studies of society and environment; and 8. Technology” (p. 2). LOTE as a key learning area was justified as the ability to use and move between cultures for full participation in Australia’s cultural diversity in the context of increasing globalisation. The goals for LOTE have been: (i)

Communication; (ii) Socio-cultural understanding; (iii) Language awareness; and (iv) General knowledge.

Back in Victoria in 1999, its language education planning was driven by the international and Australian research findings that literacy in more than one language in early years brings along many other advantages and benefits. For example, research findings recorded at that time which perhaps prompted Victoria's language education planning were: "...literacy-related aspects of a bilingual's proficiency in first and second languages are seen as common or interdependent" (Cummins and Danesi 1990, 89); or "...with six months of Italian for half an hour per week, the children had a significantly higher level of word awareness than their monolingual counterparts" (Yelland et al. 1993, 423); Similar findings, which possibly encouraged its language education planning were: a "...child's competency in the second language develops a metalinguistic awareness" Bialystok, in Yelland et al. (1993, 428). "Exposure to as little as one hour per week of a second language in the earliest years of primary school advances the age of reading readiness in English" (Clyne and Kipp 1995, 8). Accordingly, the Victorian DEET commitment to provide literacy in more than one language to all primary and secondary students from Prep to Year 10, not surprisingly was driven by this research literature. The policy document was published in 1999 with the title *Linking LOTE to the Early Years*.

In 1999, back at the Commonwealth level, an imbalance was sought to be redressed in the Australian curriculum. The background and context was that the teaching about other nations and cultures through the Australian curriculum was found to strongly favour North America and Europe whereas links between Australia and Asia were generally absent from the school curriculum. "...a consequent lack of understanding between the nations and peoples of Australia and Asia tended to impair the development of informed relationships" (p. 2). In 1999, the AEF had revealed an increase in support for, and teaching of, Asian studies in school curricula. To support education jurisdictions in their Asia curricula efforts, the AEF had prepared a framework. Its preparation was built on existing 'curriculum' programs and 'consultations', involving a reference group of classrooms teachers from all education jurisdictions, Asia specialists and curriculum consultants throughout Australia. *A statement Studies of Asia: A Statement for Australian Schools* was issued, providing a philosophical and practical reference for curriculum decision-making by schools for the development of student materials and for teacher development. It complemented the Adelaide Declaration as follows:

The achievement of national goals for schooling will assist young people to contribute to Australia's social, cultural and economic development in local and global contexts...so that all students...understand and acknowledge the value of cultural and linguistic diversity, and possesses the knowledge, skills and understanding to contribute to, and benefit from, such diversity in the Australian community and internationally (p. 1).

In 2000, at the state level, in order to promote full participation of students based on their ability to use a LOTE and to move between cultures in the modern world, especially in the context of the increasing

globalisation and Australia's cultural diversity, another framework for LOTE (corpus planning) was published by the Victorian Board of Studies. The Framework (2000) listed four goals for learning a language other than English. These goals were: (i) Communication; (ii) Socio-cultural understanding; (iii) Language awareness, and (iv) General knowledge (p. 5). These goals were integrated in language use and in the standards of achievement. The Framework was published in 2000 as *Curriculum and Standards Framework for LOTE (2000)* as part of a broader framework.

At an international level, in 2000 three (each of two pages) *Memoranda of Understanding on Educational Cooperation between the Department of Education, Employment and Training of Victoria and the Ministry of Education and Culture of the Republic of Cyprus; the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport, the Ministry of Vocational and Technical Education, the Ministry of Culture and Higher Education, Republic of Lebanon; and the Government of the Hellenic Republic* were signed. In recognition of the importance of mutual linguistic and cultural understanding the above countries had agreed to cooperate to address major issues for future implementation to the following bilateral education programs, e.g.

promoting and expanding the teaching of Arabic in Victoria and English in Lebanon;...sister or twin programs between schools...exchange programs, scholarships...quality of language programs...exchanging information in curriculum development, pedagogy, evaluation and assessment processes and bilingual education...supporting the professional development of teachers, principals, administrators and researchers...exchanging information on Arabic language teaching, English as second or foreign language and multicultural education programs and initiatives...visitation programs, to promote and expand the teaching of Arabic language and culture in Victoria...to continue with the Victorian-Arabic Joint standing committee.

At a federal level, at the beginning of the 21st century, underperformance in English literacy among some groups and many individual students, along with the speed and depth of economic, social and technological changes in post-school life, had required recognition of literacy learning problems in schools. The background and context was that "There is no general literacy crisis in Australia. There is, however, systematic underperformance in English literacy among some groups and many individuals...demands adaptable and responsive to changing societal demands on, and uses for, literacy" (2001, v). A nationally coordinated focus on literacy policy for all Australians was put in place "to secure actual literacy gains" (ibid, vi). Democratic institutions and processes such as the nation's education and training departments, non-government and independent school sectors, business and professional groups, research and parent organisations were involved (p. vi).

A series with specific aims of foundational literacy for all, including contemporary challenges in technology, cultural diversity and an internationalising economy were suggested. These aims have been: (a) to stimulate and support literacy education in the early years including preschool education...; (b) to encourage educational practices in literacy of all teachers, at all phases of

education and training...; (c) to initiate and coordinate action to redress literacy difficulties...; and (d) to ensure that the distinctive English language and literacy needs of children who speak languages other than English are addressed in their own right and not subsumed under mother tongue English-literacy provision; to support and encourage...their first languages while supporting and encouraging the literate acquisition of second languages for other Australians. All the above were addressed in a document which was published in July 2001 with the title *Australian Literacies: Informing National Policy on Literacy Education*.

In 2002, at federal level, another external review (evaluation) for languages (European, Asian, indigenous and community) was conducted. Its objectives were: (a) The current provision of languages programmes in schools and in after-hours ethnic schools; (b) Issues related to the successful implementation of languages programmes; (c) Work on languages education being undertaken through the MCEETYA; (d) Recommendations for future national strategic directions for the Commonwealth School Languages Programme (p. vii). The following three main elements comprised the 'methodology' for the review: (i) A 'meta-analysis' of LOTE documents; (ii) 'Consultation' with key stakeholders; and (iii) An analysis of public "submissions" (p. viii). Some of the "factors" that the review identified as having assisted "strengths" in the implementation of the LOTE programs were the following: (1) adequate funding; (2) compulsory LOTE; (3) linking LOTE through the curriculum; and (4) availability of quality resources (p. xvii). In contrast, some of the factors perceived as "weaknesses" were: a) lack of sustainable funding to ensure the delivery of good language programs; b) shortage of suitably qualified, quality teachers; c) perceived lack of importance of LOTE; and d) lack of a national approach (p. xviii). Some of the review's general recommendations were: (i) a new national policy or statement be developed; (ii) Commonwealth funding for 2003-2004 be maintained at the same level as for 2002; (iii) after-hours ethnic schools be formally recognised as providers of quality LOTE programs in Australia; and (iv) teacher education and training (p. xxiii-xxvi). The Review was released in 2002 entitled *Review of the Commonwealth LOTE Programs*.

At the same time in Victoria, because the objectives set by the 1993 *Languages Strategy Plan* were never fully achieved despite ongoing state and federal government funding and strong state support, combined with evidence of the decline in the numbers enrolled in language programs, a State-wide review was conducted in 2001. A committee (politicians, public servants, stakeholder representatives and academics) was established to identify ways of strengthening the learning and teaching of languages and to improve student outcomes. In a policy analysis stage (begun in August 2001) the following areas were included: (a) Language teacher supply and quality; (b) Financial resources available for languages programs; (c) Transition and continuity, particularly from primary to secondary school; (d) Demands on the curriculum and timetabling; and (e) The need for public promotion of languages. The consultation paper outlined the following key issues: (1). LOTE goals; (2). Their place in schools; (3). The kinds of language programs schools should offer; (4). Time

allocation; (5). Accountability and reporting; (6). Choice of language(s); (7). Continuity; (8). Language teachers supply, training, recruitment and retention; and (9). Strengthening languages in regional and rural Victoria.

Recommendations were made in the following areas: (a) Attitudes to learning languages; (b) Models of provision; (c) Integration of languages and other key learning areas; (d) Time allocation; (e) Choice and continuity; (f) Accountability and reporting; (g) Victorian school of languages (VSL); (h) After-hours ethnic schools; (i) Supply, training, recruitment and retention of languages teachers; (j) Strengthening languages in country Victoria; and (k) Information and communication technologies (ICT) and online language resources and support. The review had acknowledged the after-hours ethnic schools' important complementary role in maintaining and developing Victoria's rich linguistic and cultural heritage in over 50 languages. One weakness of the review was that policy direction was not formulated in a timely manner, leaving the recommendations only in place and therefore causing the 'analysis' to lose momentum. The review was released by the Minister for Education and Training, Lynne Kosky, MP, on 26 October 2002 (DEandT 2001) entitled *Languages for Victoria's Future*.

At an international level in on February 2003, and "in recognition of the importance of education and training in national development, and international cooperation and good will", a one page *Memorandum of Understanding on Education and Training between the government of Victoria, and the Ministry of Education and Training of the Socialist Republic of Vietnam* was signed with the commitment to explore means for further joint activities in the following areas including "... English language training".

In 2004, Victoria provided an annual report on ESL programs and support services based on: (a) Data from the Languages Background other than English census conducted in all government schools in August 2004; (b) New arrivals data for the Commonwealth funding period from 1 November 2003 to 31 October 2004; (c) Data from ESL survey completed in August 2004 by all schools in receipt of ESL index funding and/or multicultural education aide funding in their 2004 school global budgets; and d) interpreting and translating data for 2004. The report had provided information and broad data for students from language backgrounds other than English and information on support provided to schools on ESL provision for newly arrived students in intensive ESL settings and in mainstream schools (p. 3, 6). The report title was *English as a Second Language in Victorian Government Schools 2004*, and has become an annual report since then up to 2008.

At federal level as the new century moved on, the expansion of language programs had created significant challenges needing to be re-addressed. In 2003, the MCEEYA had undertaken a review of languages education in Australian schools. The review had found that nationally:(i) approximately 50 per cent of students were learning a LOTE in mainstream schools; (ii) there were 146 languages being

taught in both mainstream and non-mainstream school settings; (iii) six languages emerged as the most commonly taught: Japanese, Italian, Indonesian, French, German and Chinese (in order of enrolment numbers); (iv) more than 90 per cent of language learners were learning one of these languages. The significant challenges included: (1). The need for appropriately qualified trained teachers; (2). Continuity in languages learning within school, and from primary to secondary levels and beyond and adequate time allocations; (3). Supportive timetabling practices; (4). Resourcing; and (5). Whole school commitment (p. 1-5).

In 2005, a national statement made by all Ministers of Education to act together to address areas of common concern for languages through an initial four-year plan (2005-2008) with the aims: (i) to establish long-term directions; (ii) to advance the implementation of high quality and sustainable programs; (iii) to maximise collaboration in the use of national, state and territory resources; and (iv) to provide flexibility in implementation by individual jurisdictions. The Plan focused on six nationally agreed inter-dependent strategic strands. (1). Teaching and Learning; (2). Teacher Supply and Retention; (3). Professional Learning; (4). Program Development; (5). Quality Assurance; and (6). Advocacy and Promotion of Languages Learning. A commitment to work with the key stakeholders to implement and monitor their effectiveness with yearly reports to MCEETYA and a formal evaluation in the fourth year was committed to. The document was published in 2005 with the title *National Statement for Languages Education in Australian Schools: National Plan for Languages Education in Australian Schools 2005-2008*.

In the following year, a new statement on Asian studies in Australian schools was made “to promote understanding of the value of cultural and linguistic diversity, and processing the knowledge, skills and understanding to contribute to, and benefit from, such diversity in the Australian community and internationally” (p. 3). Not surprisingly, MCEETYA supported by *The Adelaide Declaration* (1999) and building on *Studies of Asia: A Statement for Australian Schools* (2000). A strong element of this 2006 statement was the amount of responses from a widely representative “consultation” of school education stakeholders including parents, business leaders, education sectors, classroom practitioners, school principals, curriculum leaders, teacher educators and Asian studies academics (p. 3). The policy aimed to: (a) Establishing long-term direction for languages education; (b) Advancing the implementation of high quality sustainable programs; (c) Maximising collaboration in the use of national, state and territory resources; and (d) Providing flexibility in implementation by individual jurisdictions. The plan focused on six nationally agreed interdependent strategic elements: (a) Teaching and learning; (b) Teacher supply and retention; (c) Professional learning; (d) Program development; (e) Quality assurance and advocacy; and (f) Promotion of languages learning (p. 11). The document was titled *National Statement for Engaging Young Australians with Asia in Australian Schools*.

CHAPTER FIVE

LANGUAGE PROGRAMS: VIEWS OF AUSTRALIAN INFORMANTS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter is built on the interview data gathered in Australia as a parallel research element to the content of the key documents outlined in the previous chapter. The informants were asked for their perceptions of policy development and policy implementation. This chapter analyses and interprets the Australian informants' views. The focus is on how government policy had responded to the languages issue, both at a political level and at the level of particular institutions of Australia's and Victoria's educational systems. To this end, it analyses and interprets the factors and events that impacted on Australia's language planning and policy within its educational, socio-political and economic contexts at global, national and local levels over the last 35 years.

5.2 Major Issues Impacting on the Teaching of ESL and LOTE

Information was collected from the informants on major issues that impacted on the teaching of ESL and the overall elements of LOTE education in Australian primary and secondary schools, during the time periods of 1970-80, 1980-90 and 1990-up to 2005. In the early to mid-1970s, migration (temporary or permanent), the ongoing changing character of the immigration intake and mobility of families as well as their social, political and institutional effects, were seen by the French academic and the departmental informant as the major factors to impact on Australia's constantly changing responses. One very early key document, the *Migrant Education Programme* report for 1970-71 (Parliamentary paper No 192) addressed this major issue: "...in relation to the needs both of...and migrant children in the schools..." (p. 1); and "...schools in which there are migrant children..." (p. 11). The paper generated much public interest in immigration, as well as some concerns by groups whose languages were not so obviously present (like Greek or Italian) within the community. The second language academic expert pointed out that it had impacted upon the changing educational scenarios for languages' provision in the 1970s. In his words: "...when communities realised that languages were really important to maintain their identities and national pride, they pushed for them to be recognised and taught in schools".

Similarly, the changes in immigration intake policy and variations in the source countries were considered by some informants (the departmental informant, the VCAA informant) as major issues for languages, causing them to "go up and down" in the 1970s. The mix of migrants and refugees, the demographic changes with a great majority of migrant children born in Australia, as well as the much

greater number of first-, second and third-phase learners especially in secondary schools, and the resultant multilingualism in schools with a multi-ethnic population were also seen as major issues impacting on languages in the 1970s according to the departmental informant. Essentially, these major issues were addressed in key documents of the 1970s e.g. one aim of the key study *Inquiry into Schools of High Migrant Density* (1974) was “...the provision of effective programs in schools with large numbers of immigrant and refugee children...” (1974, iii). Likewise, the greater number of source countries, the geographical dispersion of ethnic minority students across Australia and within school systems, in contrast to the past high concentration of a particular ethnic group (e.g. Greeks, Italians, Yugoslavs) in one area were pointed out by the French academic as impacting on the languages’ landscape in the first decade. She also said that the various stages of the shift from English as first to English as a second language and their varying levels of ESL proficiency had implications for the ESL Program, the centerpiece of Australia’s response.

In the mid-1970s, the “growing involvement of the Commonwealth of Australia” as ‘authority’ was seen by the second language academic expert as the major factor to influence languages education which “led to a differentiation in response, as between States and Institutions and a continuation to affect the different migrant groups’ ‘ad hoc’ battles”, such as the “impact of radical claims for ethnic rights, power and participation”. The Commonwealth’s growing involvement had been addressed, for instance, in the first Ministerial Statement of the 1970s which had referred to a five-year program with an expected annual expenditure of \$1.8 million, in addition to the Immigration Act (1971) to meet students’ different needs. According to Martin (1978) “even in the first year of operation 1970-1971, the Child Migrant Education Program cost \$1.8 million instead of the anticipated \$1 million” (p. 112) and “the growing involvement of the Commonwealth” (p. 103) when “...(need of the) Catholic Church for help...providing buildings, equipment and staff for Catholic schools in migrant centers led the Commonwealth to confirm...that its policy was a State matter...” (p. 104).

The Commonwealth’s involvement was addressed in the key document of the time the Galbally *Review of the Migrant Services and Programs*” (1978) when, as one of its recommendations, the Commonwealth Multicultural Education Program was established in 1979, which led to many community language programs. A later Commonwealth document, *Review of the Commonwealth Multicultural Education Program* (1984), reported that language programs were of low quality but they led to a paradigmatic shift in Australia schools. Martin (1978) pointed out that in the 1970s “...the educational bureaucracies also played a crucial part...in refusing to confront the fact that the presence of migrants of non-English...had in fact changed the nature of the school and the scope of their own role” (p. 133).

Political events were seen by the second language academic expert to have entailed swings of languages fortunes in the 1970s. So, the belief by various governments towards language planning as “a way of appealing to the so-called migrant vote” was perceived by the academic as the major issue impacting on the fortunes of languages, the formulation of policies and the development of programs. As the cross-national literature reveals, the fate of languages is closely linked to political power relationships (Maurais and Morris 2003). This major issue was addressed in *the Galbally Review* “...in the lead up to a federal election... (Fraser government). The rationale was “We believe Australia to encourage multiculturalism” (para.1.1).

Community pressure which led to the formation of many parents’ committees (e.g. Italian, Greek, Lebanese and so on) with quickening interest in the schooling of migrant children was considered by the Community informant, a major issue for the late 1970s. In his words: “...most people who pushed for that language policy came from the migrant education campaign”. Likewise, the departmental informant said that “the provision of ESL was often supported by ESL teachers”. The gradual recognition of language diversity and the shifting in educational mind and attitudes from “seeing languages as outside Australia to seeing it as part of its normal resources and community repertoire” was considered by the second language academic expert as the major shift in the 1970s. The key document *Report for the Triennium 1976-1978* had stated “...all Australian children...be greatly enriched through a wider sharing of cultural heritages...English and other languages as a national strength...” (p. v).

In the 1980s, the value of government language policy statements was perceived by the above academic as “rhetorical positioning” rather than reality. “This major issue impacted on languages, when that rhetoric was not realised” the second language academic said. People were allowed to give up on languages, causing difficulties in providing teachers with the ability to cope with diversity in languages. The difficulties of appropriate materials and providing career paths enabled teachers to “overwhelm the optimism” that had formed. In his view, the “momentum slowed” and people were allowed to “drift out” of teaching and learning languages. Similarly, the informant from the Catholic Education Office pointed out the policy documents limited the extent to which policy became reality. She said: “In Victoria there were a number of discussion papers that were produced in the early 1980s but there were no overall policy statements”. Documents of the times such as *Towards a National Language Policy* (1982) and the report, *A National Language Policy* (1984) were never acted upon.

Competition between languages generated divisiveness that pitted one priority against another, according to the French academic. “It was not only a major issue but constituted a major impact on the languages’ fortune since the mid-1980s”. She gave an example: “the Asian languages push...started to convert teachers of European languages to Asian languages”. When universities dropped the requirement to have a language, “languages plummeted dramatically at secondary school” - that was

seen by the academic as a broad force for the destiny of languages. Economic advantage, not social justice, was perceived by the Greek academic as the key rationale of language planning and policy in the mid-1980s that impacted upon languages, especially Asian languages of commercial importance such as Japanese. In his words: “Economically motivated people began to look for an economic advantage and no longer of wider concern with broader social justice issues”. The economic recession in the late 1980s, the Commonwealth cuts and the community pressure which led to the development of the key policy document, *National Policy on Languages* (1987), was seen as having a “huge impact” on languages, “pushing the Federal government’s funded project and designing the very first curriculum for languages”.

In the 1990s, a “fear of difference” and an “increasing uncertainty of the role of languages”, led to teachers of European languages “being worried” in the sense that European languages “seemed to be devalued” and Asian languages “were being pushed for trade”, according to the second language academic expert. “Excessive nationalism or ethnocentrism” between communities caused a variety of conflicts that grew out of the language debate. The academic gave an example: “...the Greek-Macedonian argument which set up bitter tensions and meant that there were distractions with people whom one would have hoped to have been totally collaborative” highlighting the position of the Victorian Premier “that these fights between communities were not what we could afford to have”.

The lesser importance given to LOTE throughout the school life, especially in primary schools, was perceived by the informant from the Catholic system, which educates almost one quarter of the nation’s children as the “biggest impact of competition within the curriculum”, which led to a small period of time devoted to languages. She said: “Thirty, forty or sixty minutes in class per week is never going to be a successful program”. The lack of continuity of language programs from primary to secondary schools and a lack of appropriate learning pathways to the various cohorts of students were seen by the VCAA informant as a major problem and is “still vague”. Similarly the Victorian key document, *Transition Issues in LOTE Learning* (1988) identified five major problems.

Likewise, the key document, *Commonwealth LOTE Review (Erebus Consulting Partners)* (2002) was later to find that one of the arguments for the improved delivery of LOTE was the continuation between primary and secondary school. “The absence of teachers” was seen as a major issue by the informant from the Catholic Education Office. She said that “where the teachers were available the languages were taught. Where the teachers were not available, languages were not taught”. This 2002 Review identified the lack or loss of a specialist teacher as one of the most commonly given reasons by principals why the school did not teach or had discontinued LOTE.

A lack of a map in languages, for the last fifteen years, was strongly criticised by the Greek academic. Funding options was seen by the Community Informant as a major “unfair” issue when e.g. “...lobbying governments to fund private after-hours ethnic schools and they don’t accommodate LOTE in the mainstream system”.

5.3 Assessment of the Various Commonwealth Government Policy Statements

In assessing the various Commonwealth government policy statements in relation to primary and secondary schools language programs in the last thirty five years, the emphasis in the promotion of ESL and LOTE education in the 1970s, particularly in primary schools, was perceived by the second language academic expert as a ‘positive’ and ‘healthy’ reform for two reasons. First, “to provide continuity and development” to children’s home languages and second “to maximise what is perceived to be a more favourable learning period” providing a sense of connectedness with their family’s heritage. One of the LOTE’s elements, such as the role of “language and cultural maintenance” was considered by the academic, as a “positive response” by the various government policy statements when “kids were growing up to retain something of their cultural identity and their home language”. Legislative authority came as early as possible through the “Immigration (Education) Act (came into force on 12 May 1971) “...provides legislative authority...of the migrant education programme...” (p. 1).

Most efforts were on a State level, and not surprisingly, according to the Greek academic, caused great differences between the States during the 1970s. Victoria and South Australia were seen as “progressive States” and “taking the lead” on languages. As pointed out in chapter 6 “...whereas other States were not as active with government policy statements and the focus was on promoting particular programs, so “it wasn’t a broad approach”, but instead, it was “a broad philosophical approach but not for specific programs” in particular schools. The implementation of the “Child Migrant Education” in the 1970s and the subsequent ESL program to different communities through the years was seen by the VCAA informant to “verify” the Commonwealth government policy statements in regard to Australia’s responses to migration and refugees students’ needs. Documents of the time had addressed the above issue in language planning. A key document, *Teacher Education for a Multicultural Society* (1979) reported that “...teachers and trainees are aware of the connection...of our multicultural society...” (p. 6).

In the late 1970s, the underpinning philosophy of the federal government, according to the second language academic expert, was to shift its position from a “broadbrush to an inclusive approach” was specific to “particular and more geared” types of languages. He pointed out:

“So the States repositioned language planning and policy to support only particular languages or targeting the level of language support and attempting at the same time to cover both primary and secondary schools. But as the federal government shifted its focus to increasing upper secondary demand most State governments shifted to a secondary focus in what they were doing. A consequence of this was that provision in primary schools became much less strongly supported and State governments became much more prepared to support a narrower range of languages at the upper secondary level. And as the federal government then finally repositioned its money just around specific languages, other languages became less valuable to States, and State governments saw the federal governments’ withdrawal of money as an opportunity to withdraw their money also to a more comprehensive approach to languages education.”

The endeavour from the early 1980s to develop “a much more universal approach, anchoring languages into the general curriculum” was seen by the academic as important. Specific documents of the times such as the Senate Inquiry (1984) and its subsequent report were seen by the Informant as “symbolically most significant”, creating a collaborative and comprehensive framework at “national level and providing a flow of money that States were able to use”. At that time nearly all States had developed policy frameworks that attempted to widen the availability of languages from a very low base. Similarly the Victorian key document, *Access and Equity: The Development of Victoria’s Ethnic Affairs Policies* (1983) had aimed at: “...social, administrative, and legislative changes required to implement the Government’s policies on the ethnic affairs” (p. 1).

The academic claimed that different States “went in very different ways”. Victoria had then picked up its own version of the Commonwealth statements, and Victorian Government policy statements in the 1980s created “a lot of excitement about the positive nature” of teaching languages. The co-operation between State governments allocating funds with schools and communities to deliver the “best possible outcomes through the main education system” in the mid-1980s was seen by the informant as a special mechanism. The introduction of bilingual programs in “a dozen primary schools” by the Victorian government in the mid-1980s was perceived by the academic as a ‘good example of best practice and a culturally and linguistically inclusive approach’. The above language planning and policy was broadly supported by the Victorian key document *The Implementation of Bilingual and Community Language Programs in Primary Schools* (1985) following a positive evaluation by Cahill (1984) of Greek-English programs.

In the 1980s, the large number of Commonwealth ESL and LOTE policy statements was seen by the French academic to influence the States, “positively”, specially Victoria with its very big effort to combine “the teaching of LOTE in schools with the teaching outside schools”. The *National Policy on Languages* (1987) was seen by the academic as “in favour” of community languages. On the contrary, the Catholic informant appraised the 1980s and onwards as official policy implemented with much “discrepancy and not much consistency”. *The National Policy on Languages* was perceived by this informant as “not related very closely to particular programs”. Victoria’s government policy

statements were perceived by the VCAA informant, “a series of well intentioned but extremely optimistic” policy statements, “all designed to culminate in total learning by the end of the century”. He suggested that “Victoria’s language policy led to the Commonwealth language policy”. The Commonwealth and State policies were seen to become “less favourable and less protective towards community languages” by the Greek academic.

In the 1990s, the infrastructure (conventional classrooms, designated language room house resources, technological resources and audio gear, open learning spaces with small module areas) for a language teaching environment to support the different needs of students, was seen as “best met practice” by the departmental informant who expressed her satisfaction. Probably it reflects her own involvement as a public official. Commonwealth funding for English language programs for new arrivals was considered by the Informant as a “positive and healthy” response since it was a “discreet amount obliging to confirm the Commonwealth’s policy statements”.

Teachers and students’ inability to practise languages in their respective countries due to Australia’s geographical isolation was considered by the Spanish academic as an inhibiting factor towards languages. “Australia...is away from the world...whereas in Europe it’s very normal to learn a second and/or third language and it’s very easy to practise those languages by going to their respective countries”. The assessment of the various Commonwealth government policy statements can be picked up from the Community Informant’s comments: “they were hot and cold ... It took a very long time to develop a principled language policy...”.

Ethnic community support was seen as unsustainable by some informants (the Greek academic, the Community Informant, the second language academic expert) because the Commonwealth’s policy statements did not meet the communities’ expectations. The informant from the Catholic system described it as follows: is “...not having the same positive effect on parents who still tend to be outside of the ethnic communities...you don’t get the same positive response from Anglo-Celtic backgrounds as you get from the ethnic communities parents”. Similarly, the *Commonwealth LOTE Review (Erebus Consulting Partners)* (2002) found negativity and undervaluing in attitudes towards LOTE by parents, children, some educators and the general community which led to some classrooms containing a proportion of students described as unwilling conscripts, resulting in behaviour management issues.

In the 1990s, the alleged impossibility of the “continuity-articulation of language programs between primary and secondary schools” in many cases was perceived by the VCAA informant as “poor strategic planning” towards students’ needs of continuity. Evidence on the above issue came from the informant’s example: “In a school the majority could be Greek, so the LOTE is Greek. Move onto secondary schools, many teach French, how can you continue Greek?”. Training and teacher

accreditation, especially for ESL primary teachers, was perceived by the departmental informant as “a met policy” through an actively funded program for several years of the Commonwealth government. Similarly, policy statements for ESL supply were seen by the Informant “assured and consistent of suitable quality”, in comparison to LOTE. She said: “I think that’s a more LOTE issue than ESL”.

The same amount of time teaching languages in schools was seen as “critical” by the second language academic expert. He perceived it as “not a very well thought-out plan”. The informant said: “some States restricted the provision to a maximum of 100 hours; others sought a universal provision throughout compulsory schooling”. The *Commonwealth LOTE Review (Erebus Consulting Partners)* (2002) pointed to “...the differing degrees of difficulty...it takes 2500 hours in Chinese or Japanese that could be attained after 800 hours in French or German...a generic block of time presents numerous difficulties when such variances in languages are apparent” (p. 163). Finally, the inadequate funding whether from State or Federal sources to develop the “linguistic and pedagogic competencies and resources” was seen as critical by the academic.

5.4 Assessment of the Aims of the Funding Programs

The high level informants were asked to assess the aims of the funded programs to teach ESL and LOTE in Victorian primary and secondary schools, government and private, across the decades. Despite the mixed perceptions, the overwhelming view by the informants interviewed, was that the aims of the funding programs thus far have been unrealistic. Perceptions such as “it was unrealistic” and “insufficient to raise the level of practice to a satisfactory level” were expressed by the French academic for the 1970s. Some comments are indicative from the following expressions: “never adequate” and “extremely inadequate”, the informant from the Catholic system and the Community informant, said respectively. The ways that after-hours ethnic schools were funded as outside of the normal provision, were perceived by the later informant as a possible injustice. He said: “the funding program used basically for outside school teaching and not under the control of the school education system”. The Commonwealth’s funding for after-hours ethnic schools was seen by the VCAA informant “sparred to get out” after some time because there was a “complementarity” between government and non-government schools. Martin (1978) stated that some embryonic developments had been delayed or stifled for lack of funds in the 1970s.

In the 1970s, the funding program was perceived by the departmental informant as “pretty steady and did reach a lot”, contrary to those people who argued that ESL funding was “inadequate”. Of a similar view was an academic who supported ESL funding as “very good in the 1970s”. ESL teachers’ incentives were seen by another academic as unmet provision. He said: “...many of the right documents were in place...requirements for teacher registration but there was not enough incentive for a sufficient number of teachers to gain their qualifications so that you could have a genuine ESL approach”. The funding allocation in the 1970s was seen by the Spanish academic to reflect the value

placed on ESL, but not on LOTE. At first ESL was well-funded and it became almost an advertising point bringing migrants in and giving them several hours of English. For the first time in 1978, the Commission recommends “a special fund to support community languages and multicultural education initiatives” (Martin 1978, 107). In the 1979 the Commonwealth School Commission funded at \$ 5 million for the first triennium for the Multicultural Education Program (Cahill 1996).

In the 1980s, “better quality consultation” and “excellent provision” were seen by the VCAA informant with the appointment of language consultants in Victoria. He perceived their role as promoting ongoing LOTE and ESL teachers’ recruitment, training and retention, as well as a source of provision of materials. In his view all the above resulted from the Commonwealth funding programs in conjunction with the “topped up” money by the State. The ongoing ESL provision to refugees was seen by the VCAA informant as a “positive effort” due to the funding for this particular program. He said: “the funding program was...to bring a survival level of English...trying the direct enrolment into schools with solid ESL programs”. In Victoria, in 1987 the key document, *The Teaching of English as a Second Language*, one of a set of three documents, had addressed a guideline to support and improve ESL teaching and learning.

In the 1980s, the Greek academic saw the funded program as “improved” but not at the “level required sustaining and developing it and mostly reacting to a need from school to school”. On the contrary the informant from the Catholic system saw it “not appropriate or decreased appropriate”; “...languages were not funded at all in primary schools...secondary schools were funded but not in the same way they had been funded before” she said. The research study, *Immigration and Schooling in the 1990s* (Cahill 1996) revealed that in 1987 “the ESL Program was severely cut and the Multicultural Education Program axed...after some political and community controversy, the ESL Program was cut by 43 per cent in the General Support funding for 1987” (p. 18). Two academics, the French and the Spanish, perceived the funding in that period, respectively, as follows: a) “almost realistic”; b) “almost realistic for sufficient number of bilinguals...I should say that the legislation needs to be reinforced if we are going to have bilinguals in this country and State”.

Funding in that period was perceived by the French academic as “facilitating” languages across all providers. So, the extra money put into government schools, focused on community languages or in the Catholic System “getting itinerant funded language teacher”, was seen to “meet the aims of the funded programs”. Both “Commonwealth funding and State matching funding” were seen by the academic to “meet funding aims to have enough ESL programs”. The funding in Independent or in Catholic schools was seen by the academic “much more beneficial than in the State schools”. The issue of the accountability for funds in the after-hours ethnic schools was seen as an “unmet issue” by the VCAA informant. The initial direct Commonwealth funding and the “cut across” in the mid-1980s,

more specifically in 1987, through the federal budget was perceived by the Informant as “unmet by the aims of the funding”.

In the 1990s, the funding of programs was criticised by the Greek academic as having “considerably declined” with not “a substantial amount of extra money” going into the schools over the last fifteen years. The States of Victoria and South Australia were rated by the academic as “model” in having the best ESL and LOTE policies, but “enough money was never put on the table”. The current support of “\$100 per capita to fulfil the expectations and aspirations of LOTE” in ethnic schools was considered inadequate by the academic. Perhaps the explanation given by the key document, *Commonwealth LOTE Review (Erebus Consulting Partners)* (2002), clarifies the above concerns:

LOTE grants in government schools are approximately \$75 per capita and in ethnic schools and some jurisdictions receive \$90 or \$110. In an ethnic school community environment the per capita grant covers less than 20% of the cost and another 80% needs to be found by parents and the community for infrastructure costs, salaries, professional development and resources while in a government school are picked up by a global budget (p. 91).

Funding was seen as critical by the VCAA informant after the 1990s. He said: “...after the 1990, the provision was not as strong as in the 1980s...”. The *Commonwealth LOTE Review (Erebus Consulting Partners)* (2002) found that teachers complained bitterly that they had put in place plans and course structures and then found that staff or resources had been taken away. Similarly the Spanish academic pointed out that “I can recall people complaining that there wasn’t enough funding”. Federal funding “was dished to the private sector” considered by the Community informant an “imbalanced funding allocation”. Good ESL infrastructure, such as language schools and centres, was perceived by the departmental informant as reflecting the viability of “excellent programs to new arrivals” due to the continuity of the funding program.

Concerns whether continued additional funding would achieve any useful purpose for languages in schools were expressed by the second language academic expert. He suggested that the Victorian government with some commitment by the Catholic Education Office “made a heroic effort to create re-training teachers’ programs”, investing “enormous amounts of money” in giving language teachers methodology qualifications. Strategic planning, leadership and coordination was seen by the informant as never going to “be enough” as those teachers were never going to be spread widely enough around the State. He went on: “schools were never really sufficiently committed, nor did they have sufficient expertise within the wider school to ensure that once teachers were trained they would be appropriately deployed”. The “topping up” funding that the both Catholic schools and government schools received was seen by the academic as critical.

In the 1990s, the LOTE area never received the funding that ESL area was able to gain and perhaps for good reason, the Spanish academic pointed out. According to her, Victoria was providing most of the funding in specialist schools (Blackburn and Noble Park specialist English language schools) though, in reality, most of the funding comes from the Commonwealth. The issue of funds accountability to after-hour schools was raised by the VCAA informant as “necessary” in standard reporting. The *Commonwealth LOTE Review (Erebus Consulting Partners)* found “there is no published national data that describes exactly how LOTE funds are allocated to after-hour’s ethnic schools or how the schools subsequently disburse these funds” (p. 91).

A matter of serious attention, as perceived by the Community informant, was that the funds were given to support Asian languages as an overwhelming priority set by the State. In his words, “community languages were very much in support but also feared the government shifting money from the teaching of community languages into Asian languages”. Serious consideration of this option was fuelled by the Greek academic who believed that “LOTE is a hopeless cause”. He argued that “if LOTE can’t be taught properly, it should not be taught at all”. Similarly, the 2002 Review suggested that this option would have merited from an agreement on the suggestion made by some, namely that the status of LOTE as a Key Learning Area (especially for primary schools) be revoked.

While the aims of the funding programs in the subsequent decade were considered by the VCAA informant as an “attempt to make the funding relate to what could be done very strong”, in contrast, the Greek academic perceived them as a “disadvantage” in that they denied school networks the flexibility to use funds to suit emerging needs. They also had the tendency to promote the “one size fits all” model of solutions to apparent problems. The key *Commonwealth LOTE Review (Erebus Consulting Partners)* (2002) found that the measurement of “need” was almost always problematic, since the information required to determine the funding allocation was not necessarily already collected by jurisdictions. When it was, it was usually not comparable between jurisdictions. Additionally, *the Review* found that:

In the short term, the provision of Commonwealth NALSAS funds to jurisdictions is essential if jurisdictions are to address Asian language teachers and studies of Asia. In the longer term, NALSAS funding should be used by jurisdictions to ensure a degree of self-sufficiency in staffing is reached by schools (as some jurisdictions are already attempting to do), or to support schools in ways that mean they are not reliant on locally available resources (p. 50).

The aims of the funding programs were perceived by the second language academic expert “necessary but unrealistic”. In his words:

For the focus on ESL they were in theory realistic but there needed to be a more substantial and coherent commitment of schools in the provision of ESL teaching and the integration of ESL in the curriculum...for

languages other than English, I guess very unrealistic. Rhetorically important because languages other than English programs have been seen as partial in any way, partial to particular languages or to a particular group of people they would have been rejected by the wider education community.

5.5 Assessment of Different Policy Aims and Objectives in Victorian Schools

When the informants were asked to assess how different policy aims and objectives were implemented and achieved in Victorian schools, despite somewhat different assessments, they nevertheless neatly encapsulated, at least for the past two decades, reasons why languages should be an important and legitimate part of schooling. In the 1970s, policy aims and objectives had had “no engagement” with the private school sector, the second language academic expert pointed out. The informant said: “isolated individual schools like St. John’s Greek Orthodox School setting up specific programs (Greek) is an exception”. He also said that “the majority of the independent sector, particularly the Anglo-sector didn’t engage language learning and the Catholic Education Office had very limited money and relied extensively on the support and therefore, a lot of the programs were externalised at this time”.

The choice of language on offer was seen by the French academic as a way to respond to the different policy aims of the times. She gave an example: “the Catholic system had been totally committed to teach Italian in primary schools or, in some areas of Arabic-speaking Christian populations, schools were allowed to teach Arabic but to some level; teach Italian at a very minimal level”. In the 1970s, ESL and LOTE policy aims and objectives were implemented “well” in both primary and secondary school according to the VCAA Informant. The push by communities towards their linguistic and cultural identity was seen by the departmental informant not to impact on “status planning”. In her words: “...that was a school-based decision as to which languages to teach...”.

In the 1980s, the notion that community languages “should be taught in most primary schools” was perceived by the informant from the Catholic system as an emerging issue of the time which “was met”. Language policy in primary schools was seen by the Spanish academic informant as a “push” to achieve a lot but the “transition issue to secondary schools” was seen as a “lack” of strategic planning. In her words: “...it was not managed well”. One of the most significant qualitative issues raised by the key document, *From Language Policy to Language Planning* (1994) concerned the “transition problem between primary and post-primary language study” (p. 139). ESL policies were seen by the departmental informant as “certainly” looked at “how to provide specific programs” and due to “consistent” Commonwealth funding, “good and sustainable” specific ESL programs for students with teachers was well supplied and material development were implemented.

“Corpus planning”, in the 1980s, and more specifically “ESL teachers’ guidelines” were perceived as “stricter” in that decade by the above informant. Surprisingly, the informant was highly supportive of ESL since evidence from the key document, *Immigration and Schooling in the 1990s* (Cahill, 1996) reveals that regarding Commonwealth funding “in 1986 the General Support element of the immigrant settlement and ESL education was cut by 43 per cent as part of a broader cost-cutting exercise” (p. 51). The additional resource of teachers to reduce class sizes, particularly in primary schools, was perceived by the informant as a “good” personnel implementation policy. The aims and objectives relating to particular students’ needs were seen by the informant to be met by the establishment of English Language Centres to achieve high levels of English proficiency and students to go into any school getting the Australian experience and not in one school to “feel inundated”.

The lobbying by immigrant parents demanding “intercultural competence and multiple linguistics ability” in the 1980s, was seen by the second language academic expert as a “major shift” of very many private schools to introduce various kinds of LOTE programs. He gave an example: “whereas previously for the Catholic Education Office it was an external commitment to Italian, it has progressively sustained its efforts to internal commitment towards Italian”. According to the academic, due to the “status planning” in government schools with the largest range of languages, their job has always been bigger than the others; increasing resistance had been most specific in primary schools as it “proved difficult for various policies to work as intended or they have been difficult to implement”. An increasing focus on assessment and reporting as well as the various arguments about numeracy and literacy associated with English and the power of the greater curriculum, were seen by the academic as LOTE being “squeezed out of its necessary place”. In primary schools, according to the academic, the situation was dramatically worse than it was a few years previously – program implementation was “troubled”. According to the academic, the overwhelming picture was not helping those schools doing a “superb job”.

In the 1990s, “status planning” in the Independent Sector, was in the words of the French academic as follows:

...teaching languages has really blossomed, being taking on board in both primary and secondary schools. In government schools how the aims and objectives were seen really depends on the principal’s attitude towards languages.

Evidence from *Immigration and Schooling in the 1990s* (Cahill 1996) identified the agendas for the 1990s:

the ESL agenda...since the mid-1980s, focused on the development of ESL curriculum materials; the LOTE agenda, freed of its community language origins of the 1970s and 1980s, focused on second language learning for monolingual Australians in languages of commercial importance, putting into the background, though not

forgetting, the languages of the major ethnic communities; the culturally inclusive agenda running across the curriculum and accepted in the major States, but operation in the competitive shadow of the Asia Studies movement (p. 33).

In the 1990s, the almost “double number” of students learning Modern Greek at primary schools in South Australia in comparison to Victoria, in conjunction with the fact that the “numbers are increasing” in all other States except Victoria, was perceived by the Greek academic that “other States are in better shape”. According to this academic, “this in fact is indicating the assessment of the policy of what is happening in Victoria” and he perceived it as “irrational to have half the number of students attending Modern Greek in comparison to South Australia and New South Wales”. According to the Community informant, the LOTE objectives were “never too high” and “currently the objectives are minimal but they were unmet...none of those objectives was ever achieved and never supported by adequate funds...”.

The accountability gap looking at how and if the objectives were achieved was pinpointed by the informant. Evidence from the key document *Asian Languages and Australia's Economic Future* (1994) argued that “...unless we have some means of measuring...capable of assessing proficiency outcomes” (p. x). Evidence from the Immigration and Schooling study (Cahill, 1996, 19), pointed out that “ESL in the 1992 has remained unquestioned”. Lack of sustainability of the quality of language programs was described by the VCAA informant in terms of the discontinuation of LOTE teachers’ retention as “having a negative impact...”. Qualitative issue raised by *From Language Policy to Language Planning* (1994) was “... (4) Issues of teacher qualifications, teacher training and teacher supply...” (p. 140).

5.5.1 National Interest and Geopolitical Considerations

The informants were asked if national interest and geopolitical considerations impacted on the implementation of languages in Victorian schools in the decades under study. The informant from the Catholic system saw locality rather than national interest and geopolitical considerations as the key driver on languages in the 1970s. She gave an example: “... in a school there were lots of Turkish and Greek students...this school taught both Turkish and Greek to all students, but that would have been unusual anywhere else”. Australia’s focus on Asian trade in the 1970s and political issues in the 1980s impacted on putting more emphasis on Asian languages in the mid-1980s. Early in the 1970s, the key document, *The Teaching of Asian Languages and Cultures in Australia* (1971) pointed to “...Australia’s interest in Asian studies...” (p. 11). Similarly national interest was addressed in the key document, *The Teaching of Modern Languages in Australian Schools 1975* (Department of Education Research Branch Report 3).

Both national interest and geopolitical considerations were seen by the French academic to entail a wide “swing” in the fortune of languages. For example, the European community’s “cutting of trade links” with Australia became important for the Commonwealth government of Australia to decide that more students were needed to learn Japanese, Chinese and Korean, particularly in the 1990s. Evidence from the report, *Asian Languages and Australia’s Economic Future* (1994), had focused on “Asian languages and complementary Asian cultures education in Australian schools as a means of enhancing Australian economic interest in East Asia” (p. ii). Now Australia, according to the academic, doesn’t have as much trade with “Korea as it does with China, Japan and particularly Indonesia which goes up and down in its political situation, of the case of East Timor”. Australia has supported the teaching of German because of “quite a lot of trade”. French was very much off the agenda since the 1990s because of what happened in New Zealand and the Rainbow Warrior bombing. According to the academic, Indonesian fits into the category of geopolitical considerations as being on Australia’s northern doorstep or perhaps “being a much more accessible language than say Japanese or Chinese”.

Victorian LOTE policies were seen by the Greek academic as driven “not so much from national interest” but by “commercial and geopolitical interests” for “neo-trade languages” spoken in the region. Australia’s and Victoria’s national interest, according to the academic, would have in fact been reinforced if languages like Italian and Greek and other European languages had been given greater support. In his words: “It is rather sad to have 20 per cent of the population in Melbourne either Greeks or Italian...I don’t feel that this is in favour of the national interest of Victoria or Australia...” though this figure of 20 per cent is, in fact, much exaggerated. “Australia’s relationships with Asia such as economic, diplomatic and strategic in conjunction with the increase of Asian migrants” were seen by the Community Informant as the major drivers for the study of Asian languages to be increased much more rapidly than the European ones.

According to the second language academic expert, Australia has always had a “funny sense of national interest” governed by “the fear of the other and the need to prop up the common need of the Anglo in its context”. The following extract from his interview raises issues about Australia’s interests and geopolitical considerations.

So languages have never been understood as in a wider sense of national interest ... The regional issue has come up quite rightly because until the early 80s, Australia had an even more incoherent view of its geographical, geopolitical place in the world and did not engage with Asia in any meaningful sense or in an Asian cultural linguistic sense. So there has been a necessary fight to widen the sense of cultural possibility to include Asian languages and cultures, whatever that term means as a result of migrant and refugee groups and economic power. Those issues have been presented serially and without connection to one another. So they have been seen as replacing views rather than partly a development of a coherent strategy. And those strategies have been seen to blinker in things like the refugee policy, Islam, refugee groups from Africa and the ESL and cultural learning that’s going to be needed to support those things. ...So what we have is a series of band wagons with one idea

replacing another idea, rather than the realisation of a national framework of interest that can be seen as expanding on a consistent basis.

One of the above main concepts, namely the Australia's national framework of interests has been described by the Australian literature as following: "The multicultural education program... was based on narrow definitions of ethnic culture...and did not sufficiently address the need for a total reformulation of Australian history and its evolving identity" (Kalantzis, Cope and Slade 1986; quoted in Cahill 1996, 18).

5.5.2 Range and Choice of Languages on Offer

Asked how the range and choice of languages on offer impacted on the implementation in Victorian schools, the informants centred their attention on the national, local and/or regional levels. Migration and the impact of radical claims for ethnic rights, power and participation in the 70s and 80s was seen by the French academic to provide "quite a range and choices of languages on offer" such as French, German, Italian, Greek and Spanish. She said: "It got to be a bit of a gun fight as to who had the loudest voice to some degree". Similarly, the Spanish academic said: "really having more migrants coming in the 70s, the government tried very hard to extend the scope of ESL". Local political considerations were seen by the academic as the State government exerting a force towards the range and choice of particular languages in the 1970s. She said: as "the State government divided the community, saying that German and French were not community languages...the Germans were up in arms...". Evidence from a key document of the 1970s, *Teaching of Asian Languages and Cultures in Australia* (1971) supported the notion of Asian preference: "The Committee believes that the school systems should concentrate on Indonesian/Malay, Japanese and Chinese, leaving other Asian languages to other institutions" (p. 99) – the Vietnamese were yet to arrive.

In the late-1980s and early 1990s, "economic rationalism was directed towards Asian languages to drum up business in Asia" and was seen by the French academic as a force in language choices. "A huge amount of political pressure" was perceived by the academic when the Victorian government followed the ten recommended (listed and funded) languages by the Federal authorities. These languages were French, German, Italian, Greek, Japanese, Chinese, Indonesian, Korean, Spanish and Arabic, among the range and choice of languages on offer. The demographic profile, not least the lack of migrant families in country Victoria and class size in country areas, was raised by the academic, on the one hand as a difficulty providing or continuing for the viability of LOTE or ESL programs; on the other, as the "great divide between metropolitan and country areas" impacted on the range and choices of languages on offer in Victorian schools. She gave an example: "The city of Shepparton, a city outside of Melbourne in the country area, has for a long time had an ESL program for Italian and Iranian migrants and LOTE programs for French, German and Italian".

In the early 1980s, the State of Victoria, considering the views of the community “quite strongly” led to a very wide range of languages on offer giving to the programs a “very distinctive sense” according to an academic. This range was seen by the informant from the Catholic system as “impossible for the system to meet the call”. “French was the largest language and the next largest was Italian, a very commonly studied language in Catholic schools” because of the large Italian Catholic population and demise of Latin, she said. A demand for traditional languages (German and French) and for more recent languages of that time (Greek, Italian, Turkish, a bit of Spanish and some of the Yugoslav) then Asian languages and some Arabic, was perceived by the VCAA informant to impact on Victorian schools. The role of home languages was seen by the informant as a “big impetus getting a language policy in place, especially in the Victorian School of Languages (VSL)”. All the above and similar “culturally pluralist alternatives” (Djite 1994, 31) had been addressed in the key Victorian policy document, *Victoria: Languages Action Plan* (1989).

In the 1990s, the lack of a national approach to developing a balance on the range and choices of LOTE was seen by the Greek academic as “...discrepancy, a serious discrepancy, a huge anomaly which has to be eradicated”. The range and choice of LOTE was considered by the academic to belong to “the discretion powers of the school council or perhaps the principal rather than on State or national interest”. The academic provided two examples: ethnic group (e.g Greek, Turkish, Arabic and Vietnamese) movements out of their suburbs of initial settlement minimised the viability of languages...“they weren’t able to maintain their languages in secondary schools which have been gradually introduced in primary schools”. Secondly, there are no State schools offering Modern Greek in Mill Park and East Keilor. In East Keilor, 9,000 houses are of Greek origin and descent...Victoria still offers Modern Greek in the same schools where it was offered 30 or 40 years ago”. He concluded that “there is no language policy map”.

The Rudd report (1994), chaired by the then future Prime Minister of Australia, stressed that the number of Year 12 students studying a second language had fallen dramatically in Australia. “In the late 1960s, almost 40 per cent of year 12s studied a second language. By 1982, this figure had fallen to 16.1 per cent. In 1992 only 12.5 per cent of Year 12 students were studying a second language...(s)ignificantly, less than 4 per cent of Year 12 students today are studying an Asian language” (p. iii). The following assessment was made in the 2002 LOTE Review:

...most predict that within a few short years, the situation in Australia will return to the same conditions that prevailed in the late 1970s. The investment made thus far will be largely wasted. We do not believe that the pessimistic outlook forecast by many individuals and organisations is unrealistic. Once the damage has been done, it will be no easy matter to repair” (p. 177).

In the 1990s, in Victoria, when Asian languages (Chinese, Indonesian, Japanese), became compulsory, too many schools “rushed in to get the funding and had to get rid of community languages which were

sustainable”. This was seen by the Community informant as a driver towards specific languages. The *Commonwealth LOTE Review (Erebus Consulting Partners)* found that specific skills in LOTE would have economic benefits with the increased tourism from Asia and greater trade opportunities (Asian trade had gone from 44 per cent of total trade to over 50 per cent in 10 years (1992-2002) and further, it would reinforce the benefits of language learning. Community languages, according to the informant, were “pushed by government into after-hours ethnic and private schools” and impacted on the teaching of a range of language on offer across the providers. The research study, *Immigration and Schooling in the 1990s*, (Cahill 1996) suggested that LOTE programs, if not in retreat, had been sidelined to after-school hours in special week-end classes organised either by government agencies, such as Saturday schools of languages, or by ethnic communities.

The move of a teacher could impact upon a program. As well, “the view that everybody needed to learn the same LOTE whether that was Italian, Greek, French, German, Japanese and so on was never going to work”, was the opinion of the second language academic, “a number of language programs were or would be in danger”. The following table (Table 5.1), published in 2002 by the Australian Primary Principals Association (APPA), presents the reasons of how and why schools chose to implement a LOTE program and perhaps provides an explanation for the range and choices of languages on offer.

Table 5.1: Why Schools Chose their Local LOTE Program

Ranking	Reasons why Primary Schools offer a LOTE Program	Percent of Total
1	Linked to local High School program	27.6
2	Whole school/council decision	21.9
3	Access to language teacher specialist	18.1
4	Govt/system mandate	5.1
5	Local historical reasons	5.1
6	Local language	5.3
7	Local school decision	3.6
8	Local teacher with enthusiasm/skill	2.7
9	Program availability	3.4
10	Local needs	2.1
11	Local district office decision	2.1
12	Unsure	1.3
13	Future relevance	0.6
14	Funding / Resourcing	1.1
15	Total	100

Source: APPA (2002, 20) *The Place of Languages Other than English in Primary Schools*.

'Status planning' was seen by the academic as "a strong effort to support the diversity of languages" and the "most difficult policy path to tread" because it creates issues in "curriculum policy" (resource creation, pathways, curriculum frameworks), in "personnel policy" (teacher retention and supply). It all impacts on the 'perception of difficulty'. The role of home languages and the need to support students' cultural, cognitive and linguistic elements were perceived by the academic as having impacted the range and choices of LOTE, and not surprisingly, "affected schools but didn't affect the system overall".

The academic perceived the fact that negative attitudes towards languages – except English – and the undervaluing of LOTE by the community affected the range and choices of languages on offer derives from a statement made by the then Prime Minister of Australia, John Howard. The academic said: "...and that's symbolic of the argument that says that the most important thing for people to learn is English". The Greek academic, in his surprising, perhaps esoteric, comments about the provision of ESL, said: "I am against the ESL program; ESL is the best way to assimilate immigrants". He also believed that the "lack of a LOTE map" impacted on the implementation of LOTE programs in Victorian schools.

5.5.3 Teacher Supply and Retention

Opinions varied regarding teacher supply and retention. However, teacher training, retraining and professional development programs and their corollary, the quality of teaching, were mentioned by all informants as among the probably most significant issues affecting ESL and LOTE provision. Both teachers' training and their supply and retention in the 1970s were seen by the majority of the informants as having impacted on the implementation of ESL and LOTE programs. Similarly, the remedial ESL teacher "often had not really had any training" in the 1970s, the French academic pointed out. Likewise, the Spanish academic speaking about ESL teachers said that they were trained formally in the short-term but their supply and retention "were inadequate". The Greek academic noted that in the 1970s "in after-hours ethnic schools some teachers spoke the language but they were not even qualified and really weren't trained to teach" and some others who had trained in non-English speaking countries had found it difficult to gain registration. In the words of the informant from the Catholic system: "in the 1970s anybody e.g. who had a Greek or an Italian name could be put in front of a class to teach Greek or Italian" – many Catholic schools in the 1970s had many Greek Orthodox students before the opening of full-time Greek schools.

In the 1980s, the beginning of more solid preparation at the pre-service level, in comparison to the previous decade, was seen by the Spanish academic as a process addressing the concerns of the period: "...Now it's expected teachers in primary and secondary schools to have at least a three year degree". When the Victorian government introduced LOTE languages as compulsory in schools, there was a shortage of qualified teachers: "people who had spent three weeks on holiday in Bali or a month in

Japan on a tourist visa were suddenly teaching Indonesian or Japanese” as a second language, academic expert said. There was “no systemic and coordinated” approach. In his words, strong disagreement emerged between the Department of Education and education training institutions for a “coherent and coordinate” response towards teacher supply and retention. According to his view, from the mid-1980s and onwards, the Department was very active in implementing accreditation processes. There was a specific set of requirements presenting their own difficulties because a number of teacher education institutions considered that “these are too difficult to achieve, so there was another fight that had to be had to make them realistic”.

The French academic said that, in the 1980s, the accreditation of LOTE teachers and program quality assurance provision were perceived as having a positive impact in Victorian schools. Some of these concerns were unique to particular jurisdictions or organizations. She gave an example: “the voluntary Victorian Association of the Teaching of English and Multicultural Education ensured quality of the program and as soon as possible not to be of uneven quality or very different from each other”.

The required qualifications to teach a LOTE in 1991 was seen by the second language academic expert as an investment which had been rewarding and a landmark for the quality of LOTE and ESL programs in Victorian schools. That meant, according to him, that teachers’ training, supply and retention have created a “wide variety of programs’ quality control”. Evidence e.g from the Rudd report (1994) made clear that: “...if its policy goals were to be achieved...there were the problems of language teachers’ competence and supply” (p. 127). According to the academic, Victoria “is the only State which has consistently and since 1991 maintained a teacher accreditation and quality assurance program”. The key Commonwealth document, *Languages at the Crossroads* (1992) addressed the specific issues of “the demand for language teachers” (p. 34). Teacher shortage in a specific LOTE was seen by the Greek academic as a “major demand issue”. The informant said: “Today there is a severe deficiency of Greek teachers”. The *Commonwealth LOTE Review (Erebus Consulting Partners)* (2002) pointed out this “weakness” as follows: “...at present it is extremely difficult to provide for the demand for language teachers in terms of both quantity and quality...” (p. 68). Overseas excursions for teachers and students visiting the country or countries to explore the culture of the people whose language they were teaching and learning, was mentioned by the Spanish academic as of great value. She said:

Lately the Australian government is demonstrating a sincere effort to eradicate the anomaly of teachers’ accreditation programs and quality assurance issues by sending certain teachers especially to Athens’ schools rather than the State to re-train them. Two cohorts of Modern Greek practicing teachers most of whom are non-qualified have short-term training at the Melbourne, Monash and LaTrobe universities every year.

The Australian Primary Principals Association (APPA) in 2002 found that LOTE was being delivered by specialist teachers in about half of the schools (48.5 per cent) in junior primary classes, and in 70 per cent of the schools in the senior primary years, highlighting primary the schools' dependence on the availability of qualified LOTE teachers. The informants were unanimous in rejecting the scenario given above. Neither did they accept the opposite conclusion that the issue is of negligible proportions. They believe that this problem existed in some schools and is ongoing. Teacher supply and retention was "critical" (VCAA informant). He said that it was "never adequately handled" and he reported that "it was the LOTE area that was a big problem". After-hours ethnic schools were seen by the informant to "take control" of the teachers' quality and its relationship to "good attendance". It is summarized in a key finding of the *Commonwealth LOTE Review (Erebus Consulting Partners)* (2002): "a national profile of the teaching profession in LOTE is not readily available" (p. 76).

5.5.4 Integration of Language and Cultural studies

The integration of LOTE and ESL into the curriculum was seen quite differently by the informants. Although the overall picture is mixed, generally the informants felt that language learning was an important and legitimate part of any student's experience. The evolution of LOTE programs "more into cultural studies" was seen by the second language academic expert as not fostering genuine language learning. The Greek academic also did not support this integration of cultural studies which were "the worst enemy of a LOTE; language and culture are two opposite fields and disciplines".

LOTE programs were undervalued by some educators "as time subtracted from the time for learning literacy in English" rather than to be "part of a broad approach to mutually reinforce the development of bi-literacy" was seen by the second language academic as the prevailing view, especially in the 1970s and 1980s. Optional LOTE studies in schools was seen by one of the academics as working against systemic LOTE provision in the 1990s. "In 1994 LOTE was compulsory up to Year 10" but hardly any government school obeyed this directive – they are actually "optional" in most schools, the French academic pointed out. The compulsory requirement was seen by the second language academic expert as "...probably a rhetorical tool that backfired". Schools "paid lip service to the idea rather than really doing it properly", and the requirement did not address the continuity of learning required in languages education. He said:

...and as soon as something is compulsory and perceived as being made compulsory by an outside force, and the Department of Education can be an outside force to a school, then technical difficulties can be raised every single time; it's not difficult to find a teacher or parents who would rather have reduced average class size; it became an argument for not having languages in school...

In the 1990s, integration of specific language and cultural studies was perceived by the Greek academic as competition within the curriculum. He said that it is unfair to compare Modern Greek with Japanese or Chinese or with non-language components subjects like artwork or cooking. “Students will be attracted rather to cooking than learning a language which necessitates a lot of effort” he said. “Compulsory requirement in highly concentrated areas of Greek or Italian migrants”, was viewed by the academic, as a “great opportunity for Australia’s national and commercial interest (links between Australia and European Union and the use of those two communities) to enter into the EU”. The integration of language and cultural studies was seen by the VCAA informant relative to demographic profiles. He said: “In some cases there has been a big problem to teach e.g. French or German...and having kids coming from Greek and Italian backgrounds; how do you cope with that?”

Either greater contact with the source country of specific teachers and students or specific overseas trips, the opportunities for which differ between languages, were seen by the Catholic informant to further facilitate the integration of language and cultural studies. She said: “Italians and Greeks have contacts with neighbours or shops in comparison e.g. to Korea”. Further, the integration of language and cultural studies was seen by the VCAA informant to sometimes being problematic because of “some parents’ political attitudes”. Furthermore, teaching genuine language programs where culture is part of the language, was seen by one academic as “a much more positive response to the government’s policy”, but “teaching cultural studies in English was “a real risk”. *The Commonwealth LOTE Review (Erebus Consulting Partners) (2002)* had indicated after-hours ethnic schools as an important mechanism for communities to maintain their language and culture - this is their major strength since through appreciation of the culture, the language is enhanced.

‘Corpus planning’ was seen by the second language academic expert not to accommodate properly the integration of language and cultural studies in the curriculum. The following example was given by the academic:

In the first LOTE CSF, grades and levels were equivalent e.g. grades 1 or 2; are levels 1 or 2 but levels 1 or 2 meant a very different understanding in other areas of the curriculum. Plus in the end, level 1 or 2 became quite a stretched term and kids and the parents had the perception that their kids got into level two and never got out of it. So there was a perception that kids were not learning and not progressing.

More significantly, the APPA in 2002 found that principals saw the general outcome from LOTE programs as “the development of cultural awareness, appreciation and acceptance of diversity” (p. 20), not language learning.

5.5.5 Student interest

Student interest was perceived by most informants as a big challenge, as it depended on the support mechanisms such as parents, teachers, community, schools, technology, good programs, pedagogy and the students themselves. Parental commitment was emphasized by the informants to affect student interest in many ways. The Spanish academic asked, if parents say “language is a waste of time” or “I hated the language at school” or “I never did any good at language” or “everybody in the world speaks English” how then will students have “an interest towards languages”? The role of community and parent support maintaining students’ interest was pinpointed as key mechanisms by the community and the Catholic informants. They respectively said: “...particularly, in various after-hours ethnic schools, parent and community support was important...” and “would never have had Greek, Vietnamese, Arabic or Spanish introduced in schools if there hadn’t been the community support”.

Ongoing parental support for ESL students was also perceived by the departmental informant as the key. She said: “Schools have to devise new ways of bringing and making sure ESL students’ parents feel part of the school community”. Similarly for LOTE, the French academic gave the following example: “Parents’ negative views were listened to, and parents’ positive views were not as active and were not heard nearly as much”. While the VCAA informant always perceived parental support as important in after-hours ethnic schools “...if parents didn’t support languages, they would have died”; in contrast, in Independent schools, community support was not seen as important. He said “...not so much in Independent schools, they have always been Independent...”.

The belief that LOTE is too hard and the view that “everybody can learn English and nobody can learn a LOTE”, when allowed to go unanswered in some programs by teachers and principals, were seen by the second language academic expert as affecting student interest, and negatively. However, the informant from the Catholic system claimed the following: “...dynamic, enthusiastic, up-to-date and motivating teachers can turn a student around even when the parents are not supportive”.

Broader negative political views such as the controversy over ‘Asianization’ in the 1980s and the emergence of ‘Hansonism’ in the 1990s affected community perceptions and worked against generating student interest according to the second language academic expert. Similarly, the Community informant commented that “keen immigrant parents” contributed positively to student interest. Additionally, the change in pedagogy with the introduction of the “communicative approach” in schools as opposed to a “grammatical one” was seen by the French academic as a “positive force” towards raising student interest in the late 1980s.

Into the 1990s, with the continuing communicative era, the pedagogical changes created positively and broadly opportunities for teachers to reinforce students’ interest and were critical in the view of the second language academic. He pointed out that teachers do not see how students are going to use the language “in everyday life communicatively” – most, especially primary teachers, still firmly believe

that the only way to learn a language “is the grammar translation method” with much emphasis on “learning vocab items, colouring in, and de-contextualised language”. Most successful programs in secondary schools, according to this academic, “tend to be in Year 7...by role-play, but somehow students are losing it by “the middle of Year 8”. The following extract from his interview reveals his overall perception: “in Victoria and the rest of Australia, the impact of pedagogy on LOTE has not been successful in implementing any sort of communicative approach”.

Year 12 students’ LOTE score for university entry was seen by the French academic as a “re-interest” for students. Likewise, the absence of trade between Australia and Greece was seen by the Community informant to negatively affect interest in Greek. He said: “Modern Greek is not of value in Australia because Australia doesn’t do much business with Greece”. Similarly and in agreement with some of the aforementioned perceptions, the Commonwealth LOTE Review (Erebus Consulting Partners) (2002) found that there are two classes of argument against LOTE, “the first is a conceptual argument based on the belief in the primacy of English and the lack of necessity for widespread study of other languages; the second argues against uniform and compulsory language study on pragmatic grounds, that is, on a belief that LOTE is too hard, both intellectually and logistically for all schools to provide a worthwhile learning experience, at least at present. The second line of argument does not oppose LOTE learning in principle, but contends that there is a lack of infrastructure and resources that dooms present efforts to failure (p. 169).

5.5.6 Role of the New Technologies

According to the informants, the role of the new technologies in Victorian schools challenged ESL and LOTE programs significantly. While the majority pointed to the benefits, several outlined issues that were not addressed. The shift in priorities in the late 1980s and 1990s towards computer education was perceived by the informant from the Catholic system as “not enough”. She said: “schools had success but it was not really robust success...”. A major barrier was broadband connection to schools and the new technologies “have not been powerful enough...and then it can be very expensive to do the sorts of things that needed to be done”. The second language academic considered the way the new technologies with the internet had more recently provided the capacity to access a wider range of context and authentic language as “quite innovative”. Government schools had always faced a lack of computers, particularly primary schools, “where there could be one computer per classroom”, as opposed to schools where every student has a laptop. His other concerns were the quality of resources: “...there’s also an issue of poor quality software, not interesting and not motivating...”. He also added that language teachers “have been notoriously scared of technology”.

LOTE programs “via a satellite program using the internet and having access to language information by all means in the 1990s”, was perceived by the Community informant as “willingness” by the Victorian government for “languages to take a wider form of teaching”. But, “technology is a

complement, not a substitute”. The Rudd report (1994) had argued the “development of distance learning Asian languages and Asian studies programs” as a problem to be addressed (p. 130). Furthermore, the change from teacher-centred learning to the potential role of the computer was seen by the VCAA informant as “making a big impact” in language learning in Victorian schools. Additionally, the departmental informant highlighted “students’ ability to compose text on a computer, particularly where they have not had the experience of using pens or playing games on the computer”. Likewise, existing pioneering initiatives and the potential of new technologies were perceived by the Spanish academic as becoming “fully exploited, more decisive and more comprehensive” in the last five years.

However, there was a gap. The Greek academic pointed to “a need for research of how best technology can improve language instruction”. He added, “in the era of global television and global technology I am waiting to see solutions from the Greek community”. The *Commonwealth LOTE Review (Erebus Consulting Partners)* found that “little evaluation exists on the use of technology for language instruction, so we do not know precisely what value is added through technology” (p. 25). It also pleasingly found “a growing range of high quality and quantity...support materials...print and electronic...teacher references...student-friendly materials;...professional developments; a variety of support networks, face to face and electronically” (p. 50).

5.6 Treatment of Foreign and Community Languages

Generally speaking, in light of the issues covered above, the informants were asked if there were any differences in the treatment in the most commonly taught languages and in teaching the languages of immigrant and refugee communities. As described in chapter one, in Australia, community languages are often also foreign languages. The main policy distinction has been between Asian and European foreign languages. Among the former Chinese (Mandarin), Indonesian and Japanese have been allocated most attention; among the latter, the main beneficiaries of policy have been French, German and Italian, and to a lesser extent, Russian and Spanish (Lo Bianco 2005). In the 1970s and 1980s, the shortage of qualified teachers and their employment in after-hours ethnic schools, as well as the lack of the availability of quality resources, supply and development of teaching materials and related equipment, were perceived by the second language academic expert, as the “big difference” in the favouring foreign, rather than community, languages.

Generally, the French academic, critical of the language teaching environment in many after-hours ethnic schools, said: “buildings where they work are deficient”, adding “the schools that do not allow them to use the computer laboratories, so after-hours ethnic schools really have been the poorer cousins”. The student belief, perhaps not surprisingly, that studying “status” languages will have greater possibilities for success in the various occupations (trade, technology, banking, finance, hospitality, economics and in other areas) or later, for articulation in University, is evidence of the

different treatment between languages, according to the Spanish academic. In her words: "...German...for science, French...is the girls' language, Japanese...trade, new technologies and economics...community languages...language maintenance and cultural issues". The 1982 *Norst Report on the Commonwealth Ethnic Schools Program* very early on examined extensively the issues of ethnic schools. Given the varieties of factors it was not surprising that it pinpointed the lack of homogeneity and the existing diversity amongst the various ethnic schools. It recommended the program be known as the Community Languages Teaching Program, the per capita grant be increased to \$ 40 and \$0.4m be provided for development projects in eligible schools" (p. 46).

The assessment, accreditation and funding of community and Asian languages was perceived by the Spanish academic as "not equal treatment" for community languages, especially since 1990. A similar view was the Community informant who perceived "lack in funds" - "people were forced to choose" priority languages such as German, French or even Indonesian in preference to community languages. The following extract from the 2002 *Commonwealth LOTE Review (Erebus Consulting Partners)* found an almost complete lack of data on how the money is spent:

From 1996 jurisdictions had the capacity to move funds between the Community Languages and Priority Languages elements of the School Languages Programme under broadbanding provisions. In 2001, funding for these two elements was combined into the Languages other than English (LOTE) Element to provide complete flexibility for jurisdictions to allocate language funds according to their needs. Historically, around three quarters of these funds have gone to support ethnic schools and insertion community languages classes. The LOTE Element can support Asian, European and Indigenous languages in schools and in after hours ethnic schools. Its objective is to assist schools and school communities to improve the learning of languages other than English. Currently, the Commonwealth does not require the collection of any data on how the money is spent or on student participation in languages generally (p. 16-17).

"Yes and no" was the response of the second language academic expert to the treatment of the most commonly taught languages instead of community languages. He said: "Yes, to the extent that increasingly the curriculum frameworks have not been about cultural engagement with the communities present here" and "No, to the extent that in Victoria three of the most widely taught languages are community ones, Greek, Italian and Vietnamese". Additionally, the curriculum frameworks were perceived by him as "more neutralised to cultural learning". As the focus shifted from a social justice perspective to an economic rationalist perspective, it had led to the "marginalisation" of community concerns. Similarly, the informant from the Catholic system perceived Italian "a not established language in schools" and "nor an ethnic community language". Lastly, the availability of quality resources of the Commonwealth and State governments as well as the establishment of formal International Education Agreements between the Victorian government and other countries such as Greece, Spain, France, Germany and Italy in the 1980s and 1990s, were perceived by the VCAA informant as illustrating "equal treatment" across all languages.

5.7 Policy Statements and Curriculum Development

Informants' views as to what extent policy statements influenced Victorian curriculum development and actual teaching practice, suggested they were very influential in the first two decades (1970-1980s), but less so subsequently. Concerns were raised by the French academic about the capacity of policy statements to influence curriculum development. Essentially, the use of British and/or American commercial materials by teachers in the 1970s and 1980s was perceived by the academic as "an issue not addressed by the policy statements towards curriculum development". Likewise, Victoria, during the 1970s, was seen by the second language academic expert as totally decentralised so "there was no shared curriculum framework" and every school "did its own things". In his words: "...committees such as the Victorian Advisory Council of Multicultural and Migrant Education and those sorts of things, were not seen as directly impacting and providing to schools thoughtful information".

Additionally, he also acknowledged the need for better planning by schools to assist in developing whole strategies for ESL and LOTE. This "led to one of the key aspects of such a strategy, as the curriculum development". In the mid-1980s, according to the academic, larger curriculum or policy documents began to say "every school should do this" and by the late 1980s policy documents began stating that every school will do this. Major curriculum policy statements for at least the past two decades have noted reasons why LOTE should be an important and legitimate part of the learning experiences of students. While supportive of the 1980s documents' impact on curriculum development, the French academic was critical, because "teachers were very textbook bound and the policy statements really had not much influence in most languages". These concerns were with secondary, rather than primary, schools.

Late in the 1980s and then in the early 1990s, curriculum documents were seen by the second language academic expert to influence "curriculum development and actual teaching practice". This provided a point of reference for language teachers "to talk to one another". While they were seen as a source of argument and debate and people wanted to know more and to get more concrete examples, according to the academic, they were not "universally accepted", and were not seen as "unproblematic". The key Victorian policy document, *Curriculum Standards and Framework II* (CSF II) was broadly considered by the academic to come particularly closer and to be something akin to a syllabus. It began to generate a "shared view that was designed to give more schools a kind of more common set of approaches". Its broad acceptance by the teachers was seen by the academic to deal with the pedagogy demands rather than syllabus. In his words, "CFS II was broadly welcomed by language teachers because it brought them together and it gave them ideas on what they can do in schools".

In the mid-1990s, British or American materials were used by German and French teachers because “they are suited better to the final exams”, – this was seen by the French academic to affect the effectiveness of curriculum development negatively. That LOTE teachers were encouraged to develop their own materials and were seen by the academic as a “negative effect”, adding “it did not affect all languages”. Further CSF II, the ESL Consultant considered the Essential Learning Standards (ELS) and the ESL Companion and Support Materials to meet the aims of policy statements very well and to reflect a general ESL understanding. In contrast, Victorian curriculum development in the 1990s was perceived by the Greek academic as being incompetently prepared to meet current students’ needs in Greek. He said “it does not facilitate the teaching of Greek as a foreign language but as Greek spoken in the home; notwithstanding the Greek community is living the era of maturity, not the era of settlement”.

5.8 Importance of ESL and LOTE to the Victorian Curriculum

Many worthwhile comments were made about ESL and LOTE studies in the Victorian curriculum across the decades. In general, the majority of the informants acknowledged that ESL always had been more important than LOTE. In the words of the Spanish academic, “only an ESL program been important, LOTE had not been important at all...in the 1970s having a good ESL program was considered important to attract top quality migrant and international students”. “Migrants’ chances of becoming proficient speakers in English” was perceived by the academic as “very important” in the 1970s. Similarly, and not surprisingly, the French academic perceived “ongoing best practice” since 1970s in ESL’s structure in schools, reflecting its importance within the Victorian curriculum. The well-known assessment from the first decade by the late Jean Martin (1978) pointed out that “the Commonwealth Department has never evaluated the effectiveness of ESL...never been an overall assessment of migrant teacher training” (p. 117). Likewise, the key evaluation document *Immigration and Schooling in the 1990s* (Cahill 1996), commissioned by the Bureau of Immigration, Multicultural and Population Research, pointed out that “certainly, government policy has not quite borne the intended fruit since the first Commonwealth research report into migrant languages in 1976 and the numerous others since” (p. 112).

LOTE was seen by the Community informant as “important” in the late 1970s and early 1980s. According to his view, “the set-up of LOTE and ESL teachers’ associations as well as school and parent councils in the first two decades reinforced the general community acceptance and support and their importance to the Victorian curriculum”. The Greek academic saw a decline in his specific LOTE. He said: “there is a diminishing role, interest and importance in the curriculum for Modern Greek since 1975”. This view contrasts with the findings in Table 8.2 of this study where Greek had the largest Year 12 enrolments across Victoria in 1985, and some years before and after that year, Greek was the second or the third largest language. Both external (migrant communities) and internal (parents) forces towards students to study ESL and specific LOTE were seen by the informant from

the Catholic system as contributing to their inclusiveness and “importance” in the curriculum of the 1970s and 1980s. The high number of migrant students, whenever they came from, was seen by this informant “to fit very well with the general ethos of Victorian schooling” in the broader sense and in a narrow sense, to have had an impact on the viability and importance of both ESL and LOTE in the curriculum.

“The inclusiveness and importance” of ESL and LOTE to the Victorian curriculum was seen by the same informant, to depend on the different arrival years of the migrants. So, in the 1970s-1980s ESL and LOTE were very important for Mediterranean immigrants (Greeks, Italians and, later on, Turks and Latin Americans) and the period after that was more important for Vietnamese. There was also the surge with Indonesian. Evidence is the publishing of the Victorian key document *LOTE Framework P-10* in 1988, which “promised government support for schools in planning, developing and reviewing their programs” (p. 11). Similarly, the reasons why students chose to study LOTE, especially in secondary schools, “either because of a requirement at the university or it helped get a better mark to get into university” were perceived by the informant to reinforce inclusiveness and curriculum importance.

Andreou (2000) found teachers’ perceptions (119 teachers, 70 student teachers, 36 practising teachers, and 13 LOTE teachers) about LOTE practice in New South Wales in primary schools to be similar to those expressed by the informants of the present research. Some findings relevant to the importance of LOTE were the following: 1)...cultural benefits of LOTE but lacked understanding of the cognitive and vocational benefits; 2) ...poor status as subjects (minimal teaching time, poorly resourced by schools and funding authorities); 3) nearly half the teachers (44 per cent) believe that LOTE a waste of time because English is spoken worldwide; 4) ...LOTE was detrimental to children’s English language skills; 5) ...38 per cent of schools from which teacher respondents were drawn offered a LOTE. More than one LOTE was offered in only 8 per cent of schools; 6) The complexity of implementing LOTE is vastly underestimated; 7) The rhetoric and the practice of LOTE are vastly different (“squeezed in” to an already overcrowded curriculum); 8. Isolation from mainstream teaching activities; 9. Most teachers believe LOTE should not be taught in the early primary years (quoted in Erebus Consulting Partners 2002, 78-9).

Both ESL and LOTE, according to the second language academic expert, “have never been important, they have always been a problem”. According to his perception, arguments “by dedicated individuals to include languages in schools have made very significant changes in educational practice” and they have made some of the things in Victoria “quite noticeably different from what happened in other places”. He acknowledged that the attempts to develop bilingual education programs had been in many ways very “successful and innovative, not without problems”. One big problem, in his view, was that “there have been insufficient opportunities for LOTE and ESL teachers to really co-operate in

the development of those forms of education”. He concluded that “so they have not at that level been able to be as powerful as in an ideal world”. The Australian (AHISA) in 2002 pointed out that generally “LOTE is not perceived as an important subject...there appears to be a decrease in community support for children to study languages up to year 12. There are demands to concentrate on other curriculum areas” (p. 5). Likewise, the belief that the curriculum is crowded and that LOTE is the least important area and therefore the first to go, when times are tough needs to be challenged (see *Commonwealth LOTE Review (Erebus Consulting Partners) (2002)*).

The following extract from this key Review, while it mirrors some of the aforementioned perceptions and views, also reflects the importance of teaching languages in any country:

Many countries in addition to Australia are faced with the challenge of the increasingly multicultural nature of their populations. Each has attempted to find ways to teach the mother tongue of speakers of languages other than the dominant one. These programmes may contribute to foreign language success by helping maintain existing language resources in a country and by fostering achievement among minority populations (p. 28).

5.9 Success of ESL and LOTE in Victorian Programs

The informants were asked to measure “success” in relation to ESL and LOTE programs in Victorian primary and secondary schools. Students’ positive attitudes towards learning languages was perceived “as success” by some informants. “When the majority of students stay in programs right through to the end with positive attitudes and not just to get bonus points in Year 12 to get into the university” was seen “as success” by the informant from the Catholic system. Similarly, success in ESL was perceived by the departmental informant when “students come out the other end and participating”. As “no longitudinal studies” were known to the informant, some measured ESL success by analyzing VCE results and matching it with students’ different Anglo- or ethnic Australian background or length of the time in Australia. Learning ESL or LOTE was seen as “success” by the Spanish academic in individual terms but not at national level.

The empirical study, *Immigration and Schooling in the 1990s*, found that “LOTE is not a high priority, though there are some programs for native-speakers, often as a result of funding through the embassies” (Cahill, 1996; p. 105). “Success” was perceived by the Greek academic in the fact that Australia teaches LOTE in its government system. But LOTE should not just stop at implementation, according to him, “if this is successful, then yes, there is success but if should always strive for excellence, accommodating students’ current needs and market demands”. LOTE programs driven by finance and economics were seen by the academic “not to improve the quality of the life in this country”. Victorian multiculturalism and multilingualism were perceived as successful but it will “continue to decline unless it is not nourished by practical application”. The percentage of non-English-background students with successful completions of pre-university Year 12 should be the

measure of “success” according to the informants from the government and Catholic systems. ESL programs for new arrivals “are very good” according to the VCAA informant “but I am not sure if that is followed up when they move into regular schools”, he added.

In the ideal world, according to the second language academic expert “you would look for evidence that kids think differently about themselves and about the cultures with which they are engaging”. On the one hand, the academic said that, in a substantial number of cases “you will find that in Victoria” in some cases “profoundly so”, LOTE and ESL programs “have been very successful”. On the other, he approached the query about success by asking: “have LOTE and ESL programs created sufficient change within the wider Victorian culture so that actually all believe that bilingualism is a good thing? Then the answer is no”. But that is an “unfair demand on those programs”, and based on his perception those are larger issues that “are community leader issues” – to ask any school to do that and let alone asking any particular part within a school to make those wider changes “is an unfair ask and inappropriate”. But those programs that have worked well have enabled the graduating students to communicate effectively for their age in the programs that have sensitized them to cultural difference and have ensured that a variety of individuals are extremely sensitive to these issues and have profound insights into who they are, where they come from and where they could go. Sadly, there are students who have not been influenced. That is not to say that it has been unsuccessful but its successes have been specific and limited, concluded the academic.

5.10 Comparison of Victoria with other States

When the informants were asked to compare Victoria with other States in the issues covered above, Victoria was seen by the Greek academic as the “progressive State with a keen interest for strong LOTE support coming straight after South Australia” in the 1970s. The level of the efforts made in Victoria was seen “well ahead of any other State except South Australia” by the Community informant. South Australia had “been ahead” of Victoria addressing multi-culturalism and multilingualism in the 1970s. Martin (1978) stated that “in the early 1970s Victoria began to stand out as the State with the most vigorous and innovative approach, a position that it retained for about ten years” (p. 101). According to Martin (1978) “Victoria’s failure in the 1970s to develop an official policy seems to be both cause and effect of a decline in initiatives and productive debate in that State...” (p. 134).

The second language academic expert saw how Victoria “tried to do things that no other State tried to do and did more of them, for longer periods and more extensively and successfully than others did”. Victoria documented and supported LOTE studies better. Martin (1978) in an analysis of the 417 items in child migrant education bibliography from 1950-1975 found that: “Victoria...stands out strongly from an analysis of the place of publication of all items...51.6 per cent (215 out of the 417) of items were published in Victoria, three times as many as in any other State” (p. 85). In the 1970s, “absence

of a commitment between policy statements and practice” reflected on her own experience as the head of multicultural education in a diocesan Catholic Education Office, who considered language policies “were put forward on people’s wishes for bilingualism but not on what actually happened” after the Catholic system began receiving government funds in the early 1970s. Martin (1978) pointed out that “... in an Australian context, productive interplay between social knowledge, theoretical knowledge and educational practice is only in its infancy” (p. 142). “ESL students’ large numbers in Victoria, New South Wales and South Australia as a result of migration”, and the “large indigenous population in Queensland, Western Australia and Northern Territory”, prompted States to provide “adequate or pretty good” ESL programs with the Commonwealth funds, the departmental Informant pointed out. Victoria’s infrastructure of English language schools and centres, begun in the very late 1970s, was perceived as “pretty good” and “evidence of good practice” by the informant.

“Advanced” and “good” were adjectives used to describe Victoria’s initiatives in the 1980s and 1990s by the second language academic, but he criticized and clearly characterised the stagnation of the State over the previous five years. In his words: “...well, we did all that stuff early on and we were really good, but we won’t do it anymore...”. Similarly, Victoria was perceived positively, due to the larger retention of students into LOTE in 2004, by the Spanish academic. She gave an example: “in 2004 in Victoria, which is not the larger State, approximately 700,000 students were studying LOTE and 300,000-400,000 students in NSW”. Moreover, Victoria was perceived by the second language academic as “the most radical and sincere State with a real structural attempt to imbed languages across the entirety of the curriculum, engaging all kids with serious language learning...cultural context issues, culturally appropriate”. But it was also considered “fragile”, because “it was pushed by a limited number of people and it was easy to wind back some of its achievements far more rapidly than you would hope”.

5.11 Lessons Learned from the Implementation of Language Policy and Practice

The informants determined if they saw lessons to be drawn from language policy and practice across the decades. The French academic perceived addressing the ongoing changes of languages, according to the “needs of students” and to the “role of the new technology” as a “lesson”. The “unmet ESL and LOTE policy statements without funding”, especially in the 1970s and 1980s, was also seen as a “lesson” by the Greek academic. Critically, he said: “if you are going to have a policy, you need to have funding to go”. The liaison between jurisdictions, schools and the school community in the 1970s was perceived as “pure communication” by the Community informant but “a great partnership” and a “positive lesson” for the 1980s. Subsequently, a decline in this partnership partly because of changes in demographic profiles and priorities or because some ethnic communities were less capable of intervening successfully was considered by the informant a “negative lesson”. Martin (1978) showed that “an array of teachers, educational administrators and experts, teachers, academics, parents and

ethnic communities, separately and in various combinations, claims a share in this defining process” (p. 133-34). Racial tolerance and understanding of treatment towards each ethnic community for the teaching of their language and culture within the community and to communities outside were considered a “lesson” come out in the 1980s by the second language academic expert.

When, in the mid-1980s, the educational systems and full-time private schools had become less committed to community LOTE programs in the switch across to Asian languages resulting in the teaching of LOTE being catered for in the after-hour ethnic schools, this was seen by the Community informant to work “against the general good”. He made a strident attack on the policy makers and the politicians: “the rights of minorities cannot be left to policy makers and politicians; if the community does not take it up, it will be a loser sooner or later”. The key document, *Languages at the Crossroads* (Nicholas 1993) reported that students who cease to study their home or heritage language were unlikely to take up an Asian language needs testing; according to Cahill (1996) it was likely to be true. The Commonwealth funding (1990-2005) which was given (\$5,000,000) on four Asian languages and \$2,000,000 to the remaining languages, was perceived as a lesson by the French academic, characterizing it as a “cynical political football” creating “inequities” across language groups and communities “promoting one set, creating an enormous gap between Asian and other languages and giving a false distinction”.

Strategies to reinforce community strengths and implement proper mechanisms to influence political authorities to the benefit of LOTEs against negative policies and processes was one central lesson, according to the second language academic. Likewise, utilisation of existing resources in favour of community languages was seen as “a need and lesson”. The Victorian Premier’s statement to make ESL teaching a primary focus in government schools was perceived by the informant from the Catholic system as a “lesson in political opportunism”. Sarcastically she said: “I don’t have much confidence in that. You’ll see more talk than money”. “Lack of importance of LOTE by the community to the learning of languages” was perceived as a “lesson” by this informant to counter the perception that “the problem for Australia with languages is that we speak English”. The limited response by the Victorian government “to particular characteristics of African or Yugoslavian ESL refugees or to refugees who have never been to school”, was seen as a “lesson” by the departmental informant.

The “biggest lesson”, according to the second language academic expert, is that it can never be assumed that this issue has been won – languages are actually or represent, in the Australian context, “the most profound challenge to a cultural sense of self that there is; since that much of Australian culture is about why we are the way we are and better than everybody else, trying to bring everybody else into that sense of other challenges that self belief. So political leaders”, according to the academic, “at every level will be reluctant to make that argument because they will be seen as weakening the

national self confidence which is exactly what we have at the moment. This concerns any argument regarding why Arabic should be taught in schools or on the place of Islam within Australian society and why the Federal government is doggedly committed to the elimination of divergent voices”.

According to the VCAA informant, most of the impetus comes “politically” from a political party, from the government or from the community pressure, especially regarding the level of overall funding. This typical tension between politics and education was perceived by the VCAA informant as a “lesson”. The study, *Immigration and Schooling in the 1990s*, revealed a conflict between ethnic and religious communities and the Commonwealth Government’s New Schools Policy which “...is against providing funds where the school population is stable or in decline...for the establishment of full-time ethnic, ethno-religious and religious schools” (p. 92). In earlier decades, two factors have been fundamental in making the construction of social knowledge about education in a plural Australia a more lively and productive enterprise “...the experience of teacher, students and parents...academics researchers and Commonwealth-sponsored committees of enquiry” (Martin 1978, 141).

The key Australian policy document, *National Policy on Languages* (1987), was characterized by the VCAA informant with an “absence of strategic intervention to prepare teachers across Australia”. Either the lack of a language teacher or a loss of a specialist teacher was perceived by her as a lesson regarding the viability of a program. “Principals at schools, if they can’t find a teacher or a replacement, will let the program die” he said. In 2002 the Australian Primary Principals Association (APPA) found that about 30 per cent of Australian primary schools had increased their emphasis on LOTE over the period 1996-1998, but over half of the schools either stopped or decreased them. In addition, about 19 per cent of schools responded with a ‘not applicable’ comment, suggesting that there probably was no LOTE program at all.

The second language academic’s view was that “the major lesson is that deep within the Australian psychic whatever that is, was a profound fear of engaging with the other which is linked to issues of perceived cultural heritage, to debates about gender and masculinity, with experiences of war and trauma...”.

5.12 Issues to Impact on Languages in the Near Future

It was of great interest to ask the informants about issues that would impact upon languages in Australia in the near future. Recent public policy debates about immigration, international public policy and politics, Australia’s place and engagement with the Asian region which will not lessen, were mentioned most frequently by some informants as likely to have a significant impact on languages in the near future. Long-standing issues, such as government policy (national and state), immigration patterns and the challenges to respond to new groups’ needs and understanding, would impact upon ESL and LOTE in the near future, according to the Greek academic.

The pros and cons of learning a language and the role of language teachers, teachers' training and their associations, will also have an impact, according to the French academic. Australia's globalisation was seen by the Spanish academic as "perhaps having a positive effect on languages". She also revealed her depth of resentment of Australia's military support in different types of wars and regional conflicts: "...I would hope money can be put into language programs where now it's being put into other areas which I don't see as important but I am not the government". The overcrowded curriculum and the demand, from many sources, to concentrate on other curricular areas would predominate in Australia, according to the views of some informants.

"Global technology and global politics" were seen by the French academic and the Community informant as significant issues that would impact on community languages in the near future. In the words of the Community informant who was being sarcastic: "If politicians want people to be able to speak Japanese and Chinese because of trade, they will put something to it". He added that changing demographic profiles in countries, visions about strong economic countries, the argument that English was/is the lingual franca with any other language a waste of time (which perhaps has been changing), and the reappearance of some languages and cultures through technological development, were seen by one academic that will also impact upon languages in the near future.

The shortage of qualified teachers in conjunction with the capacity by the universities, their language departments and education faculties to respond flexibly in the training of language teachers was seen, not surprisingly, by the second language academic expert as the factor to impact languages in the near future. He felt that the insufficient level of national long term commitment to the hard work that needs to be done and lack of commitment to future strategic intervention would impact upon the future.

5.13 Successes and Failures

When the informants were asked for any overall significant 'successes' and 'failures' in the last 35 years, some responses singled out the value and worth of 45 languages and cultures taught by the Victorian School of Languages (VSL) as a "huge success", including the French academic. The bonus points towards their university entry score provided for Year-12 students' taking a language was considered by her a "significant event". Migrants' ESL support was seen by the Spanish academic as "really a very important success". Notably, the maintenance of the new arrivals' programs and their 'extension' from schools to centres and in primary schools for students having no access to a 'centralised location' in regional and rural Victoria, were seen as "big successes" by the departmental informant. In addition, ESL curriculum documents and their components were perceived as the "main success" by the informant. Similarly, Australia's multiculturalism and multilingualism was seen by the Community informant as a "success". "To hear many people speak in many different accents" was also perceived as success by the informant from the Catholic system.

Management and leadership to retain Modern Greek by the Victorian government providers (State schools, distant education, after-hours ethnic schools) was seen by the Greek academic as a 'success'. The range of languages introduced into schools as well as the range of innovative and outstanding teachers was considered "substantial achievements" by the second language academic expert. A huge 'success' was seen by this informant that teachers have had enormous benefits working with those specific groups of students. "Those who have been through the good programs have come out as better human beings and better able to do some of the things that they actually have been told that they could do". Huge 'successes' were seen by the VCAA informant in the language policy documents, providing good arguments for language learning as well as the money that flowed from the Commonwealth and Victorian governments "employing people and providing materials". Overseas teachers' programs and overseas people "working with Victoria's people" were seen by the informant one of the "successes", particularly for Victoria through the benefits of the International Educational Agreements. "Migrant people who have learnt to conduct their lives in English" was seen by the Spanish academic basic as "success".

However, Australia's inability to address the indigenous languages issue as well as the fact that languages have not been made compulsory till the end of secondary school were perceived by the French academic as perhaps the biggest 'failure' in the last 35 years. Decline in LOTE interest and the overall Australian government policy that "universities exist just to train" were perceived by the Greek academic as 'failure'. A tendency from time to time for multiculturalism and multilingualism to go back to the concept of Australia being an Anglo-Saxon society was seen by the Community informant as "a push that will not go very far; the dogs may bark, but the tunnels will keep on moving". He concluded that "Australia is a country of migration and should have policies; people continue to move in that direction, they are not going backwards".

Lack of well-trained language teachers in schools was perceived a 'failure' in the view of the informant from the Catholic system. Similarly, the lack of "qualified teachers" and "the effort to do too much" (trying to cover all languages) were seen as failures by the VCAA informant. In contrast the Rudd report (1994) found that there were "... approximately 2500 teachers trained or retrained in the four priority languages..." (p. 9). Getting documents ratified that were inclusive and were publicly agreed to, at both national and state levels, were seen as substantial policy 'successes' by the second language academic expert. At the same time, each of those successes was a 'failure', according to the academic, because there was a perception that with the publication of a document, it had actually produced "a national policy rather than a program budget". The academic went further and concluded that there was a 'failure' to see that the document would disappear when the budget line for it disappeared.

5.14 Comments

Lastly, the informants were asked whether there were any additional issues apart from those covered. Some evidence of the passion combined with trenchant criticism by the Community informant regarding the provision of community languages in Australia is provided in the following extract.

In any country, minority rights of language and cultural interests and the recognition being part of a bigger LOTE, should not be left to those in power to decide alone. Australia integrates different ethnic groups, not segregating them. It does not require the surrendering of one's identity and to take the best out of everyone. It can not be disregarded that when the English came to Australia they denounced the Aborigines and their language. They imposed their priorities and this imposition is a very undemocratic and unworkable principle. Ethnic communities and minorities should be continually struggling for their rights and it is hoped the education system will help carry that message out.

The fact that in Europe one is not considered literate unless one masters three languages was seen by an academic, as an unaddressed issue in Australia. He also added that: "this should be the case in Australia as well". One academic supported the notion that the "big advantage of learning languages is intercultural understanding; so we don't need to teach them languages". The French academic made some points criticising LOTE and ESL teachers' courses and accreditation practices: "they aren't maintained when teachers get jobs in schools and a reason behind that is probably well worth investigating in the long-term". She said: "Its long-standing nature suggests that reconsideration of the solutions pursued thus far may need to be reconsidered".

CHAPTER SIX

THE EVOLUTION OF LANGUAGE PLANNING AND POLICY IN GREECE: DOCUMENT ANALYSIS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter documents, analyses and assesses the evolution of Greek language planning and policy development from 1970-2005. The chapter also partially responds to the main aim of the present research: *how well Greece has, in its specific context, designed, implemented and evaluated language education programs based on their overall aims and specific objectives in the last 35 years?* The chapter emphasizes the political context, illustrating how ideology operates in a complex of socio-political and cultural relations in regards to the offer and choice of foreign languages in Greek schools. In this light, the chapter documents the evolution of curriculum programs and briefly looks into their ideological meaning. Additionally, student textbooks and teacher handbooks and their selection constitute major issues for the chapter. Similarly, teachers' professional development has been another major issue through the years. Overall, the chapter demonstrates how all the above issues are embedded in social, economic and political interventions with serious political functions and implications.

The chapter is thus built on both official Greek archival (Appendix 11) and published data (Appendix 2). Within the theoretical framework outlined in Chapter 3, it critically reviews and analyses, from theoretical and historical perspectives, events, decisions and statements from archival documents called 'praxis-praxes' (hereafter P. for both praxis or praxes), following their titles Appendix 11; A/A: 001-346) and 'Government Gazettes' (Appendix 2) within varying historical, socio-political, economic and educational contexts at global, national and local levels. The letter "P" stands for both 'praxis' and its plural 'praxes', which in this context means 'the official written policy document held at KEME from 1978-1989 and at the Greek Pedagogical Institute of the Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs from 1989-2005 (Glossary p. 18). P. focus on the behind-the-scenes story of negotiations, dialogue and disputes between the Pedagogical Institute (hereafter PI) of the Greek Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs and other internal and external official educational institutions. The chapter also clarifies how, why, when and by whom both language planning and policy were developed. All the above will be presented within the following time periods: (1) 1970-1985; (2) 1985-1995; and (3) 1995-2008.

6.2 The 1970 to 1985 Period

In the pre-1975 period, in Greece, in the discursive field of foreign language education, particular representations of languages, language knowledge and linguistic diversity had been created. Fishman (1968) appropriately observed that linguistic homogeneity was “a basic characteristic of states, that are economically more developed, educationally more advanced, politically more modernised and ideologically/politically more tranquil and stable” (p. 60). At the same time, the ethic of sameness or the philosophy of homogeneity, underpinned by a fear of the other, was emphasizing heterogeneity to ultimately protect the other from becoming the same (Derrida 1978). Additionally, as Dendrinos (2001, 2004) has observed, European language planning has been to resolve social conflict originating in linguistic and cultural heterogeneity, a western tradition obsessed with identity and singleness that gave birth to the disciplines of linguistics, language education and curriculum development. Likewise, Greece, in the pre-1970 period, against a background of complexity and multiplicity of the linguistic hegemony prevailing in Europe, had chosen to promote the dominant foreign European languages of international prestige.

These languages had been legitimated as official school knowledge in the national school curriculum. These were: French, in government and private schools in the gymnasium and the Lyceum with a particular role for both; English, as obligatory only in the economic Gymnasium (a type of upper high school (Years 7-12) in Greece in the 1970s) and Lyceum and German, introduced early in the 1970s in the then public Technological Education English programs were introduced beginning in 1961 (Frangoudaki 1992). At a regional level, the European community on 25 July 1977 had forced through an objective in favour of community languages teaching which was generally introduced into primary education with a view of family remigration from western Europe: “Guideline for Languages” directive (77/486/). The Directive focused on the education of these children of ‘migrant workers’ with the aim ‘principally to facilitate their possible reintegration into the Member State of origin’. It excluded all immigrant minority children originating from non-EU countries although these children formed the large part of immigrant minority children in European primary schools (in Europe in general).

The issues of curriculum programs, the institutionally authorized textbook selection and the amount of teaching hours for French, English and German, were clarified, articulated, defined and decided upon (Edwards 2001; Bridgman and Davis 2004) in the first recorded *Praxis* in the language area at KEME (National Centre for Educational Projects and Professional Develop-ments), namely, P. no 94 and P. no 131 in 1978 and P. nos 21, 22, 33 and 35 in 1979 (see their titles in Appendix 11; A/A: 001-006). Understandably, textbooks in English with their UK or USA pedagogical style and content were at variance with the Greek style. Williams in 1977 rightly observed that “the pressure and limits of what can ultimately be seen as a specific economic, political and cultural system seem to most of us the pressure and limits of simple experience and common sense” (p. 110). Likewise, Dendrinos (2001)

commented that the “...exportation of a language certainly involves the exportation of particular forms of culture and knowledge” (p. 16). Textbooks realistically contained “summaries of literary work and extracts of new English or American writers...” (p. 42). Likewise, it was anticipated that French textbooks, according to Dendrinis (2001), “would highlight events characteristic of the newer French culture” (p. 43).

During the period of 1970-1985, the first official curriculum programs for the Lyceum for English, French and German were published by the then Greek Minister for Education, Ioanni Varvitsiwti, on 5th October 1979. These were: *Year 12 Curriculum Program and Teaching Hours* in 1979, and *Year 11 Curriculum Program and Teaching Hours* in 1980. In Greece, since the late 1970s, the teaching and learning of foreign languages has been developed as a discipline (Phillipson 1992; Pennycook 2004; Dendrinis 2001, 2004). Additionally, for the private sector, the No. 682 law in 1977 provided the possibility for private schools through an exemption from the law, to teach foreign languages in different forms (curricula, textbooks etc.) with the agreement of KEME (and later on the PI) and the approval of the Minister for Education.

6.2.1 Network of Sociopolitical and Economic Relations

That language planning and policy development became involved in a complex network of socio-political and economic relations may perhaps be clarified by presenting the following example. In January 1980, foreign language education was granted a substantial commercial and political role. Concerns were expressed by official government institutions for their languages to be taught in Greece, such as the British Council, the Greek-American Union, the French Institute, the German Goethe Institute, the Italian Institute, and the Fulbright Foundation (through the D/31790/28-9-79 YPEPTH document). KEME was asked (P. no 2) to advise on teachers’ minimum qualifications for those teaching languages in Foreign Languages Centers, “Frontistiria”, possibly and not surprisingly, to safeguard the prestige of their languages. Its advice decided for French the *Diplome D’Etudes Superieures*, for German the so-called Big *Diploma of German Language*, for Italian the *Diploma di Perfezionamento in Lingua Cultura Italiana* (p. 2). For English, KEME decided “to respond in one of the subsequent P.” (p. 3). In respect to the qualifications of the teachers of the English, French and German languages in the state sector, it was a recommendation that they obtain qualifications in the form of a degree in each of the respective languages which they will teach from the English Language and Literature Schools, the French Language and Literature Schools or from the German Language and Literature School of any Greek University.

In line with this advice, a personnel policy to support language teachers was required. For example, “...three months short-term training...” (P. no 5 in 1979, p. 2) for French and English teachers was decided on for meeting article 14 of the 459/78 Presidential Decree (hereafter P.D.). The first recorded selection process of English and French textbooks occurred for 1980-81 in February 1980, and was

addressed in P. no 9. Simultaneously, for the less widely taught languages, which held little significance in comparison with the three dominant languages, less demanding criteria were required for the minimum qualifications to teach Rumanian, Russian and/or Arabic in the 'Frontistiria' (P. no 10 in 1980, p. 4). The political function of language planning and policy implementation may perhaps, be understood, when in May 1980 in a diplomatic and political intervention, the educational attaché (external player) from the French Embassy in Athens, suggested that the professional development for English and French teachers (P. no 22 in 1980) be conducted by the British Council, the Fulbright Foundation and the French Institute. Accordingly, Mpasias, the Adviser at KEME, perhaps emphasizing the implied linguistic imperialism, commented: "...these seminars profit our country...and at the same time emphasize the prestige of their languages...", (p. 7). Finally, KEME unanimously decided that seminars be conducted on 1-20 September, 1980 (p. 8). All this, not surprisingly; on the one hand, reveals the collaborative efforts between KEME and the official foreign institutions for languages, on the other, their possible politicized control, economic connectedness and social efforts.

Reasons for the inappropriate teaching of foreign languages (P. no 29 in 1980), as previsioned: i) poor curriculum programs; ii) unsuitable textbooks; and iii) deficient training and re-training for teachers (p. 4). A proposal was developed, suggesting: (a) reform of teachers' initial training; (b) teachers' re-training each year; (c) corpus planning's reform; and (d) establishment of a body to support new teachers (p. 4). This first recorded evaluation from KEME met what Bridgman and Davis (2004) have stated as the three purposes of evaluation: (a) It asks how well a policy, once implemented, meets its objectives; (b) It holds officials accountable for the implementation; and (c) It provides important clues for future policy making" (p. 130).

A political campaign at the time concerned the introduction of the Italian language which was placed on the agenda for government attention in June 1980 (P. no 35; p. 9). Not surprisingly, the player was the Italian faculty of the University of Thessalonica, possibly and understandably working for its own prestige and its graduates' professional opportunities. Possible issues taken into account at the time of the introduction of a specific language into the public education sector, perhaps can be seen from the following excerpt. Politis, vice-president of KEME, at the policy analysis stage clarifying the objectives, stressed the following:

(a) The Greek and Italian populations are two of the European populations' co-heirs of classical cultures; (b) In Europe, Italian is today equivalent to English, French and German; (c) Italy is a neighbouring and Mediterranean country, hence our relations and interests are more common, frequent and similar; (d) Italy is a country with the most faculties of Modern Greek in the world; (e) Many thousands of Greeks have graduated from Italian universities and done much other study there, too; (f) In Magna Grecia, the new Greek (local dialect) is taught in schools; (g) The University of Thessalonica for years has a Department of Italian Language and already has graduates at the disposal of the Ministry; (h) Greek-Italian diplomatic discussions occasionally have had on the

agenda the introduction of Italian in schools and Greece has promised to deal positively with the demand (p. 9-10).

KEME unanimously decided that Italian be introduced as a second foreign language in the Experimental secondary school, under the auspices of the Italian faculty of the University of Thessalonica (p. 10) and to a large extent met Edwards' (2001) statement that "...proposals come forward early in the policy development process...for policy solutions..." (p. 178). Hall et al (1986) declare:

there is a complicated relationship between problems and solutions which in itself is one of the important explanations of why certain policies emerge. Logically, the identification and analysis of a problem precedes proposals for a remedy, but in reality the sequence is less tidy...The very fact that remedies are attractive and available may advance the priority of certain problems to which they can be applied (p. 490)

Two Governments Gazettes (published legislative key documents), *Curriculum Program and Foreign Languages' Teaching Hours in Year 12* in 1979 and *Curriculum Program and Foreign Languages' Teaching Hours in Year 11* were proclaimed for implementation. Likewise, in 1980, the Year 10 curriculum programs for English, French and German were published by the then Minister for Education, Vasileio Kontogiannopoulo. For foreign textbook selection, specific criteria were required. For example in P. no 19 in 1981, the following criteria were set up: (a) to correspond to the Greek timetables and curriculum programs; (b) to meet up-to-date, scientific, didactic, pedagogical and aesthetic demands; (c) to meet students' understanding, interests and needs; (d) to include audio-visual material and (e) be at a reasonable price (p. 10). Understandably, Petropoulos, a consultant, pointed out that it was necessary "...to correspond to the needs of the national economy, to the social demands and to grow the Gross National Product" (p. 5). He suggested "...foreign languages' textbooks to be written by Greek authors and to be supplied to students for free..." (p. 8), highlighting Greece's ideological commitment to free education. The business of the institutionally authorised textbooks can be seen e.g. from the following approved series for English: (a) *Project GB* (Publication M.G.P.); (b) *Going Places* (Publication Longman); (c) *Authentic English* (Publication O.U.P.); and (d) *Writing for Effect* (Publication O.U.P) (P. no 12 in 1982; p. 18-19). Petropoulos' view, as a KEME consultant for material policy, was that "...textbook selection is a solution of need and in particular, it comes contrary to free education" and he suggested "...a series of French textbooks to be written by Greek authors" which was approved by KEME (P. no 13 in 1982; p. 4).

6.2.2 Initial Steps for Authority Role from Greece

A general transition from dependency to independence in language teaching provision in Greece was started early in the 1980s. The diplomatic power of the official foreign institutions for languages, as a centralised form of social control and their authoritative role in Greece, may perhaps be

conceptualised when in 1982, Eyaggelou, another KEME consultant, commented that “...it is deliberate to begin professional development for English and French teachers...we have the potential awaiting exploitation...thanks of course to the foreign institutions for all the services offered so far and they have been offering to us; nevertheless it is time to try on our own with our self-confidence...” (P. no 18; p. 2). In the same way, perhaps implying the belief of the superiority of the foreign institutions as offering countries, and Greece’s inferiority as a receiving country, Martelias, the English consultant commented that “...KEME mission and operation is to conduct professional development for English teachers by Greek Institutions...without rejecting foreign Institutions’ offers...the last three year experience provides the organisational knowledge and a feeling of confidence for successful professional developments...” (p. 4). Likewise, Petropoulos, a consultant, supported that “... the sense to handle professional development for teachers has been cultivated in our Department for a long time” (p. 12). All the above, possibly, encouraged KEME both to accept an eighteen page proposal and decide for a professional development program for French and English teachers to be conducted in Piraeus (6-10 September 1982) (p. 18).

The marketing of foreign language textbooks, was one aspect of the Greek language planning and policy development. Perhaps it can be understood from the following comments. Markoulakou, a consultant (P. no 42 in 1982), stated that “...according to article 9, law N. 749/1970...the committee has the essential responsibility to investigate the market and to approve the most suitable textbooks...” (p. 2). Likewise Eyaggelou (P. no 50), remarked that “...*Contact*, the Greek-German series, is the only Greek series...it agrees with the curriculum program...it holds (foreign) exchange within the country...” (p. 3). Similarly (P. no 93) Sardelis, the deputy director, criticised OEDB (Press for Textbook Publication-The Government Agency within the Greek Ministry of Education responsible for the publication of all school textbooks) for not publishing language textbooks, adding “...when language textbooks are selected, they put parents to expense...” (p. 2) and reflecting again the national belief that student textbooks be free.

The lack of coordination towards policy implementation between responsible institutions was not surprising. Sardelis (P. no 93), later that same year,, described the situation: “...each Department fails in their duty to the other...KEME a long time ago did its best, but the subject has been held at the Ministry of Education since November 1981...” (p. 2). Appropriately, Wildavsky (1973) very early stated that “...policies should be coordinated...should be mutually supportive rather than contradictory...the participants at the right time and in the right amount to achieve coordination” (p. 142). Consequently, an approved proposal was forwarded to the Minister of Education, to establish a committee for writing curriculum programs and textbooks for English and French (p. 2). Startlingly, the proposal asked the committees: (a) to read all the background and context up to that time; (b) to construct a curriculum program for Years 7-12; (c) to choose foreign textbooks until their gradual replacement by OEDB textbooks; (d) to write guidelines for teachers; and (e) to suggest professional

development initiatives. Still in 1982, a legislative official response for 'status' and 'corpus' planning was given by the publication of the Government Gazette: *Curriculum Program and Foreign Languages' Teaching Time in Gymnasium (Year 7-9)*.

Protests from textbook publishers were not surprising. And there were significant differences amongst the consultants. Petropoulos found the series "appropriate ..." (p. 3), while another consultant, Vardoulakis, noted that "...KEME must be careful in the review of private textbook series..." (p. 4). Finally, KEME decided not to approve of the series (p. 6).

It was anticipated that language teachers' associations would be key players, in a 'bottom up' process, in the planning and policy development. A case in point was, when in February 1984, a proposal forwarded to KEME by the French Teachers' Association of Hpeiros (a district in Southern Greece), for French teachers' re-training (one week at the end of the year), (P. no 14), was accepted (p. 4). It was anticipated that an evaluation would be conducted for evidence that the proposed plan and its implementation were cost-effective. For instance, an appropriateness evaluation was documented in P. no 16 in 1984. Concerns about the effectiveness of the new English and French programs in the Lyceum (Desmi E) were forwarded to KEME by the English and French consultants and the French Teachers' Association. Some of the concerns were: (a) "...the content is too high for Desmi E ..." (p. 4), Mika, French consultant; (b) "...inappropriate for Desmi E ..." (p. 9), Thanasoglou and Matsa, French consultants; (c) "...there is no companion volume for the teacher..." (p. 13), Valilakou, a French consultant; and (d) "...for pedagogical and economic reasons the Association does not agree to three books in one year ...", (p. 16), French Teachers' Association. Other concerns were expressed about the textbooks' cost (effectiveness evaluation): "...their price is too high..." (p. 4), "...they cost a lot of money..." (p. 10), "...we have protests from colleagues because their students refuse to buy the books because of their high cost..." (p. 16). As a final point, KEME suggested "an official effectiveness evaluation be conducted across the country for future reform" (p. 33).

Once again, lack of coordination was an issue. Regarding a proposal from the British Council (1983), to conduct seminars for English teachers, Mpasias, a consultant, pointed out that "...it reached KEME in March 1984..." (P. no 26; p. 12). Similarly, concerns were expressed about the discourse of the new curriculum programs and textbooks for English and French. He said: "...we do not know when the Working Teams will submit the curriculum programs and textbooks..." (according to Kaklamanis the Minister for Education the deadline was 30/5/1984). Not surprisingly, the proficiency level in the private sector was higher in comparison to the public sector. Mpasias, said: "... the level is not the same as in Frontistiria..." (P. no 27; p. 4).

6.2.3 The Authority Role from Greece

Disagreements between the players were an anticipated reality. For instance, the ideological difference between old and new curriculum programs was remarked upon by Martelias, an English consultant, as follows: "...the 1977 curriculum program for English many times represents older methods and contrary to the school textbooks' methods...I suggest the revised 1983-84 curriculum program, until September 1984..." (p. 6). In contrast, Petropoulos, the consultant for French, recommended "...the curriculum program, revised by the attached teacher Georgiou..." (p. 6). KEME decided on the same curriculum programs for 1984-85 (the 1983-84 revised programs) (p. 7).

Conflict between institutions was also not a surprise. In 1984, a document was forwarded to Moralis, Under-Minister for Education, by the French graduates of the School of French at the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki (8-3-1984) concerning the curriculum program for French. It argued that "...it was reformed by non-competent scientific persons...the PI ignored proposals from two special experts on foreign languages..." (P. no 43; p. 3). On the contrary, the PI unanimously accepted Petropoulos' view: "...PI seriously take into account memoranda, protests and observations by school teachers...this document with its so inaccurate, unjustifiable, provocative and aggressive style...does not help in finding a better solution for the issues in schools" (p. 5).

Should government intervention appear likely, policy analysis leads to the identification of the appropriate implementation of methods or policy instruments. Implementation levels at language examinations, for example, was placed on the agenda (P. no 68 in 1984) by the private schools, 'Loukas' and 'Odysseas'; and were commented upon by Martelias, the English consultant: "...an extensive proposal in P. no 71 in 1979 had suggested specific solution...". This, on the one hand, revealed a weakness of implementation and, on the other, a legislative policy instrument gap. In 1985, the curriculum programs for the Gymnasium and the Lyceum for English, French and German were signed off by the Minister for Education, Petro Morali.

The content of textbooks for foreign language teaching, was perceived critically. A case in point was the contents of a letter and its form in the institutionally authorized textbook *Quartet 1* for English on page 47, (Oxford University Press), which commented negatively upon Greece's public provision in regards to passenger ferries and railway transport (P. no 87) – this was perceived as offensive. A document (3624/21-9-8 by Moralis, Under Minister for Education) was forwarded to KEME asking for as soon as possible: i) more Greek-English textbooks to be used; and ii) foreign language textbooks to be adapted to the Greek reality (p. 5). In the policy analysis stage, Martelias, the English consultant, suggested "...in the new textbooks' selection the *Quartet* series for English be excluded..." (p. 11). Of the same view was Mpsias who bluntly, outspokenly and honestly, wrote:

“...certainly, on the one hand, this letter cannot remain in students’ textbook; on the other, the letter says the truth regarding the public service and passenger ferries and railway transport, as well as their public provision in our country. It also has sincerity. It does not discredit and it is more slanderous. When you say the truth, it neither discredits nor defames. Of course the textbook should be withdrawn” (p. 12)

Ultimately, KEME decided to withdraw it (p. 13).

Afterwards, not surprisingly for a second time, text in another authorized English textbook, *Threshold*, was criticized. A dialogue was published at *Rizospastis*, a Greek newspaper, not surprisingly as Edwards (2001) stated “...lobby groups and the media can play a significant part in putting the problem on the agenda and informing the public about it...” (p. 5) or the need for reform (p. 188) caused an extensive analysis at KEME. The dialogue was the following:

Are you English? *No.*

What are you? French? Italian?

I am Russian.

Are you a student? *No.*

What then do you do?

I am in KA-KE-MPE (the Greek counterpart of the CIA).

Furthermore, concerns were also expressed by the Office of Foreign Schools of Thessalonica, the Division of Foreign and Minority Schools at the Department of Education in F.211.25-12-1984 document requested “...the *Threshold* textbook for English to be withdrawn from all schools” (p. 6).

Appropriateness evaluation, as anticipated, was part of the Greek language planning and policy development. Bridgman and Davis (2004) have stated: “Appropriateness evaluation helps decision-makers determine whether a new program is needed, or whether an existing program should be maintained. A key question in appropriateness evaluation is the delivery mechanism; should government or the private sector deliver the service?” (p. 133). For instance, at a national level, new material for languages was introduced in pilot form for the Greek-French Year 7 material (of 600 schools, into 20 schools in 1984-85 and in 140 schools in 1985-86), (P. no 11 in 1984; p. 15), and for English, for 22,000 Year 7-9 students (P. 53; p. 4). Again, textbook marketing, as an element of Greek language planning, may perhaps be understood by the following excerpts. Martelias, the English consultant, wrote: “the committee, out of 22 there were approved nine English textbooks’ series...” (P. no 42; p. 4). Another consultant, Kyriakidis, commented: “I suggest all publishers of English textbooks be included ... this way we will silence publishers and above all we will be doing our job...” (p. 6). Likewise, Eyaggelou, another consultant, gave an example suggesting that a negative response will turn the Department into a victim. He said:

I think that any kind of discrimination will cause logical reactions not in favour of the Department. I have the sense that for marketing reasons the British Publishing Houses boost up the market criteria to replace older series. I remind you of the case of the 'Target Alexander' series which for one year was considered excellent and the next year inappropriate, because the publisher had brought a new series onto the market (p. 7-8)

The above excerpts reveal that "foreign language education in Greece is involved in a complex network of socio-political relations and economic struggles..." (Dendrinis 2001, 15).

6.3 The 1985 to 1995 Period

In 1985, the *Year 7-9 Curriculum Program and Teaching Hours* was published by the Department of Education for languages. As learning a language is an international matter, "professional mobility within one's own society" (Dendrinis 2001, 22) for vocational satisfaction was a reality addressed in Greek language planning and policy. In 1986, a request was placed on the agenda by the German Faculty of the University of Athens, in a 'bottom up' process, for the introduction of German into primary schools and in more schools at secondary level (P. no 10 in 1986). Realistically, in a policy analysis stage, Markoulakou, a consultant commented that "...students who for any reason or motivation want to learn German as a replacement for French or English, this must be facilitated by the school..." and realistically he suggested: "across the country, more teachers teaching German to be appointed in cities having high communication with Germany..." (p. 6). To the contrary, Mpasias, a consultant, observed that the 'instrument policy', namely, Law 1566 in 1985 doesn't support the introduction of a third language..." (p. 6). Similarly, but surprisingly, another consultant, Eyaggelou, mentioned that "...obviously this demand is lobby business..." (p. 7). Perhaps, the PI found itself in difficulty and as a final point came to a decision, "German to be offered by means of language programs in town halls..." (p. 10). At a regional level, the Common European Legislation for Languages was signed off in Maastricht by the EOK (Common European Union) on 28 February 1986.

Not surprisingly, academics were also players. When the PI was asked to suggest study programs and textbooks for Year 12 examinations (Italian and German) for university entrance, Papagiannopoulos, a consultant, suggested that academics study the problem and make suggestions (P. no 12 in 1986, p. 2). This reflected what Edwards (2001) stated that academics are actively involved in, often coming into the bureaucracy for a short time and/or serving regularly on policy committees. There was confusion. In the words of Papagiannopoulos, "...in 1985-86, 7,000 Year 8 students will continue to use the new textbooks written in Greece, whereas 7,000 Year 8 students will use the foreign textbooks..." (P. no 16 in 1986; p. 8).

The market for languages and their teaching was a fast-growing one. Over again, market competition was embedded in the agenda of foreign textbooks for languages. Two French publishing companies,

Cle International, suggested its *En Avant La Musique* method at an economical price whereas Hatier International was selling its method *Alouette* at a quite competitive price. These offers were made after the discovery that there already was a Greek team preparing material for French (P. no 40; p. 10). The PI records "...this twofold suggestion not be accepted...to be kept in Greek hands...not be sold through Foreign Publishing Houses...it protects the financial health of the Greek economy and guarantees the statement for material's supply to students..." (p. 10-11) – the offers were not accepted. The above incident justified also Dendrinou's (2001) statement: "...choices are constrained by international and intra-national economic, political and ideological factors...and how they are internalized..." (p. 17). This statement, perhaps, can be better understood when the foreign textbooks series for English *Hot Press* (Sussex and Longman) were approved (P. no 54; p. 2). Eyaggelou, the consultant, questionably on the one hand and understandably on the other, commented regarding the unapproved Greek series that it was necessary "... to set softer criteria... a principal rationale is to support the Greek market..." (P. no 56; p. 4).

'Policy dances', backwards and forwards on issues placed on the agenda regarding language planning and policy, were not surprising. Once more, the introduction of German (P. no 66 in 1986) into more schools (the first intervention was made in P. no 10 in 1986) was placed on the agenda in a 'bottom up' process by the Greek Teachers' Association (as an external player) in Westphalia, Germany. Some of the developed options and proposals were, in the words of Markoulakou, a consultant, that "...communication with Germany was always strong and well-founded in scientific, commercial and diplomatic sectors..." (p. 6). Yet again, he suggested: "...at least one teacher for German in each capital town or city be appointed..." (p. 7). In the end, the P. I. accepted the suggestion of Petropoulos, the President, that "appointments of teachers for German in the Polykladika, Epaggelmatika and Texnika Lyceums...because these schools are suitable for the repatriated students" (p. 7).

A variety of approaches to community attitudes and foreign textbook policy was not a surprising factor. This, perhaps, can be illustrated by the following example. When, in October 1986, P. I. was asked (P. no 76 in 1986) to give an opinion on appropriate textbooks to Year 7-9 students at beginners and advanced levels for 1986-87, Mpasiakos remarked that "institutionalised textbooks are in disagreement with free-of-charge education...it facilitates brain drain...unless it is unavoidable in regards to students' benefit ..." (p. 2-3). The opinion of another consultant, Papagiannopoulos, perhaps revealed parental views about textbook policy. He said: "...if you say to students and parents that you will protect them from costs, they will respond to you that they are interested in learning languages and not the payments, which are less to what they pay in Frontistiria..." (p. 6). Likewise, Kyriakidis, another consultant, said: "...overseas marketed textbooks will lead, I am sure, to their enormous importation into schools, a situation that the state has wanted to avoid, when it undertook the initiative for foreign textbooks for languages be written by Greeks" (p. 6).

The major criteria, for the institutionally authorized textbook selection was the matching of the books to the curriculum aims and methodology. This is illustrated by the comment made by Martelias, the English consultant, in January 1987, when the P. I. was asked (P. no 2) to select textbooks for English to meet the new curriculum program introduced in 1984. He said that "..., pre-approved textbooks which meet the new curriculum program and methodology should be better. They would not need to be assessed for a second time. For this reason, interested editors and writers may cause serious problems to the Department if their textbooks will be rejected" (p. 5). All the above were not surprising as Kaplan and Bauldauf in (1997) had stated: "...must select an appropriate methodology, (and) must guarantee that the materials to be used are consistent with the methodology, provide authentic language, and are also consistent with the expectations of teachers" (p. 134). After all, the P I suggested that only the new textbooks were to be assessed (p. 6).

6.3.1 Management of the Greek Language Economics

Delay in the work of the committees was not surprising, as Papagiannopoulos gave a good reason for the delay of Year 9 textbooks' selection. He said: "...the committee is not responsible for the delay... (p. 3) ...since teachers' temporary appointments will come to an end on 30-6-1987" (P. no 22 in 1987; p. 7). Likewise, the analysis by Mpasiakos, the permanent assessor, reveals community attitudes (P. no 89 in 1987) and this was anticipated. He added: "...the amount of 1,700,000 drachmas for Year 9 teaching material seems an iniquitous charge...and I would like options to be developed..." (p. 2).

The number of teaching hours for English was placed on the agenda in January 1988 by an internal driver, the English Teachers' Association of North Greece (P. no 4), perhaps lobbying on the one hand to facilitate the teaching of English, on the other for more teacher satisfaction. In the end, the PI decided "to discuss the issue in a future P." (p. 4). Yet again, lack of coordination between institutions occurred regarding personnel and material policy. So, Mpasiakos, the permanent assessor, said that "in the first months in 1988 a gap would exist in the didactic material...for the reason that teachers appointed to the PI were delayed..." (P. no 4 in 1988; p. 10). Likewise, Papagiannopoulos, the permanent assessor, remarked that "...most of the corrections in the textbook had not been taken into account...already the textbook is at the publishing house despite the fact that the committee had not finished its work..." (P. no 11; p. 2). Collaboration between the Department of Education and foreign language institutions was anticipated. Consequently, an extensive project was designed to produce taped-scripts for English negotiated with Oxford University Press (P. no 15; p. 3).

Interestingly, the following example can help understanding how concerns were sometimes driving the policy agenda: In February 1988, concerns were expressed about the approved optional textbooks' series that they did not match the new curriculum programs implemented in 1984. These concerns were expressed by the Pan-Hellenic Teachers' Association for English (PEKADE), language consultants and other teachers of English and French (P. no 17 and no 18). Furthermore, the PI was

questioned (through the F.211.25/2/G2/2763/10-6-87 Department document), at the same time, and it was asked to select new textbooks for 1988-89, with the aim for the Department to publish a new P.D. for a new method of examination, reflecting both material and curriculum programs. Masterfully, Eyaggelou, a consultant, commented that “occasionally we have encouraged committees to support Greek-English textbooks series in order to prevent money being spent outside Greece, but at the same time report to the Department. For this reason, who can lay blame on whom? Which memos can be justified? In order for all these to justify the content of the current document? (p. 3). In 1988, the *Languages in the European Union* document was published in Europe.

It was anticipated that evaluation of the Greek language planning and policy would lead to policy revisions. In an appropriateness evaluation of a new method of teaching foreign languages, Mpasiakos, the permanent assessor, said: “...there is confusion with the communicative approach ...” (P. 50 in 1988; p. 2). Similarly and unsurprisingly, several inquiries were to come forward from the material’s evaluation. For instance, from the Greek-English series “...the *Task Way English 3* was found higher than its planned level by a PI Committee” (P. no 50). Contrastingly, Pallinos, an academic and chair of the Working Team, noted that i) the PI Committee was not conscious of the series’ theoretical background; ii) the outcomes of a questionnaire to 22,000 Year 7-9 students confirmed the strength of the *Task Way English 3* (p. 8-9). Petropoulos, another consultant, highlighted a gap in the law. He said: “...even with the 1974 law improvements, a comprehensive law had not been promoted by the Parliament for the Committees’ constitution”. But he concluded: “...the Division can not ignore the 1974 law...” (p. 10). Ultimately, the P. I. decided to print the textbook for the 1988-89 school years (p. 14).

In order to finalise their work, the Working Teams for languages were asked to conduct specific tasks. For example, the Working Team for English was asked to: (1). Revise the existing curriculum program to match with *Task English 1, 2, 3* (student textbooks), *Task English 1, 2, 3* (teacher handbooks) and *Task English 1, 2, 3* (tapes-scripts); (2). Research the above issues for future revision; (3). Suggest professional development for teachers; (4). Conduct appropriateness, efficiency and effectiveness evaluation; and 5. Make a final report (P. no 53 in 1988; p. 6-7). All this reflected the summation of Fischer (1995): “...evaluation is a form of practical deliberation concerned with the full range of empirical and normative issues that bear on policy judgement” (p. 2)

a) good policy is timely in advice, forward looking, correctly recognising emerging issues and problems; b) it identifies implications of options, alternatives and cost affective solutions; c) it forms part of a clearly defined and coherent strategy, including a strategy for achieving acceptance of the policy, and d) is it practical to implement?(p. 52).

An ‘implementation trap’, once again, was clarified by Mpasiakos, the permanent assessor, as follows: “...the Working Team’s temporary re-appointee for French was signed in the middle of 1987-88...the

books will not be ready...in no case will students buy textbooks...they will wait for OEDB textbooks” (P. no 54 in 1988; p. 28).

A careful selection of members on committees, panels and teams to feed and provide direction to policy processes was an anticipated actuality in light of Apple’s 1993 observation: “I am referring to questions about what or whose knowledge is to be transmitted and learnt in schools, who selects this knowledge and why, what are the reasons it is organised the way it is and why” (p 9). For instance, the Committee members for the pilot introduction of German (F.817.3/21/2893/18-5-1989 Department document) were: (a) an academic of the German faculty of the University of Athens; (b) a teacher from the Goethe Institute; (c) teachers teaching German in secondary schools; (d) a secondary language adviser educated in Germany; (e) an Office Director in secondary education; and f) an Office Director in primary education (P. no 19 in 1989; p. 4).

In 1989, a major change took place in Greece’s language planning and policy with the teaching of foreign languages in primary education through the 1566/85 law (article 4, paragraph 12 and article 92, paragraph 2). Not surprisingly, the English language as ‘ruler’ and the other ‘strong’ language, French, took dominance. Consequently, in 1987/88 in 73 and 51 primary schools (grades 4,6), English and French respectively were being taught and in 1988-89 their number was increased to 186 and 103, in that order. This concurs with Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) statement:

Once the education sector has determined which languages need to be taught (and also which languages do not need to be taught because other mechanisms already exist for the spread of those languages (e.g. private/ lector “Saturday schools”), or because the languages do not have value to the community, or because there is simply no student interest in them, or because it is not feasible to develop teaching strength in them within a reasonable time), then the education sector has to turn its attention to a whole range of curricular issues (p. 127).

As Williams (1992) has stated, conflict derives from difference; not surprisingly, once more, conflicts occurred between the language institutions. The French faculty of the University of Thessalonica, in March 1989 (P. no 32) had strongly criticised the persons and the process for writing a French curriculum program with textbooks for French as done by the PI. Disagreement was expressed by Palias, a consultant. He said: “...it is not conceivable that another institution get involved on the internal guideline of the PI...” (p. 2). Similarly, another consultant, Bloytidis, commented: “...obviously, it arrogantly...intervenes on internal issues of the P. I. and it does not only offend the processes that lawfully have been guaranteed, but also the prestige of YPEPTH decisions ...” (p. 2). The above conflicts were not surprising, as Colebatch (1998) stated that

a number of...causes for policies not being implemented: the original decision was ambiguous; the policy direction conflicted with other policies; it was not seen as a high priority; there were insufficient resources to

carry it out; it provoked conflict with other significant players; the target group proved hard to reach; the things that were done did not have the expected impact; attention shifted to other problems etc. (p. 56).

6.3.2 Greece's Greater Involvement in the European Union

In 1990, in a regional context, when UNESCO through the Greek Ministry of Foreign Affairs, requested information on the levels of teaching French and English within the Greek population, PI decided to respond for the 1975-1990 period collecting the relevant information (P. 30 in 1990; p. 2). Policy implementation 'weakness', unfortunately, re-occurred. Palias records: "...the two precious years were lost, the Department failing to promote material for English ..." (P. no 8 in 1990; p. 2). For the next five-year period 1990-1994, under the *Lingua Program* from EOK (Common European Union), PI unanimously decided to endorse the following actions: i) upgrade the qualifications of language teachers; and ii) foreign language students' study sojourn in the country of the taught language (at least 3 months) (P. no 20; p. 15-16).

To implement the above praxis, the PI in selecting from thirty-four textbook series approved the following three: (i) *Chatterbox* (Oxford University Press); (ii) *Stepping Stones* (Collins); (iii) *Tip Top* (Macmillan) (p. 3) plus the Year 4 *Funway* English book written by Greeks. In 1993, the 447/93 Presidential Degree (7-10-93) was published to introduce officially the teaching of English as the first foreign language in primary schools and the teaching of a second foreign language in secondary schools (G2/4230/17-8-93 and G2/4428/7-8-1993 circulars).

The material content was examined by PI, resulting in diverse appraisals. Kress (1989) and Fairclough (1989) in a critical analysis of some texts concluded that the social values are conveyed not merely by the theme being dealt with in the text, but by the language used to deal with the theme as well as the concepts having experiential value. In 1993, in P. no 3 and P. no 5 for material used in teaching French and German, Dorou, a permanent consultant, said: "it would be best if the foreign language textbooks not include the cultural values of the countries of origin that would influence tender ages in the Gymnasium...". Contrari-wise, Mpasiakos, the permanent assessor, commented: "... views such as the catastrophism of students' cultural adjustment by foreign models channelled by means of foreign textbooks, not only are not dangerous but by any means are valuable...regarding the fears that valuable (money) exchange goes abroad, I believe these are unsound" (p. 11). At last, based on his suggestion, the PI decided to negotiate with foreign publishing houses, to buy the rights of textbooks and then for OEDB to print them" (p. 16).

Meanwhile, in 1993 the Aristotelian University of Thessalonica argued for (A.11292/8-7-93) the introduction of Italian into primary and secondary education (P. no 12) arguing that "this exclusion reduces the Department, influences students' morale and it is contrary to the 5139/1931 law, article 7 which gives access to the public sector's nomination" (p. 18). In the words of Georgakos, the

consultant, the response given by the PI was as follows: “in primary education, according to the law, only English is to be taught, so the teaching of a second foreign language is not possible...” (p. 18). The maintenance and promotion of the Greek language and culture abroad was anticipated to be part of Greek language policy. In January 1994, at the regional level when the educational agreement between Greece and Italy was renewed (P. no 2), Mpasiakos suggested “...the promotion of teaching the Greek language and culture in the Greek-speaking population in South Italy...” (p. 9). Furthermore, the option developed by Martelias, an English consultant, (Greek consultant in how to teach English in Greece) was that “government (language) proficiency certificate to be established...” which when accepted by the PI was an important occasion (P. no 5; p. 5). In the same year 1994, another important happening was Greece’s cooperation (p. 7) in the European Languages Centre developed for lesser spoken languages (placed on the agenda by the Greek Ministry of Foreign Affairs). This ‘acquisition’ planning (which deals with increasing the number of users, speakers, writers, listeners or readers for a specific language) was part of the Greek language planning and policy. For instance, the *Dentsch Konkret* optional textbook for German was given free of charge to the Greek education system (P. no 6; p. 6).

Another issue was the incorporation of English words into the Greek language. Martelias, the English consultant, commented:

there is a lack in our national language policy and a total abandonment by Greeks to American and Anglo-Saxon cultural by-products...through an extraordinary linguistic and cultural imperialism...Other countries e.g. Germany did not ever allow linguistic and cultural alienation for its population...anywhere in Belgium and Brussels you will not see English shop signs. These countries look after and protect their national languages... (P. no 7 in 1994, 3).

An extensive proposal for a National Hellenic Council for Language and Culture was suggested (p. 25). However, as Dendrinis (2001) stated, “the general design of this project has been completed, but funding to develop the program further and to implement it has not been secured” (p. 73). In 1994, an official government response was published by the Department of Education in the Government Gazette, *Teaching Hours for Foreign Languages in the Gymnasium*.

6.4 The 1995 up to Now Period

6.4.1 Greece’s Stronger Involvement in Developing European Policy

Once more, at the regional level, Greece, a founding member of the European Languages’ Centre (with other countries such as Austria, France, Greece, Switzerland, Lichtenstein, Malta, the Netherlands and Slovenia with a more recent addition of seven other countries) was asked to make suggestions on: i) teaching Greek as a foreign language; and ii) teaching foreign languages in Greece

(P. no 30 in 1995). In November 1995, teachers' associations and parents' organizations were again players in language planning. The Teachers Association of Northern Greece for French protested that "the research conducted, following the PI suggestion, on parents and students' interest for the introduction of Italian as a second language in the Gymnasium and the Lyceum, confuses parents and students...it is against teachers' appointments for French...it is controlled by outside interests..." (P. no 30; p. 9). Understandably, the PI responded that "... for political, economic, social, cultural and educational needs...the State's new challenges in the European Union...drive language planning and policy..." (p. 10). In another policy dance, the issues got on the agenda. PEKADE protested, once again for the following issues: i) teaching at different levels; ii) textbooks; iii) state proficiency certificate; iv) consultants' appointments for English; and v) suppression rights of proficiency holders from foreign institutions in Greece. Not surprisingly, the PI responded that "the PI in all the above has responded and particularly for the last issue, since 1980" (P. 30; p. 11-12).

Across the decades, the nature of schools, particularly, in primary education in rural areas, was a defining issue for teaching languages in primary education; 45 per cent of the primary schools in rural areas were teaching languages (Greek Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs 2007). Not unreasonably, concerns were expressed about how to teach English across all primary schools (English was introduced in 3,100 primary schools and in rural areas, 4,300 were remaining where there are schools with one and/or two, and/or three teachers for Year 1-Year 6), (P. no 1 (for primary education) in 1995; p 8). Decisions were not forced upon Greece to introduce specific languages; rather it was Greece that was chosen to promote specific languages but was constrained by various inter-national and intra-national factors, which most likely were considered during the decision-making process. To be more precise, when on January 1995, the PI was asked that "...French to be introduced in primary education as a second foreign language..." (P. no 12 in 1995, 5), the French Embassy in Athens received the response in the words of Martelias, an English consultant, as follows: "it is too early to introduce a second foreign language in primary education..." (ibid, 6).

Another time, problems and concerns were proposed by teachers associations. In June 1995, (P. no 17), the Teachers' Association for Primary Education of Southern Greece for English, forwarded to PI its concerns: (i) necessity to conduct professional development courses; (ii) teachers' awareness of the Common European Union's programs (Lingua and Socrates); (iii) students' disinterest due to: (a) school environment; (b) lack of special classrooms for English; (c) large number of students per classroom; (d) different student learning levels; (e) parents' practices. The PI suggested conducting professional development programs for English with the cooperation of the Britain Council and the Greek-American Union, as well as the introduction of English from Year 3 (p. 5-6). In 1996, the following Government Gazettes were published: 1. *Curriculum for English in Primary and Secondary Education*, and 2. *Curriculum for French in Secondary Education*.

Unsurprisingly, the new material's content and methodology were criticised by teachers and student associations. In 1996, the Greek-English series *Funway for Dimotiko* (Year 4-6) and *Taskway for Gymnasium* (Year 7-9) were stringently criticised for their content and methodology by the graduates of the English Teachers' Association in Ioannina (a city in Southern Greece). Likewise, the Pan-Hellenic Teachers Association for French commented negatively on: (1) curriculum programs for French; (2) selection process for optional textbooks; (3) teaching hours; (4) student learning levels; (5) method of examination; (6) national policy for foreign languages; and (7) the State proficiency certificate (P. no 1 in 1996, 10-11).

Yet again, PEKADE got on the agenda in April 1996 regarding the following issues: (a) increase of teaching hours in the Gymnasium and the Lyceum; (b) teaching in levels; (c) teachers' appointments in primary schools; (d) enactment of special teachers' appointments in primary education; and (e) cooperation between YPEPTH and PI (P. no 11 and no 12 in 1996, 2-3). It is worthwhile to note the view of Martelias, the English consultant, against bilingual schools which, perhaps surprisingly, was unanimously accepted by the PI (P. no 12). He said:

Clearly, the issue of bilingual education is political. It can also be dangerous for small countries like Greece...our national language is spoken only in Greece where it is completely unprotected and exposed to a lot of risks. If Germany and France have some bilingual schools where Geography or History is taught in a foreign language (and of course I mean in English, and either French or German), they absolutely have protected their national languages...in Greece without the necessary protection of our national language, I consider bilingual schools harmful, nationally and I don't agree neither with Vlahos' suggestion for a conference, nor with the General Secretary's opinion for pilot application and especially at Primary Education (p. 4-5)

On 12 January 1996, the *Curriculum Program for Year 4-6* was published and signed off by the Minister for Education, Gewgrio Papandreou, and on 20 September 1996, the amendment of the *Curriculum Program for the Gymnasium for French* was conducted. The following year in 1997, due to written protests from ten Teachers Associations for English and Consultants for Foreign Languages, P. no 4 and no 5 (Modification of article 32 of the P.D. 376/93 in E.E.L. (teaching foreign languages in levels) the PI unanimously decided on the teaching of English at different levels. At the regional level, a bilateral educational program between Greece and France was negotiated. Mpasiakos, permanent assessor, said:

...for obvious reasons, I consider it particularly important the Greek language in French schools in France be promoted, but also Greece to maintain the 85 per cent of teaching French in Gymnasia as a second foreign language. On the contrary, I perceive with a lot of reserve the request from the French side that some subjects be taught in French in the Greek-French lyceum (P. no 12 in 1996, 18).

At European level, in 1996, the *Language Learning and Teaching for European Citizenship Modern Languages* was published.

6.4.2 Choice of Languages and Political Interventions

The reality that language planning in Greece, once again, was constrained by economic, political and ideological factors, perhaps can be perceived by the following claims. On February 1997 (P. no 7), when the teaching of a second foreign language in the Gymnasium was 15 per cent for German and 85 per cent for French, Germany through the Permanent Joint Committee between Greece and Germany, remarkably, claimed the following: (a) A German Language Adviser (from Germany) to be appointed at YPEPTH; (b) retired French teachers to be appointed by teachers for German; (c) the German Adviser to raise awareness to schools of the introduction of German; (d) administrative problems in Goethe Institute be accommodated; and (e) recognition of the professional faculty in the School of German Language and Literature at the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki (P. no 7 in 1997, 26-27). Likewise, Greece's claims were: (i) the introduction of Greek as mother tongue in the morning teaching zone in German schools; (ii) the teaching of Greek as the mother tongue in some central German schools when the number of Greek students in peripheral schools is small; (iii) the recognition of Greek as a compulsory foreign language for Greek students facilitating their secondary examination; (iv) the increase in teaching hours for Greek as mother tongue at least up to 8 hours per week; (v) the integration of teachers in kindergarten for Greek in German kindergartens; (vi) availability of infrastructure for Greek schools and mother tongue classrooms; and (vii) collaboration between Greece and Germany for selecting Greek-speaking personnel in integrated Greek mother tongue's classes in German schools (P. no 7 in 1997, 28).

Not surprisingly, the first three German requests were not accepted. It is instructive to note the comments made by Martelias, the English consultant. He said: "demands to introduce other foreign languages, such as Italian, Spanish, Russian or Arabic have been constantly increasing; always in the relevant negotiations reciprocity should be involved and the achievement of benefits for the Greek side..." (P. no 7 in 1997, 28). He also suggested – and it was unanimously accepted by PI - the following: (a) as soon as possible, Greek-German advisers to be nominated which, on the one hand, would facilitate the teaching of German and, on the other, would exclude the demand by Germany to appoint a German language adviser at the Greek Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs (YPEPTH); (b) teachers of German not to replace the retiring teachers of French as this was an extreme demand (P. no 7 in 1997, p. 29). The following excerpt perhaps reveals the political nature of the claims. Martelias, the English consultant, said:

Souflias, the previous Minister for Education, forwarded a document to the French Ambassador, with the percentage of teaching French (85 per cent) and German (15 per cent) in the Gymnasium. Of course, the YPEPTH must protect teachers' appointments for the teaching of French; however, by the extension of the German language, the political dimensions must be taken into account, as well as the local needs and the certainty of professional opportunities of teachers teaching the German language (P. no 7 in 1997, 30)

The PI unanimously accepted and suggested the above view (P. no 7 in 1997, 35).

It was not surprising that an individual teacher placed on the agenda the teaching of the Slavic languages (Russian, Polish and Bulgarian) in public schools for “cultural, social, political, economic and educational reasons” (P. no 20 in 1997, 17). Some of the objectives were clarified in the words of Martelias:

this issue is related to our country’s general language planning and policy...as well as those of the European Union and the Council of Europe...for Greece, many reasons apply to promote a new language, particularly neighbouring languages due to Greece’s geopolitical position, as well as its political and economic role in the Balkan Peninsula and in the wider place of the Middle East...I suggest the introduction of Russian in one school and in one classroom in Alexandroupoli (P. no 20 in 1997, 17-18)

Perhaps openly, regarding the education department’s language planning and policy directions, Georgiadis, a consultant, commented that “in Foreign Language Centres, ‘Frontistiria’...anyone can learn any language without introducing additional languages into public schools...” (P. no 20 in 1997, 18). A different view came from Michalás, another consultant:

...the introduction of Russian is related to our inter-Balkans language planning and policy...they also are of the same faith...after their repatriation from their previous socialist countries’ collapse...the maintenance of their language heritage and identity...I suppose we must also moderate our western-central orientation towards foreign languages...I suggest the introduction of Russian in the Lyceum as an elective subject (P. no 20 in 1997, 19)

In the end, the PI decided “once the ‘All Day School’ would be established, (the demand to teach more languages) would be satisfied” (P. no 20 in 1997, 19). All Day Schools began to be established in 1996-97 with additional teaching hours beyond the normal 1.30 p.m. closure. It had become obvious that in making decisions, the foreign languages to be taught in schools entail political realities.

Subsequently in November 1997, at the European level, language planning and policy development began to aim at common goals. A European program (*Work 2-Action 1.1g and 1.4.a, ‘Foreign Languages’*) asked each country to establish a scientific council to design a general study program under the European Languages Centres. For Greece the clusters of languages were:

Sector A: Greek as a second and as a foreign language;

Sector B: (i) the widely taught languages; (ii) less widely spoken languages but popular (e.g. Italian, Spanish); (iii) the less spoken languages with little or no demand in Greece (e.g. Northern European languages);

Sector C: Other languages (P. no 33 in 1997, 24-29).

This proposal from Greece was unsurprising as “the discipline of language planning legitimated such claims and hence the power of the state to make language a mechanism for the expression of nationalism and thus manipulate feelings of security and belonging” (Tollefson 1991, 208, quoting Dendrinos 2001, 49).

It was anticipated that key players would express different views on the issues placed on the agenda. For instance, in July 1997, Martelias as English consultant supported English from Year 3 onwards (P. no 10). “There is the same tendency in the European Union and the Council of Europe...supplementing also teachers’ teaching hours...” (p. 23). Consultant Michalaki was simply opposed (p. 24). Ultimately, the PI suggested the introduction of English from Year 3 (p. 24). The support for the introduction of English from Year 3 was predictable given the internationalisation of English (Christidis 1996; Graddol 1997)

On 11 September 1997, the *Curriculum Program for Years 10-12 for German* was signed off by the Minister for Education, Gerasimo Arseni. In the same year, in the Gymnasium and the Lyceum, French and German were introduced as optional second foreign languages (Document G2/4430/30-7-1997). The teaching of Greek (from 3 to 5 hours per week) in the high schools across Germany and not only in Stuttgart, Nuremberg and Bavaria was accommodated in P. no 28 in 1997. Once again in 1998, seven teachers’ associations and unions were driving language planning in Greece. The PI was asked to address the following issues: (1) teaching French for six compulsory years; (2) endorsing and issuing a state proficiency certificate; (3) teaching German and French as a compulsory second language; (4) teaching the same school program in the Lyceum for the two compulsory languages. Teachers’ associations and unions asked what had happened with the European Languages Centres? The private fee-paying Frontistiria schools were strongly opposed to the establishment of these Centres, which would be free of charge. They also asked about the bad conditions of teaching English in public schools (too many students per classroom, teachers teaching in 2, 3 or 4 schools etc.) inhibiting the implementation of the nine years integrated program (Dimotiko-Gymnasium) (ibid, 17).

On 26 September 1999, Presidential Decree No 493 was signed regarding the *Years 4-6 Curriculum Programs for English*. In the same year, regarding the integration of Arabic in Arabic-speaking countries where there was a Greek-speaking community, as in Egypt, in the Arabic-Greek Lyceum, the response from the PI, in the words of Martelias, English consultant, was as follows: “...to approve the teaching of Arabic in the Lyceum in Arabic-speaking countries according to what is forecasted by the various inter-country educational agreements...” (P. no 20 in 1999; p. 6). On 30th August 1999 the *English Curriculum Program for Years 10-12* was published and signed off by the Minister for Education, Gerasimo Arseni.

In 2000, concerning the teaching of languages in public education, the impression was given that the agenda had changed. The Spanish Embassy in Athens argued for the introduction of Spanish as a second language in secondary education (P. no 4). Martelias argued: Spanish (i) is a language of a member country of the European Union and the Council of Europe; (ii) will be the first Latin origin language in our common Mediterranean cultural heritage as a counterpoise to the Anglo-Saxon culture; (iii) will open doors for postgraduate studies in Spain and Latin America; (iv) will create access in the job market in Spain and Latin America; (v) is spoken by 400 million persons; while (vi) Spain is a big and a very rapidly developing country in the European Union; and (vii) this requirement is also legalised by the bilateral agreement between the two countries (Convention of Educative and Cultural Collaboration between Greece and Spain 1999-2002, Madrid 22/12/1998); finally, (vii) it strengthened...the introduction of the Greek language into Spanish education (through the bilateral agreement) on condition that there existed corresponding initiatives from Greece. The PI unanimously endorsed the introduction of Spanish into secondary education as a second or third language based on the students' preferences (p. 7).

In October 2000, the Department of Education in Greece due to "the high cost of textbooks" asked (G2/2870/8-8-2000 Department document), "as soon as possible, the PI set up teams to write textbooks for English, French and German" (P. no 23; p. 10). Nor surprisingly, in a policy analysis stage many options were developed with Martelias, the English consultant, expressing the opinion that "by means of writing textbooks from YPEPTH, the advantages (low cost, adaptation in the Greek reality) become visible" (p. 11). Similarly, Michalas commented that "there is a problem teaching in levels; it should be enacted that Greek authors write textbooks for the different levels..." (p. 14). Finally, the PI suggested "the YPEPTH to select and to buy foreign textbooks' rights at auction" (p. 15).

6.4.3 Towards Multilingualism and Multiculturalism

Soon after, at the regional level, in P. no 24 in 2000, in the bilateral educational agreement between Greece and Albania, the following request by Albania was placed on the agenda: "in Greece, Albanian ought to be taught to Albanian children; schools, programs and textbooks to be the responsibility of the Albanian Department of Education". Perhaps surprisingly, and against the principle of reciprocity, Kaltini, the consultant for schools, said: "it constitutes an intervention into the affairs of the Greek National Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs..." (ibid, 11) – Greece follows a similar strategy for the maintenance of Greek and its promotion abroad.

Nevertheless, her concern was that "...indirectly...it raises the issue of the Albanian minority in regions where many Albanians live..." and their visaed status in Greece. At the same time, the teaching of Greek as a foreign language in secondary schools is a fact amongst the recognized Greek

minority in Albania (ibid, 11). The following excerpt uttered by Petropoulos, a consultant, regarding the issue, seems blunt, if perhaps appropriate, but at the same time, perhaps questionable for Greece. the Greek Multicultural Educational Committee has suggested the integration of foreign students in neighbourhood schools and the teaching of their mother tongue in the reception classes with additional teaching classes...both the European Union and international organisations (Council of Europe) press our country to regulate the situation of teaching immigrants their mother tongue...our country has signed the minority convention but has not authorized it, whereas many other central and Eastern European countries (including Albania) have signed and confirmed it...I estimate that in our country there are between 400,000 and 500,000 Albanians...(ibid, 12)...do not be racist...do not forget that we also sometimes were immigrants and made similar claims such as the teaching of our mother tongue and culture... (ibid, 13)

In the same praxis, following the Albanian request: "...to introduce Albanian where Albanian and Greek minorities live...", Petropoulos commented: "...the Greek minority in Albania has been acknowledged as a historical minority...but Albanians in Greece are economic migrants...". Finally, he suggested the following terms: "Greek Minority in Albania and Albanian Migrant Community in Greece" (ibid, 13).

It was anticipated, over again and backwards and forwards in the policy dance, which happened on issues placed on the agenda, introducing English from Year 3 in 2002 was approved. In the policy analysis stage, different options and objectives were developed. Again, Martelias said "under specific conditions English can be taught from Year 3 from 2002-2003..." (P. no 2 in 2000, 6). Additionally, while Michalás and Karageorgiou agreed, in contrast Karachalios commented that "...especially in Greece the conditions do not help the introduction of teaching English from Year 3..." (ibid, 8). In P. no 11 in 2000, Argiridis, another English consultant, said that "...in all the European countries the teaching of English from Year 3 is compulsory...in most of them from Year 1... (e.g. Italy)" (p. 6). Educational, economic and ideological factors structured Aggelis' opinion. He said: "...we must think about this, since students must learn foreign languages in schools and not in Foreign Languages Centres..." (ibid, 7). PI did not decide at that time for the aforementioned issue. At the European level, the *European Language Portfolio* was designed by the Council of Europe. The aim was for each person to evidence and accommodate his/her linguistic abilities and cultural experiences..." (P. no 2 in 2002).

In July 2003, (through the FEK 3003/304/13-3-2003 YPEPTH document) the introduction of English from Year 3 became compulsory across the country (P. no 4). In 2003, integrated study programs for foreign languages in Years 4-9 were published and signed off by the Minister for Education, Petro Eythymiou. In the following year, according to the 141041/G2/12-12-03 document by YPEPTH, the introduction of Turkish in parallel teaching as a foreign language in some Gymnasia across the country was discussed (P. no 2 in 2004).

In March 2005 in P. no 3 the teaching of English in the fulltime Day School was described. Furthermore, a proposal for the introduction of a second foreign language in primary education was supported (p. 6) by Dimakopoulos, a consultant, saying that “the relevant European research ‘*Eurydice*’ found the teaching of a foreign language from Year 1 and the teaching of a second from Years 3-4...” (ibid, 7). For the implementation of the above proposal, Dimakopoulos said, “there are graduates to ensure social mobility and satisfactory employment for both primary and secondary education teachers” (ibid, 13). It was anticipated the PI would suggest the approval of the above proposal in order “...to harmonise our educational system with that in other member countries of the European Union...” (ibid, 19). It decided the teaching of German or French as a second language in Years 5 and 6 (ibid, 19). A proposal for a pilot program teaching a second language in primary school was developed (P. no 28 in 2005). Dimakopoulos informed the Division:

...according to F.52/480/71029/g1/18-7-2005 Ministerial decision, French or German as a second foreign language in 210 primary schools would be taught during 2005-2007...through an international competition, textbooks will be selected...professional development for language teachers will be held in Athens, Thessalonica and Patra...internal and external evaluation will be conducted (p. 18)

In P. no 36 in 2005, a proposal for teaching English in kindergarten was approved and made in P. no 38 in 2005. Also in 2005, French or German as an optional second foreign language were introduced in Years 5-6, as well as also the teaching of Italian in Years 7-9. In 2007, Russian and Spanish were introduced into some Gymnasia.

CHAPTER SEVEN

PERSPECTIVES ON GREEK LANGUAGE PLANNING AND POLICY: VIEWS OF GREEK INFORMANTS

7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of interviews conducted in Greece. Answers were given by informants on various issues documenting the evolution of the Greek language planning and language policy development, as well as both the processes and the impact of policy upon both practice and evaluation over the past 35 years in Greece. In addition, the interview data inform, deepen and supplement the documentation findings. Moreover, the chapter shows that, while most responses are in keeping with the archival data's findings or supplement them, some raise new debates.

7.2 Major Issues Impacting the Teaching of Languages

Information was collected about major factors impacting the teaching of languages during the three relevant time periods, 1970-1980, 1980-1990 and 1990-2005. While there were no significant differences between the informants' answers, the majority identified various factors facilitating or inhibiting the development of language policies and programs. According to the English teacher in a Greek primary school, in the late 1960s and early 1970s, there was some reluctance to becoming involved politically because of the dictatorial role of the junta. She said: "It was the junta. In the period of junta, you could not speak for something more self-governing and democratic in the curriculum". The political climate changed with democracy in 1974-1975, this was "the means to amend and not to be controlled, and to find something more independent and egalitarian in the curriculum". "The English and French language textbooks' style and content" (corpus planning) were pointed out as major issues by the English professor. Thus, in the "1979 Curriculum Program for French, the aim was familiarization with French education and culture, the promotion of the humanitarian spirit and the idea of solidarity between populations..." (Government Newspaper in 1979; Part 1; p.2410).

Subsequently, the establishment of the 'demotic' language was seen by the linguistics lecturer as the factor providing a strong basis and facilitating the uptake of language practice. In her words: "I believe...it was the linguistic reform with the introduction of demotic in 1976 that helped the acquisition of a foreign language, easier". At the end of the 1970s, the introduction of new methods to teach foreign languages, and more specifically the communicative method, was seen by the English consultant as a major factor in teaching languages. She said: "In 1979, a new method, the

communication method, [was] introduced by Dendrinos of the University of Athens for English and Tokatlidoy of the University of Thessalonica for French”. So, in the *1985 Curriculum Program for English*, the aim was “to develop the ability to perceive and to produce authentic speaking and writing; to participate constructively in daily situations of communication...” (Government Newspaper in 1985; Part 1; No. 189; p. 2633)

In June 1979, Greece’s participation in the European Community/Union and the necessity and desire as a member state to follow the agenda of the European language policy, was seen by the linguistics lecturer and the English primary teacher as “a major issue” impacting upon languages. Particularly since 1988, the former said that “Greece began to support the federal integration model as well as the development of joint policy in new departments (education, health, and environment) and the development of a joint policy by the Union”. Additionally, the issue of the “...worldwide published ‘*Task Based*’ learning theory, which was the first material that also used the mother tongue as the means of teaching foreign languages”, was seen by the English professor, as “a major factor and significant intervention”. The academic pointed out that “the then first ‘*Task Based*’ book series, written in 1986-87 and forwarded to government schools for ten years”. Not surprisingly, politics had a huge effect on the planning and implementation of language programs in Greece. The professor said that “in political life, there is no continuity in applied policies, resulting in one-off events and no part of any developmental sequence; this significantly challenges the capacity to deliver effective foreign language programs”. To reinforce the above statement, she added: “governments do not set aside their work since even the same party has different statements”.

The existence or otherwise of official curricula in the public and private sectors was used by the academic as an example of successful and unsuccessful language programs respectively. She said, “while there were curricula in government schools, there was a lack in Foreign Languages Centres”. However, the quality of teaching languages in the public sector schools was seen as critical by the English teacher temporarily appointed at the PI. The establishment of the monotonic writing system of Greek in 1981 was considered by the linguistics lecturer as a major factor facilitating the learning of another language. In addition, the holistic approach theory on languages in Greece in the 1980s decade, “had consequences in teaching foreign languages” in the view of this English teacher. The growth of curricula and the teaching of languages through other key learning areas such as geography, history or music were perceived by the informant as a facilitating factor for languages.

In the 1990s, a new intervention with the addition of the ‘cross-cultural dimension’ in teaching and learning foreign languages in schools (1997), the “alteration on methodological approaches as well as the writing of the first foreign languages’ curricula for students not proficient but able to deal with their basic needs”, were perceived by the English professor as major factors. The *1997 German Curriculum Program* argued that “the German language...helps students to develop strategic learning

and methods of problems solution” (Government Newspaper in 1997; Part 1; Number 189; p. 6679). The introduction of a government (language) proficiency certificate from 2003, the adoption of the proficiency levels of the Council of Europe (common European framework for languages), the appraising in the same way of English, French, German and Italian as well as Spanish, Russian and other languages (in the near future), were perceived by the academic as major. Moreover, “the reality that the certificate is recognised in both the public and private sphere”, was seen by the academic as a plus.

However, the English teacher in a Greek primary school was of a slightly different view. She said: “students who learn English and German in the afternoon after school in the British Council and Goethe Institute, why don’t they give exams there to get the government (languages) proficiency certificate? Parents have spent a lot of money over 7-8 years; what is the benefit if they pay double the money for exams?” – this remark refers to the cost of the examinations for the government (language) proficiency certificate, which is approximately half the charge of the e.g. British Council).

Additionally, ‘legislation’ from the *European Union* and the *Council of Europe* as well as ‘collaborative efforts’ has fostered language outcomes, as pointed out by the English professor. Similarly, the French consultant pointed out, on a positive note, the precise instance of these factors, the statement resulting from EU/CE conferences of Lisbon and Bologna which stipulated that “until 2010 all citizens of member states will be supposed to know two foreign languages beyond their mother tongue”. Afterwards, while the French Associate Professor and the French consultant perceived the introduction of teaching a foreign language in primary schools from Year 3 and the introduction of teaching two languages both in dimotiko and Gymnasium as positive factors, the English teacher in a Greek primary school, perceived the introduction from Year 3 as critical. She said: “this prompted many parents to send their children to Foreign Languages Centres” (Fronstistiria). Probably the informant wanted to communicate parents’ views that students should be sent to Foreign Language Centers with the aim to meet better the learning requirements into the public school sector. Before the introduction of the teaching of English from Year 3, students were not sent to the Foreign Languages Centers to learn English, since this subject was not taught in the public sector. However, the linguistics lecturer felt enormous changes had not been made, “simply improvements”, she said. Likewise, the lack of teaching a second foreign language in the Lyceum and the decrease in the teaching time (from 3 to 2 hours per week) in secondary schools were perceived as detrimental by the French Associate Professor. Not surprisingly, new political, social and economic conditions as a result of integration in the European Union and the required core components in language programs, such as the concepts of multiculturalism and multilingualism, were seen as major further factors by the English professor.

7.3 Assessment of the Various Greek Government Policy Statements

Informants were asked to assess the various Greek government policy statements developed in relation to primary and secondary language school programs over the three time periods. While answers from some informants were not extensive, the gathered data confirms the core of the Greek government policy. In the words of the English consultant, “Greece is a small country with difficulty in resourcing; we began from a mediocre situation and improved it”. In the first two decades, “the low outcomes of language policy in Greece” was, in the view of the English professor, “due to the abundance of questions that Greece had to address in many fields in the first and second decades”. Likewise, the French Associate Professor perceived the various Greek language government policy statements as “incoherent”. She said: “our language policy is characterized by the distance between statements and efforts/actions”. She also added that “while language policy suggests the introduction of a second foreign language in secondary education and more specifically in Gymnasium, at the same time it decreases the teaching time period”. An example was given by the academic of the reality that in the Lyceum, while students can select as a compulsory subject between French, English or German, many headmasters don’t apply the law, arguing ignorance”. She added: “The application of the 2525 *Law* in 2000, was abrupt and violent, resulting – even today, 7 years onwards – there are colleagues that do not know that in the lyceum students should have the possibility of selecting as a first foreign language a language other than English”.

The existence of various curriculum programs was seen by the English teacher temporarily appointed to the PI as “providing a basis of comprehensive implementation for languages”. The “shifting of resources by governments from the public to the private sector”, was seen by the linguistics lecturer, to drive “languages towards privatisation”. She also said: “despite the big statements about multiculturalism and multilingualism, the learning of a foreign language is confided to individuals, to foreigners and to local big businessman”. The English primary teacher was critical towards the selection of a foreign language in Year 6 by students’ parents. She said: “the awareness about the second foreign language comes with a certain capriciousness. At the end of the school year within the documents for the Gymnasium the following question is placed: what language will your child select for the Gymnasium?” In the 1990s, a facilitating factor was seen by the English teacher temporarily appointed at the PI, this was the increase of the teaching time period. She said: “in the decade of the 1990s, in compulsory education, primary and Gymnasium, the increase of the teaching hours that happened in all the European countries, according to Eurostat 1997 research, helped the learning of languages in our country too; the fact that the 3 hours has been reduced to 2 per week since 2005-2006, clearly inhibits the learning of languages”.

The primary English teacher found the application of the P. D. 15/96/FEK9A/18-1-1996 aiming to ensure continuity between primary and secondary schools critical. “There is a lack of continuity between primary and secondary languages’ learning”, she said. The following two excerpts from key

official documents reveal the discontinuity. "...the...is replaced by the following six years united curriculum program from Years 4-9" (for English), (Government Newspaper in 1996; Part 1; Number 9; p. 57). Likewise, the 1999 Year 10-12 English Curriculum Program referred as "having as starting point the six-year united analytical program for the teaching of English... the new program..." (Government Newspaper in 1999; Part 2; Number 1868; p. 24163).

The teacher teaching English in the All Day Schools was critical of the following usual problems: "lack of homogeneity amongst students, problems in the didactic material, students' tiredness and large numbers of students per classroom". The findings according to research published by *Eurydice* (the European Language Program) that 90 per cent of Greeks consider that the knowledge of a foreign language is useful and 54 per cent believe that all should know two or more languages beyond their mother tongue showed to the English professor that government policy statements had facilitated the learning of languages in Greece. However, the reality that students from public and private schools also learn languages at Foreign Languages Centres was perceived by the linguistics lecturer as evidence that "students don't learn languages in public schools".

The English teacher in a Greek primary school assessing the various Greek government policy statements pointed to the negative conditions:

the late arrival of temporary (teacher) placements and appointments of assistant teachers and the payment of hourly rates to teachers (sometimes two months late); the number of students per classroom (in primary schools up to 30, in the Gymnasium up to 35 sometimes); the absence of an integrated educational policy from primary to secondary, which theoretically exists but in reality it is reversed (e.g. students learning languages in the Gymnasium to a certain level, and in the Lyceum, they are put in the same level); the absence of control and evaluation of the content and the way of teaching

7.4 The Aims of the Funding Programs

Data were collected on how realistic were the aims of the funding programs over the three time periods. Overall, the informants mentioned that without funding, languages would not have been introduced nor would they have been sustained. However, despite the fact that in general the availability of funding was commended as a strong facilitating factor in theory, in practice the level of funding was critical. So, for the first decade the linguistics lecturer said "the textbooks in schools were from editorial houses", while the English teacher in a Greek primary school commented: "the Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs did not distribute the textbooks free of charge to parents".

In the 1980s, material policy to provide finance for free textbooks for students, was seen by the English professor as a "unique reality across Europe". Characteristically, she said: "...no other European country does it...it has enormous economic advantages for the budget. In public schools,

Year 3 and Year 7-9 textbooks for English, French and German, are selected from a formal list; they are bought by the school council and are forwarded to students free of charge”. “Only in the lyceum do students buy the English textbooks” she added. Moreover, funds for “personal, scientific teams writing textbooks, and for more teachers (personnel policy) were perceived by the academic as a “very important investment”. The English teacher in a Greek primary school saw that better and newer infrastructure and the smaller number of students per classroom provided a strong basis for “good to very good” implementation of language education through the funding programs in the second decade. Other interviewees agreed.

In the 1990s, while the assessment of the funding program was seen as encouraging by the French consultant, saying that “I considered the funding programs satisfactory enough”, in contrast, however, it was seen as being in decline by the linguistics lecturer. She said: “while the situation turned better, generally the funding did not cover the needs”. Likewise, the French Associate Professor pointed out: “generally educational program funding is very low and that of language programs, even lesser”. The following excerpt also reveals a negative opinion. “Generally at the end of the second decade and at the beginning of the third, there was not the required infrastructure for languages” (linguistics lecturer).

Even the distribution of the instruction textbooks to students was seen as critical by the French Associate Professor. In her words: “if I am not deceived, the free distribution of instruction textbooks in government schools is limited”. It was anticipated that Europe’s funding programs would be seen by some informants as a facilitating factor for languages. For instance, the evaluation and the government (language) proficiency certificate program (75 per cent of funds from Europe and 25 per cent from national sources) were seen by the English professor as “substantial funding”.

Similarly, the French Associate Professor provided a positive assessment for Europe’s funding programs which also helped Greece, using a specific example. “In the last years, after 2000, the funding for equipment (PC) was derived from European funding”. However, the following excerpt from the English teacher temporarily appointed to the PI regarding lack in funding programs in government schools, reveals her strong view. She said: “In non-government schools there were materials (books, auxiliary material, CD-Roms and so on), in government schools there was not; generally the situation is disappointing”. The governmental subsidies were critically seen by the English professor. More specifically, she said: “Up to now there has been no research funding”. Comparably, the English consultant pointed out: “generally, we would say that funding is satisfactory. But if a comparison be made e.g. Finland gives 7.9 per cent% of its budget for education, Greece gives 3.4 per cent...”. Interestingly, the last but not unimportant view was that of the English consultant, “for twenty years the same textbooks have been or are still shared in schools”, and all this reflected the “lack of the funding program”.

7.5 Achievement of Different Policy Aims and Objectives

In order to assess the achievement of different policy aims and objectives, informants were asked to illustrate if and/or how they were implemented. “Student interest and learning proficiency” were seen by the English teacher in a Greek Primary school as the measures to assess the 1970s and 1980s. She said: “In the 1980s, I achieved French proficiency in a public school”. The French Associate Professor assessed the first two decades as ‘progressive’. The early learning from Year 3 was deemed a ‘positive factor’ by the English primary teacher.

Likewise, the “introduction of two foreign languages both in primary and senior high schools” was perceived as a helpful factor by this same English primary teacher, both for students and parents. She justified it as follows: “from Years 5-9, students learn a foreign language for five years...thus parents avoid sending their children to Foreign Languages Centres (Frontistiria)”. The linguistics lecturer was not of the same opinion. Reduction in teaching time in government schools was seen negatively. She said: “generally...the reduction of teaching’ hours in government schools creates additional need for students to go to the Foreign Languages Centres (Frontistiria)”. This interpretation, highly debatable to some, may yet prove to be correct. She pointed out that “perhaps the State knowing that students learn foreign languages in Foreign Languages Centres, reduced the time...by two hours per week”. Deliberately, she added: “if parents felt that students learn languages in government schools, they would not send them to the Foreign Languages Centres”. She was thus highly critical and negative about what had been achieved.

The implementation was seen positively by the French consultant. In her words: “I consider that both language planning and policy development have been applied, in the best way”. She also, to reinforce her view, as some other informants above pointed out, said that “these days Greece is one of the few countries in Europe where early language learning is provided”. “No gap between planning and implementation” was seen by this informant. In contrast, the English Primary teacher temporarily appointed to the PI supported the following view:

Theoretically, planning always is good. Those who work programs out always do their best. Implementation is an uncertain situation. It is not only to blame the state or its efforts (training-professional development). It is to blame the teachers too (there is an old attitude). Teachers have difficulty in what we call the ‘communication language approach’.

Lack of coordination in routine standardised procedures that structure decision-making, were indicated by the English teacher in a Greek primary school as well as the “appointments of teachers’ assistants and/or the late arrival of textbooks”. She went on to say that there was a gap to achieve coherence in administration. The French Associate Professor while she had labelled the previous two periods as “progressive”, perceived the third period as: “insufficient and incoherent”. She added “it does not

correspond to social and economic needs”. Similarly the linguistics lecturer pointed out that “generally I believe that we went from mediocre to relatively good”. The English teacher at the PI supported the view that “public education for languages falls short as opposed to the private sector, in regards to the teaching time period and to the conditions of teaching and learning”.

While in Foreign Languages Centers, it is not compulsory to select textbooks from the YPEPTH approved list, in private schools according to Ministerial decision 32141/G2/30-3-2005 the selected textbooks from the approved list and the complementary material must be approved by a government language consultant (F. 9/247/24690/G1/4-4-2005).

7.6 Issues Impacting on Second Language Education

This high level group of interviewees was asked how national interest and geopolitical considerations, the range and choice of languages on offer, teacher supply and retention, integration of languages and cultural studies, student interest and the role of the new technology had impacted on the implementation of language programs in the indicated time periods. Asked also if national interest and geopolitical considerations impacted on the implementation process, the overwhelming majority agreed. “It is explicit that the national interest and geopolitical considerations influenced language policy during the previous decades”, “...in the last decades Greece has taken into consideration national interest...” were the responses from the linguistics lecturer and the English consultant respectively. Likewise, “precisely of course...” was the response by the French consultant. Similarly, “important parameters...” and “...influenced and continue to influence” were used to describe the national interest and geopolitical considerations by the French and English consultants correspondingly.

In the 1990s, the decision to teach bilingual Greek-Turkish programs in Thrace was perceived by the linguistics lecturer and the French Associate Professor as an “acquisition by the national conscience of the school population in that region”. Similarly, using as examples the teaching of neighbouring languages, such as Serbian, Albanian, Italian and Turkish in the Foreign Languages Centres (Frontistiria), was viewed by the English Consultant as a new “tension”. In contrast, the English teacher in a Greek primary school set the question: “if this is the case, why don’t we learn Albanian or Rumanian?” Perhaps she did not agree with this. A very different view was expressed by the English teacher at the PI, who characterized that it was in the national interest of Greece “to adapt to the European Union”. Geopolitical considerations were perceived by the informant as “not helpful to languages”. “The tendency of English to become a lingua franca” was used as an example to support her argument. She concluded: “generally I would say that Greece designed its language planning and policy neither on national interest nor geopolitical considerations”.

Furthermore informants were asked if the range and choice of languages on offer impacted on the implementation on languages. With “Greece having a centralised system, decisions are in effect for all, including also the decision as to which languages will be taught in government schools”, the English professor pointed out. In the 1970s and 1980s, not surprisingly, “French and English were legitimated as official school knowledge to be part of the national school curriculum”, the academic pointed out. The advantage of French in the 1970s was pinpointed by the French Associate Professor. She said: “then English was in second place”. Moreover, “the selection of languages then was coming from parents”, the linguistics lecturer added. Furthermore, the exportation, creation and maintenance of French as the elite language in the 1970s was confirmed by the English primary teacher. In her words: “...French was the language of the aristocracy...”. The German language’s struggle to break the linguistic imperialism of the times shared by French and English, especially in the second period, was highlighted by her saying that “in the 1980s, there was a slight tension about German being taught to counter French and English”.

Likewise, the lingua franca status of French and English as well as the economic, political and educational advantages of the introduction of German as legitimate knowledge through education in the first two decades, were pointed out by a small group of informants. “Both French and English were lingua francas...at the end of the 1980s German was included, and not accidentally...In that period it was considered one of the most powerful languages for commercial and educational purposes” the professor said. Similarly, the linguistics lecturer and the English teacher commented that “technology was written in the German language”.

In the 1990s and afterwards, the tendency towards linguistic imperialism was great through the solid distinction between “strong”, “weak” and “powerless” languages affected language selection and their role in the school curriculum (English professor). The 1990s situation was described by the French consultant:

the foreign languages included in the national curriculum of Greece included English as a compulsory language throughout compulsory education, [primary (Dimotiko) and senior secondary (Gymnasio)], and French or German as optional second (with English as the first compulsory language) foreign languages. Lately throughout compulsory education (Gymnasio) other languages, Spanish, Turkish, Italian and Russian are also optional second languages.

The key official document *French Curriculum Program in the Lyceum*” observed:

the characterization of the Greek language as one of the less spoken/taught languages makes even more imperative the teaching/learning of foreign languages...it contributes to the social integration and future professional re-establishment of the young persons of the country...the common conviction for the peaceful

coexistence of populations, mutual understanding, [allilosebasm]...makes essential the teaching of foreign languages... (Government Newspaper in 2000; Part 2; Number 1082; p. 15478)

It was anticipated that KEME consultations would influence languages on offer. For example, Antonopoulos, a consultant, in P. no 21 in 1992, said: “the Department has supported the teaching of a second foreign language in private schools (e.g. French or German)...the day before yesterday we also approved the teaching of English as a first and French as a second foreign language, in other private schools (p. 6)”. Furthermore, the presence of Italian was seen by the linguistic lecturer as follows: “Italian, being a neighbouring language is not enough in the national curriculum and its teaching does not meet historical, social and commercial purposes between the two countries”. Additionally, “the effects of the means used for linguistic imperialism such as films, TV., music to choose Spanish as a foreign language (as a first or as a second language) was used as an example by the English teacher in a Greek primary school to suggest how “it has been conveyed to Greek students too”. Economic and political advantages for linguistic imperialism were perceived by the above informant as the teaching of English, French and German in Foreign Languages Centres (Frontistiria), “Russian for tourism and Chinese perhaps for trade...”. Of a similar view was the linguistics lecturer, arguing against the primacy of the English language for public schools. She said: “the English language must stop being the first foreign compulsory language; students must have the opportunity to choose between the three first languages, namely English, French or German”.

Additionally, teacher supply and retention opportunities were highlighted by the majority. The impact of teacher supply was both anticipated and seen as positive. Both initial teacher training and re-training across foreign languages was characterized without surprise by the French Associate Professor as “good” to “good enough” for the first two and the third decades, respectively. The academic gave an example: “key people, academics and universities in conjunction with jurisdictions have provided high quality professional development opportunities in PEK, Regional Educational Centres, SELME (annual re-training), conferences and so on”. Similarly the English teacher said that “from 1995 and afterwards a lot of professional development for English teachers has been conducted”. However, she added “there is no continuous professional development; as well as there is little support given by the English consultants”.

To the contrary, problems in ongoing teacher retention, nationally both over the long and short term, were mentioned by two other informants. The linguistics lecturer attributed it to the “lack in teachers’ retraining due to the absence of political will”. Likewise, the “shortage of re-training” was mentioned by the French Associate Professor, “the one year re-training in SELME (Government training body for secondary teachers)”. Not surprisingly, the English teacher temporarily appointed to the PI, pointed out that “any State with a centralised system firstly includes or excludes particular languages and then personnel policy follows”, adding that “immigration and repatriation needs created Greek as a second

or foreign language (GSL or GFL) programs in universities and then curriculum programs and teacher supply and retention followed...”.

In addition, informants were asked about the impact of the integration of languages and cultural studies. “Gradual changes with shifts in priorities towards analytical programs of large languages of national importance” were seen by the English professor to impact on implementation. In the 1970s and 1980s, “French and English programs implied cultural imperialism, eroding cultural identities, national sovereignty and political independence”. She added that as chairperson in an English faculty, she had introduced Australian, Irish and Canadian literature, because “large languages should not be connected only with one culture”. Likewise, she supported the government language certificate because of “a cross-cultural perception of the other, the different” such as migrants. Furthermore, specific European language programs, *Socrates* and *Comenius*, were seen by the French consultant to impact positively on the integration. “Ethical, ideological, economic and political underpinnings (e.g. multiculturalism and multilingualism) have been viewed neutrally”, the English professor added. The English PI teacher was unsure: “I don’t know. Perhaps research will show this”. Lastly, the importance of languages within the school curriculum was seen by the linguistics lecturer as “nodal and not marginal”.

In regard to student interest and the implementation of language programs, all informants enthusiastically praised students’ interest. “Yes, there is interest” responded the English primary teacher in a Greek school. Similarly, the French consultant said: “of course there is interest and it has been continuously increasing”. Likewise, the English professor said: “I believe there is interest; perhaps we have the largest in Europe”. “Student interest in particular languages, such as English and German and lately Spanish” was characterized “a not surprising reality” by the French consultant. Likewise, “parental influence on particular languages for professional opportunities or for University purposes, acquaintance with the other cultures, fighting both xenophobia and racism” were seen as essential both for language selection and student interest by the English consultant. Moreover, the English teacher in a Greek primary school said that “there is absence of reaction by students due to the fact that they learn languages in frontistiria”. Overall, Greek student interest level towards learning languages goes “from high to very high”.

Informants were then asked about the role of the new technologies. Not surprisingly, for the first and second decades, there was a “lack of technology...”, it was “non-existent...” were the responses by the French Associate Professor and the linguistics lecturer, respectively. Likewise, “not good”, “coward steps” were the responses by the English consultant. Likewise, the English professor suggested that “recently, technology has supported a large proportion of foreign language teaching. It has created new methodological approaches, specifically for communication”. The English primary teacher highlighted the challenges that students face using the new technology. She said “students have access to the instruction material, as for the delivery as well as to the variety, via effectiveness of

CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) material and exercises, the way of work, the repetition and evaluation and self-evaluation, independent learning, cooperation with others”.

For the third decade, “use of networks, better educational products, quality assurance and personal computer, but not like in other European countries, were seen as progressive” by the linguistics expert. Perhaps rightly, the linguistics lecturer highlighted that “technology provides possibilities, however technology doesn’t not bring any change itself”. She added: “student self-learning doesn’t mean absence of guidance, supervision and control”. “The cost of technology equipment is a major concern in our country”, the English consultant remarked, “it is not only the computers and the relevant logistics, but also TV, video, DVD players, video projectors, overhead projectors, equipment for teleconferencing as well as printers and scanners”. The English teacher pointed to the difficulties accessing technology in schools. She said: “insufficiency, non-existence or the non-utilization of the existent technology constitutes an important parameter in the quality of teaching and learning languages in public schools”.

European programs such as *e-Twinning*, one of the initiatives of the European Committee’s e-learning for sister school relationships, and other links were perceived by the professor as major factors facilitating language learning. Likewise, the academic perceived as major facilitating factors Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) through new CD-ROMs or software for local networks, emails (tandem learning) and discussion groups as well as videoconferencing for common projects (collaborative work). She also mentioned some specific software: “for exercises’ production (e.g. *hot potatoes*, *Quandary*) and logistics for WebPages’ production (e.g. *Dream Weaver* or *FrontPage*) for material advertisement on the web. However, “absence of specific professional developments for technology” was “a negative”.

7.7 Treatment of the Languages of the Largest Foreign and Ethnic Communities

Generally speaking, in the light of the issues already raised, informants were asked if there were any differences in the treatment of the most commonly taught foreign languages and the languages of minorities or of Greece’s neighbouring countries. Not surprisingly, informants’ responses were in strong agreement – there is a definite tendency towards linguistic imperialism, and a solid distinction between “strong”, “weak” and “powerless” languages. Probably the following comments are fairly accurate representing the overall perception: “oh well! This is not even a question”, the English professor said. “This is the problem and there is much concern in Europe” she added. Inevitably, “certainly there are differences”, the French Associate Professor pointed out. Of a similar opinion was the English teacher in a Greek primary school who asked: “does somebody learn Slovak, Rumanian, Russian or Yugoslavian (sic) if there is no specific reason?” She added, “there are differences”.

The presence of foreign languages in the school curriculum, which perhaps reflects the competition between languages in Greece, were described by the English professor thus: “English has primacy over the other languages. French was the first language and now goes last. German is second, Italian third and French fourth. And I think, when Spanish is introduced into government schools, it will be second”. Similarly, the PI teacher said: “well, in Greece I imagine as for the demand, English at least has primacy. Early in the 1990s, a shift had people learning German, but I do not know the reasons”. Similarly, the linguistics lecturer: “generally smaller languages do not have any demand and that is why they are not offered”. Economic and social reasons, not surprisingly, were seen to drive the choice of learning particular smaller languages in the region of Macedonia by the French consultant. She said that in Macedonia “German or Russian instead of French or English are chosen, because many German and Russian tourists go to Macedonia”.

Likewise, regarding immigrant languages, the linguistics lecturer commented, “it is a pity that they are not taught in the public system”. She justified her opinion as following: “their inclusion in schools will help students to be integrated better into Greek society; it shows also a respect for their cultures”. Some other informants felt the inclusion of immigrant languages in the school curriculum would result in better social integration of migrants, “the integration of migrants would be easier”. Likewise, the French consultant: “due to economic, social and political reasons, wanting or not, they will be included in the school curriculum in the near future”. The export of Greek as a foreign language in the Balkans was seen by the English consultant as highlighting the “importance of the involvement of politics”. In his words: “political flexibility is needed”.

7.8 Language Policy Statements and Influence of Curriculum Development

Interviews also sought to discover if and to what extent language policy statements influenced curriculum planning and policy development, as well as to determine any interrelationship with and impact on school practice. The English professor indicated that “in Greece, having a central government system, the law says which languages must be taught across the country, serving national interest on languages; in the first decade until the mid-1980s curriculum programs for French, English and German did not reflect language policy”. She said that “curriculum programs through the institutional authorised textbooks reflected norms, attitudes and pedagogical discourses relevant to the target culture, which constitutes the social context of the language being taught or how these patterns are called into use by particular social institutions”. The academic added that “in Greece, in 1983, the first English and French curriculum programs were written with the communication approach”. “The first *Task Textbook* series were written, published and forwarded to government schools from 1986-1987 for ten years based on the communication approach”. She concluded that the period constituted the first time in Greece for “intra-national ideological factors to be considered seriously during the

decision-making process and consequently, language policy statements came to influence curriculum development”.

The English primary teacher highlighted the presence of politics and how language policy statements influenced curriculum development. The following example was given by the informant. “During the second decade with the election of a Labor government, the Pan-Hellenic Socialist Movement (PASOK), politics prompted a reformation on languages and imposed the teaching of English from Year 3 in 1987”. The rise of common European language statements (*Common European Framework for Languages*, Council of Europe) in the third decade was seen by the French consultant, “to inevitably influence curriculum development”. The French Associate Professor said that “Notwithstanding, theoretically language policy statements influence language policy development; however, in Greece this happens very little; qualified and innovated teachers are able to change curricula philosophy”. Close correspondence between the teaching of foreign languages and teaching Greek as mother tongue can be seen from the following excerpt from the 2000 *Years 7-9 German Curriculum Program*: “...the curriculum program describes the core, style and aims...corresponding to the teaching of Greek as mother tongue...” (Government Newspaper in 2003; Part 2; p. 4085). The significance of multilingualism and multiculturalism as fundamental axes of cognitive and social components of students learning foreign languages were incorporated in the 2003 *Year 4-9 Integrated Curriculum Program for Languages* (p. 4085).

7.9 Importance of Greek as a Second or Foreign Language in the Past and Present

A question sought to ascertain how important Greek as a second language (GSL) or as foreign language (GFL) has been in the past to the Greek curriculum and how important now. Not surprisingly, evidence was found by a small group to support the view that while Greek as second or foreign language was not taught within the country in the first two decades, in contrast, since 1990, both were progressing. Some experts supporting the above views said as follows: “...they were not taught...” (English professor), “...politically, there was negligence and lack of willingness to teach Greek as a second or foreign language...”, (French Associate Professor) and “today economic immigrants learn Greek” (English teacher in a Greek primary school).

Since the 1990s till the mid-2000s, the fact of “immigration and repatriation needs” to include the teaching of Greek as second or foreign language in the school curriculum to “address the problem” was seen by the linguistics lecturer to reflect their importance. Even if, perhaps, this view is incorrect, the English professor used as an example the operation of the Greek Language Centre in Thessalonica, pinpointing its importance in the third decade. “This created a need, and a lot of universities create programs teaching Greek as a second or foreign language both internally and abroad”. Likewise, the “provision of curriculum, as well as material and a testimonial proficiency test”, were used as

examples by the academic to reinforce her view. Similarly, the English consultant referred to eminent academics in the GSL/GFL fields to highlight their importance: “I can report of the following programs: Fragkoudaki and Papa in Athens, Damanaki in Crete and Nikolaou in Giannena”. Alike, the French Associate Professor said: “There was/is negligence and a politically destructive confrontation in organising teaching Greek as a second or foreign language. Essential steps come afterwards in 1990 (e.g the Centre of the Greek Language and the Didaskaleio for minority languages in the University of Athens)”.

Moreover, Greek community pressure from abroad for personnel and materials from the “Greek national centre” and the creation of a variety of university programs in Greece and abroad was viewed as ‘innovative’ by the English consultant. Short- and long-term teachers’ re-training in Greece and abroad was seen as evidence for their importance by the English professor. Likewise, their inclusion in Foreign Languages Centres (Frontistiria) was seen by the English teacher in a Greek primary school to reflect their importance. Politically, according to the English consultant, support for the Greek language and its extension in school curricula abroad was important. He said, “Greece wants ambassadors abroad”.

7.10 Teaching Greek as a Second Language and Immigrant Minority Languages

The high level group was asked how useful and successful were Greek as a second language (GSL) programs for ethnic minority students in both government and private schools. The English teacher temporarily appointed to the PI similarly said: “How can I speak of criteria for success since there does not exist a government proficiency certificate?” Perhaps displeased by the question, the informant continued: “I do not know what to say to you e.g. whether immigrant students learn Greek because the school helps them or because of the fact that they live in Greece and they hear Greek”. The informant, honestly expressing her lack of awareness about any research outcomes, said: “I do not know if there are the results of any studies relevant to the topic”. The French Associate Professor said that success is a result of many factors (teacher, students, methods and ways of work, means and equipment, exposure to the language...).

7.11 Comparison between Greece and Other European Countries

One way of contextualizing the provision of language planning and policy is to compare Greece with other European countries. Informants were thus asked to do so. While comparability may be problematic, the conclusion perhaps is clear. Comparing Greece to other European countries, Greece is at “a good to very good level in terms of providing incentives for students to learn a foreign language”. The English professor, as a member of many delegations to Europe, said: “Greece is at a good, even too good, level”. Likewise, the English primary teacher said: “Greece is at a very good

level”. The French consultant was unconditionally very supportive. She said: “of course, Greece is at a very good level; Greece has developed too much. There are significant incentives in learning languages”.

Similarly, for specific languages, the English teacher and the French consultant correspondingly, concluded: “concerning English, I believe that we are better than other European countries” and “in Greece, methodologically, French teachers are more knowledgeable, compared to their counterparts in France”. Additionally, the higher student ratios learning languages in Greece” was seen by the above academic, as reflecting the “good level of learning languages in Greece”. Moreover, the English professor specified “good practice in regards to formal qualifications, in a certificate degree” and she put Greece at a “good level” compared to other European countries. The same, “language teachers’ first training and re-training,” was viewed as at a “good level” by the academic. She also pointed out that the fact that “new university language departments were opened, not accidentally (Italian and Spanish faculties in the University of Athens); it reflects Greece’s good level”. Perhaps to reinforce her view, she also said: “there is a need for a Turkish Department to be established”. Similarly, Greece’s participation in 2002 at the Strasburg Languages Policy Council for Europe where national representatives occupied second place in terms of research, was characterised by the English consultant as follows, “we do well”. Furthermore, the rapid inclusion of new foreign languages (Chinese, Russian) into Foreign Languages Centres was seen by the English professor as evidence of “Greece’s good level response to socio-educational needs”. She also said: “I would also like migrants’ languages in government schools”.

However, in regards to language policy management, the linguistic lecturer saw Greece to be behind, and thus probably expressing a general weakness. Moreover, due to the exclusion of “migrants’ languages (Chinese, Albanian, and Rumanian) from curriculum programs in schools”, Greece was seen “to be behind”. Openly, she said: “I would not be favourable. I think Greece is behind”. Nevertheless, she added: “however, because there is enough demand to learn languages, I believe this will help us to go in front”. The French Associate Professor said: “of course, it would be supposed we know well the reality in other European countries...in regards to France that I know best, I would say that Greece has a small language budget and follows an incoherent language policy”. Lastly, and strongly positively, the English Professor pointed out: “I believe that even if in some issues we are behind, certainly we are not outclassed”.

7.12 Lessons from Language Policy and Practice as Implemented in Greece

Informants were asked to provide lessons learned from language policy and practice as implemented in Greece. While it was difficult from the informants’ perspectives to develop an accurate picture as a whole, some of their responses were as follows. The French Associate Professor said: “...funding is

needed because governments have sought to restrict their budgets through the economic rationalist philosophy which has been applied". Likewise, the English PI teacher pointed out that "more organised management and leadership is needed". Perhaps, the lesson was seen by the English professor: Greece's efforts were to be adopted in the wider European schemes. She said: "I would dare to say that in all three decades Greece made steps to include itself in the wider political forums e.g. the EEC. Greece was engaged in fund-raising and marketing exercises to ensure the viability of many language programs". A lesson was seen by the academic, who felt Greece's language policies had kept pace with Europe. "England, following the application of integrated programs, tends again to focus on distinguishable cognitive key learning areas, perhaps Greece will too".

Another lesson also seen by the academic was that "while curriculum programs were written, administratively they were not applied in schools because there was not the infrastructure". She was critical about Greek language planning and policy. She said: "I would say, Greece follows general forms but when others get rid of a program, we adopt it". Moreover, the weaknesses of language program implementation were seen as a lesson by the linguistics expert. "We are one decade behind. I would say also that the intention does not ever touch the government; the absence of suitable material and technical infrastructure...". Likewise, a lesson for the English consultant was personnel's attitude. He said: "I would say that teachers' attitude is very important! If the state will strengthen us financially in conjunction with technology support, we will go well". He also pointed out as another lesson, "linguistic and cultural diversity is already in Greece and there is no need to promote it. There is a need to promote civic pluralism so that social subjects are able to arbitrate differences than make efforts to wipe them out".

Similarly, the English teacher pointed to the lesson of why students don't learn languages in public schools. She said, "there is not enough teaching time per week (she referred to the previously mentioned weekly 3 hours being reduced to 2 hours for Year 8-Year 12 in 2005), large numbers of students per classroom, lack of homogeneity into students' knowledge per classroom, and no appropriate language laboratories in most schools". The collaborative efforts between institutions to shape key documents for languages were perceived by the English professor as a lesson.

7.13 Challenges for the Future Teaching of Languages in Greece

Informants were asked to look both backwards and forwards to indicate the issues to impact on the teaching of languages in Greece in the near future. Interviewers mentioned several challenges. Many are similar to those remarked upon in previous questions. The English professor referred to the following: political (promotion of the European conscience, the awareness of the united European space and the activation of citizens within this); economic (supporting the transactions within the various countries); and social (facilitating the approach of the European citizens). This academic added, "the challenge for language education will be to train future citizens to function as multilingual

social subjects in the polymorphous Greek society”. Similar, challenges were pointed out by the English teacher in a Greek primary school. These will be: political (with whom we want to come near), economic (economic immigrants) and social (intercultural marriages).

Likewise, political, social, economic and multicultural issues were seen by the French Associate Professor as impacting on the future teaching of languages. “There will be an individual need for multiculturalism and multilingualism to guarantee language and cultural diversity; people will sell better when they speak the customer’s language; people accept the diversity easier, when they speak the language of the other”. She also added: “researchers in scientific and inquiring fields will be supposed to produce new information that would serve the objective for a knowledge society and it resolves problems in many fields, internationally, nationally, locally”. In the near future the philosophy of the *Common European Framework for Languages* will impact the teaching of languages, the French consultant pointed out. She added:

the free access to technology, the multilingualism and multiculturalism of the European societies; globalisation, market competition within and outside of Europe; and the enlargement of geographic limits of employment; globalisation which multiplies the categories of professions that need foreign languages, creating needs for new materials in line with specifications of objectives, cost and content.

Likewise, the French Associate Professor pointed out that “the tendencies and the objectives of pedagogy will affect the social needs and pressures, the ability of technology, the quantity and quality of information, and the politics at personal, national, European and international level”. The major issue to impact on the teaching of languages in the near future was seen by the English consultant as the utilisation of technology and the quality of teaching. He said: “access in learning foreign languages from excluding persons due to economic, geographic, social reasons, as well as the utilisation of the internet, self-learning methods and evaluation tests; criteria and methods of evaluation for teachers, students, materials and programs”. He also pointed out that “the availability of cheap, powerful multimedia will allow teachers to translate educational materials into a local language more easily and educational technologies will be essential to the survival and prosperity of languages in the future”.

7.14 Successes and Failures in the Last Thirty-Five Years

Informants were asked to raise any significant successes and/or failures in the last 35 years. The following quotations present their major responses in terms of factors that appear to be successes. An early start from Year 3 was seen as “success” by the English teacher in a Greek primary school. Similarly, the introduction of a second foreign language across the years of compulsory education was seen as “a big success” by both the French consultant and the French Associate Professor. “High quality professional learning opportunities” were remarked upon as “important successes” by the English professor. Furthermore, “an essential success” was seen by the academic as the “enactment of

the government (language) proficiency certificate from 2003". The linguistic lecturer added that this in "some way removes from Foreign Institutions (British Council, French Institute) the privilege of proficiency certification". She added that the government (language) proficiency certificate strengthens the public government institution. Probably the informant highlighted the equivalent status and prestige of the Greek certificate with the certificate given by the foreign institutions such as the British Council and the Goethe Institute in Greece.

Common European curriculum programs were seen by the English consultant as "important successes to motivate and guide students' learning". He reported as successes "well-articulated curriculum programs, materials policy, multimedia writing new textbooks and evaluation policy, teachers' enthusiasm and state funding mainly for multimedia, as well as curriculum programs". Additionally, a major success was seen by the informant in the "first Greek-English textbooks written in 1986-1987 and distributed free of charge to students across the country".

The linguistics lecturer saw the non-teaching of migrant languages in the government schools as failures. Furthermore, "the fact that many parents send their students to foreign languages' centres (Frontistiria) and the absence of suitable materials and technical infrastructure", were perceived by the linguistic lecturer as failures. Likewise, "large statements and no action and lack of legislation to meet their aims and objectives" was the comment made by the English teacher temporarily appointed to the PI. A similar opinion was voiced by the English consultant, who focused on the "lack of sufficient funding support". Failure was perceived by the English professor in that "at least two decades passed (1983-2003) for the government (language) proficiency certificate".

CHAPTER EIGHT

COMPARING AND CONTRASTING LANGUAGE PLANNING AND LANGUAGE POLICY IN AUSTRALIA AND GREECE (1970-2005)

8.1 Introduction

This chapter compares and contrasts language planning and policy development in the case of Australia and Greece, based on the contents of the previous chapters as well as presenting some key supplementary, but important, data. Australia and Greece are sovereign polities. While Australia is a federal and independent state since 1901, Greece, as a member of the EU since 1981, is part of a commonwealth of federated states moving towards greater union. Australia is not entangled in similar processes though it is moving closer to Asia in deference to its geography. This fundamental difference as well as the status of their official/national languages affects the processes of policy making and policy implementation in both countries. English, the official language of Australia, is an international language, whereas Greek, the national language of Greece, is not widely spoken in Europe, except on Cyprus and then in some parts of its diaspora.

The two broad factors, 'globalisation' and the 'one nation-one language' ideology, constitute grounds for comparison between Australia and Greece. As such, the chapter outlines key similarities as well as differences between the two countries within their educational, socio-political and economic contexts at global, regional, national and local levels in the evolution of language planning and policy processes over the past 35 years.

8.2 The Evolution of Language Planning in Australia and Greece

Since the 1970s, language education in both countries, as documented in chapters Four-Seven, was impacted by several large-scale complex and interwoven factors and no overarching unidirectional patterns. Overall, the Australian and Greek language landscapes have been significantly challenged, demanding linguistic planning responses and adjustments because of: (a) greater transnational movements and patterns resulting in ethnic, religious and linguistic diversity with the intake of migrants and refugees; (b) the complex realities of the global economy as the primary driver of globalisation; (c) the paradoxical rise of multilingualism combined with the internationalisation of English; (d) the rapid spread of the new technologies as well as the mass production of communication

software; (e) fluctuations in orientation, ideologies/processes and teaching methodologies; (f) the apparent weakening of the nation-state and of nationalism as a viable political ideology; and (g) large-scale socio-political developments, regionalization and localization, especially the strengthening and the expansion of the EU for Greece and, for Australia, greater trade interests with Asian regional partners, especially China.

8.2.1 The Evolution of Language Planning in Victoria

How Australia and Greece have dealt with these changes and challenges gives further insights into a significant question which underlies previous chapters. What conclusions can we draw from various key measures to assess the success, or otherwise, of the various language planning and program initiatives since the mid-1970s? Fundamental to any examination of language planning is the collection of data documenting the linguistic diversity of a particular polity, region or community and second language education statistics. As such, the languages on offer in second language learning programs in Australia and Greece constitute comparative and contrastive measures for understanding language planning. As a starting point, the LOTE Year 12 enrolments every five years from 1970-2005 in the state of Victoria are presented in Table 8.1. At the beginning of our set timeframe, Victoria was the most multicultural state in Australia whereas in 2006 it ranked second to New South Wales (NSW).

As Table 8.1 indicates, in the early 1970s, Victoria's language offering maintained the British public school tradition (ideology) of "an educated person". Knowledge of traditional 'large world' foreign languages such as French, and to a lesser extent German, as well as Latin (as classical language) were at the core of the school curriculum when the proportion of those in the late teen cohort studying Year 12 was comparatively low. Australia had, and continues to have, French as its 2nd educational language for literacy and diplomatic reasons. Latin, taught in the large number of Catholic schools and some elite Protestant schools, was in rapid decline after the 1964 Vatican decision to change the language of the Mass from Latin to the vernacular. Classical Greek was little studied. However, in the 1970s Victoria started to change from a strong English monolingualism and assimilation of new migrants towards offering a small number of community languages (Dutch, Hebrew, Italian and Russian) and Asian trade languages (Chinese, Japanese and Indonesian). The data in chapter Four and Six revealed that political/ideological changes at the federal level (the election of the first Labour government in 1972 in 23 years) along with joint Greek/Italian community activism at a state level, triggered sweeping changes, including language reforms. By 1975 due to the diversification in the immigrant intake, six community languages (Czech, Greek, Latvian, Lithuanian, Serbo-Croatian and Ukrainian) had been added. By 1980, there were an additional three (Hungarian, Polish and Turkish).

Table 8.1: Number of LOTE Year 12 Enrolments in Victoria, 1970-2005 (in numbers):

Languages Other Than English (LOTE)	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	2005
Albanian	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	16
Arabic	—	—	—	—	—	149	152	149
Armenian	—	—	—	—	—	—	5	9
Auslan (Australian Sign Language)	—	—	—	—	—	5	31	91
Australian Indigenous/ Victorian Indigenous Languages	—	—	—	—	—	1	N S	3
Bengali	—	—	—	—	—	1	6	5
Chinese/ Chinese First Language (CFL)	21	83	131	298	798	697 (CFL)	996 (CFL)	1578 (CFL)
Chinese Second Language	—	—	—	—	—	318	457	704
Chinese Second Language Advanced	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	351
Croatian	—	38SC	69SC	86	125	99	118	77
Czech	—	15	4	3	3	5	4	5
Dutch	84	49	28	12	6	10	11	12
Farsi/Persian	—	—	—	—	—	34	50	41
Filipino	—	—	—	—	—	—	8	21
French	2815	1593	1163	1022	1002	1027	1297	1561
German	581	499	466	404	472	605	774	798
Greek (Ancient/Classical)	—	5	7	6	5	8	7	5
Greek (Modern)	17	238	522	1198	880	885	558	390
Hebrew	113	123	114	88	147	88	127	112
Hindi	—	—	—	—	—	11	16	12
Hungarian	—	—	14	21	15	16	18	16
Indonesian/Indonesian First Language (IFL)	43	176	390	434	467	493	258 (IFL)	115 (IFL)
Indonesian Second Language	—	—	—	—	—	—	722	855
Italian	279	478	640	748	750	841	741	782
Japanese/ Japanese First Language (JFL)	15	61	83	150	323	531	1220	86 (JFL)
Japanese Second Language	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1240
Khmer	—	—	—	—	—	12	50	22
Korean/Korean First Language (KFL)	—	—	—	—	—	33	70	57 (KFL)
Korean Second Language	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	55

Latin	227	122	76	93	67	69	133	171
Latvian	—	16	9	13	6	5	N S	5
Lithuanian	—	19	8	4	5	4	3	5
Macedonian	—	—	—	—	—	150	127	92
Maltese	—	—	—	—	—	9	8	15
Polish	—	—	22	33	65	86	70	83
Portuguese	—	—	—	—	—	40	25	31
Punjabi	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	23
Romanian	—	—	—	—	—	—	9	10
Russian	67	55	32	48	52	77	108	83
Serbian	—	38 SC	69 SC	41 SC	48 SC	52	113	66
Sinhala	—	—	—	—	—	8	6	25
Slovenian	—	—	—	—	—	4	3	4
Spanish	24	45	62	135	174	184	158	130
Swedish	—	—	—	—	—	8	6	9
Tamil	—	—	—	—	—	—	13	14
Turkish	—	—	33	67	99	219	233	264
Ukrainian	—	37	21	12	17	18	10	12
Vietnamese	—	—	—	—	343	593	348	368
Total No of Students	4284	3652	3894	4916	5821	7395	9072	10578
Total No of Languages	12	18	21	22	23	38	42	48

Note: NS=offered but no students;

—: Not offered; SC: Serbo-Croatian.

Source: VCAA (Victorian and Curriculum Assessment Authority, 2007)

In the 1970s, Serbo-Croatian as a community language (later divided into Croatian and Serbian) was introduced. By 1990, due to the impact of the second generation, Croatian was in high demand, and then fell away as the third generation of Croatian-Australians was less interested in maintaining the language. Likewise, the demand for Dutch early on was strong but the Dutch followed an accommodationist, perhaps assimilationist, trend which led to less demand throughout the 1970s. The Turkish from Turkey (the Turkish Cypriots had arrived mainly in the 1950s) had begun arriving in 1967. By 1980, their language was on offer and in the 1990s, its teaching was impacted by the establishment of full-time Turkish Gulen schools (four in Victoria) such as Isik School in Coolaroo (Keceli and Cahill 1998).

Towards the end of the 1980s, Victoria's language education landscape has expanded. In the period of 1985-1990, 23 languages were offered at Year 12 in Victoria, partly from the outcomes of the Victoria's *Ethnic Affairs Policies* (1983). More important was the *National Policy on Languages* formulation in 1987, summarized on four goals: 'enrichment', 'economic', 'equality' and 'external' [languages of strategic and diplomatic importance (trade/geography)] particularly with the Asian region, and community importance (migration, second generation students and renewed migration).

By 1990, Vietnamese, an Asian community language, had been introduced. The strategic interest of Australia in the Asian region was realized by the 1994 NALSAS strategy focusing on four priority Asian languages: Chinese, Japanese, Indonesian and Korean. This clearly affected Victoria's language programming. Between 1990 and 1995, Arabic, Bengali, Chinese as a second language, Hindi, Persian, Khmer, Korean, Macedonian, Maltese, Portuguese, Sinhala, Slovenian and Swedish were offered followed by Albanian, Armenian, Filipino, Indonesian as a second language, Romanian and Tamil, as community languages by 2000. The division of LOTE Year 12 enrolments for Chinese, Indonesian, Japanese and Korean into first language and second language cohorts were progressively introduced because Australian and other students learning perceived difficult for the Australians could not successfully compete with their first language classmates – this was affecting their Year 12 overall scores which, in turn, impacted negatively on the university courses for which they could gain entry. This division had a very positive effect upon Year 12 LOTE enrolments. By 2005, Japanese and Korean as a second language along with Punjabi, were on the languages menu. Towards 2005, as the numbers of LOTE Year 12 students reveal, the Asian/community languages of Chinese, Japanese and Indonesian along with French, German and Italian were clearly the focus of language planning and programming in Victoria.

Overall, 48 languages were offered in 2005. Table 8.1 reveals that Victoria's language programming at the pre-university level was in a constant state of flux and expansion through a complex network of socio-political and immigrant community factors. Two points are noteworthy. Firstly, community languages, which are neither world nor regional languages, such as Dutch, Modern Greek, Lithuanian, Ukrainian and Vietnamese, peak about 20-30 years after the arrival of the particular language group. They then decline, unless the particular language group is renewed by a later wave (e.g. Hebrew, Polish, Russian, Serbian and Spanish) or the group establishes its own full-time schools (Turkish, though not Greek). Secondly, no language program has ceased though some have had no students in particular years. Let us now examine the Greek situation.

8.2.2 The Evolution of Language Planning in Greece

The data in chapters Five and Seven suggest that similar large-scale issues, not always readily observable, were embedded in foreign language planning in Greece. Unlike in Australia, the term ‘foreign language’ has been retained. As in Victoria, these factors have always been regulated by their respective Ministries of Education and as governance institutions, they are directly controlled by the polity. Decisions were not forced upon Greece or Victoria; rather it was Greece and Victoria that have chosen to promote and offer specific languages. The main difference with Victoria is that the migration factor has not been a major driver in Greek schools (see below). Some scholars in Greece argue that foreign language education contributes to the construction of a reality-promoting linguistic imperialism (Dendrinos 2001, 2004; Christidis 2004; Sapiridou 2004). Thus, the question that immediately can be raised is: How was language planning shaped in Greece? Inherent questions also are: ‘what’ or ‘whose’ language knowledge was to be learned in schools? ‘Who’ selects this language and ‘why’ (Apple 1993)? The case of German exemplifies the responses to such questions in the shaping of language planning. German occupies a specific place in the EU – Germany borders nine states with a comparatively high potential for conflict between countries and within institutions.

Early in the 1970s, the economic generative function of German technology advances was embraced with its introduction into Greek public schools (Frangkoudaki 1992). The first Greek regulatory/legislative ministerial response came in 1979 with the publication of the German school curriculum program for the Lyceum concerning morpho-syntactical/morpho-phonological structures (corpus planning). In 1980, concerns were expressed by the Goethe Institute, as the institutional voice, on the minimum qualifications of teachers teaching German in private schools, ‘Frontistiria’ (P. no 2), perhaps to ensure German prestige. Following on, its next regulatory/legislative response for Year 10 students (curriculum program/corpus planning) came in 1980. ‘Materials policy’ for German and the marketing for the seeming economic advantage of German or Greek institutions can be perceived by the comments of the two consultants: “...to investigate the market and to approve...” Markoulakou (P. no 42 in 1982, 2), or to support the preservation of the Greek economic advantage, Eyaggelou said: “...the Greek-German series, *Contact*, is the only Greek series...it brings exchange to the country...”, (P. no 50 in 1982, 3). These concerns were neither neutral nor stripped of their ideological underpinnings of economic power driving language planning in Greece. Similarly, German materials constituted the social context of the language being taught, a context that was not value-free, neither in content nor in structure.

In 1985, once again, a ministerial response took the form of a curriculum program for the Gymnasium and the Lyceum. In 1986, to increase its prestige, the introduction of German into primary schools and in more secondary schools in education was placed on the agenda by the Faculty of German of the University of Athens (P. no 10). Apparently, this was to ensure German’s more legitimate inclusion into the public schools as well as providing satisfactory employment for its students. “Students who

for any reason want to learn German...this must be facilitated by the school...” was Markoulakou’s view, probably expressing social rights and administration responsibility. Not surprisingly, the response given by Mpasias was “...Law 1566 in 1985 doesn’t support the introduction of a third language...” (P. 10 in 1986, 6) and this reflected Greek ministerial responses for language planning.

Soon after, in 1986, the above issue was placed on the agenda by the Greek Teachers’ Association in Westphalia, Germany, an external player. Based on the Markoulakou wording “learning German for scientific, commercial and diplomatic reasons...” (P. no 66 in 1986, 6), the Pedagogical Institute (P. I) decided that German be introduced “...in Polykladika, Epaggelmatika and Texnika Lyceums...more suitable for the repatriated students...” (p. 7). Obviously, the above claims – the inclusion of German in more secondary schools and its introduction into primary schools – reveal, on the one hand, the national interest in widely spoken languages, and, on the other, German’s internationalisation as a language entailing economic, political and ideological advantages.

The linguistic power of German, as perceived by the Germans can be perhaps more understood by a recommendation made by the Permanent German Joint Standing Committee of Education on February 1997. (a) A German language adviser (from Germany) be appointed to the Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religion Affairs; (political, prestige); (b) teachers of German be appointed replacing retiring French teachers (linguistic influence/personnel policy/economic factor); (c) the German adviser make schools aware of the introduction of German; (d) the administrative problems in the Goethe Institute be solved; and (e) recognition of the German faculty of Thessalonica (P. no 7; p. 26-27). Perhaps, the following recommendations made by the PI, reveal Greece’s strategy in that (a) as soon as possible, Greek-German advisers be nominated...this would pre-empt the demand by Germany to appoint a German language adviser; (b) teachers of German to replace the retiring French teachers – these two were considered extreme recommendations (belonging to the Greek planning business), according to Martelias, the English consultant (p. 29).

In 1997, another ministerial response was signed off for the Years 10-12 curriculum program. The teaching of Greek as mother tongue, 8 hours per week, in German schools teaching Greek (P. no 7 in 1997, 28) reveals the impact of Greek in other countries. In 1998, the teaching of German as a compulsory second language was requested by seven teachers associations and unions. In 2000, due to “the high cost of textbooks...as soon as possible” the PI was asked to “set up teams to write textbooks for German” (P. no 23 in 2000, 10). All the aforementioned, as well as their variability and interconnection, constitute German’s planning trends in Greece. All the above as well as the extract from the archival Greek data below (see Figure 8.1) indicate many of the factors shaping language planning in Greece (status, corpus and acquisition).

Figure 8.1: Examples of Internal and External Factors Shaping Language Planning in Greece (1980-2005)

1980	The Teaching of Italian as an Optional Language in Gymnasia
1986	The Introduction of German in Primary and Secondary Education
1994	The Teaching of the German in Gymnasia
1994	The Request from the Greek-French Faculty of Saint Paul for the Maintenance of French as a First Language in the Schools of the Catholic Church
1994	The Request for the Introduction of the Italian in Education (Aristotelian University of Thessalonica, Teachers' Unions)
1994	The Decision on the Introduction of Italian in Year 7-9
1994	The Directives for Teaching English in Year 4 in Primary Education
1995	Program from the European Union for Language Assistants
1995	Curriculum Program for French in Gymnasia
1995	A Protest by the French Teachers' Association of Southern Greece
1995	The Request by the Turkish Embassy in Athens for Turkish Textbooks' Approval for the Minority Schools in Thrace
1996	Foreign Languages' Tuition Centres (Frontistiria)
1996	Bilingual Schools in Europe (Document 1432/28.2.960)
1999	The Integration of Arabic in the Subjects of General Education in the United Lyceum
2000	The Introduction of the Teaching of Spanish
2000	Observations on the Education Program's Formulating Between Greece and Albania
2001	Remaining Issues: a) Approval of the Program for Italian
2001	Remaining Issues: a) Modification of the Presidential Decree for the Examination in Foreign Languages
2002	Presentation of the Greek Portfolio on Languages
2002	Reform of Committees for Selecting Optional Textbooks in the Gymnasium and the Lyceum 2003-2004
2003	Pilot Introduction of Italian in Some Gymnasia of the County
2003	Remaining Issues: a) Pilot Application of Italian in the Gymnasium 2004-2005
2004	Evaluation of the Year 9 Writing Model for German in the Gymnasium
2005	Introduction of a Second Foreign Language in Primary Education
2005	Answer to Greek Editors Union for Foreign Textbooks
2005	Teaching English in Kindergarten

In 2005, Greek language planning in order to harmonise with the EU language planning and policy (P. no 2 in 2002) reflected the new constitutional amendment published by the European Commission (2003), (Final Plan 2004-2006), suggesting the following principles for multilingualism with the necessary measures and multiculturalism at the primary school level, including the following measures.

1. In the primary school curriculum, three languages are to be introduced for all children:
 - (a) The standard language of the particular nation state as a major school subject and the major language of communication for the teaching of other school subjects;
 - (b) English as lingua franca for international communication
 - (c) An additional third language selected 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. The regular primary school reports will contain information on the children's proficiency in each of these languages.
4. National work programmes are to be established for the priority languages referred to under (1) in order to develop curricula, teaching methods and teacher training programmes.
5. Some of these priority languages may be taught at specialized language schools.

Thus the core measures were: (i) the number of taught languages is mandated at 'three'; (ii) instead of the concepts 'official' or 'national', the term 'standard' or 'major communication' language' was used (a); (iii) English was nominated as 'the lingua franca for international communication' (b); (iv) the additional third language was to be selected from a list of priority languages (c). However, while the first measure facilitates multilingualism and multiculturalism, probably, some inherent, even (hidden) conflicts would almost be inevitable through policy processes toward practice, such as the choice of languages on offer. Likewise the remaining measures were intended to clarify and implement the core aim (1 a. b. c.) in the education domain (primary school) (2), evaluation/assessment (3), corpus planning (4), and regionalization (5). Greece, as a member of the EU, has included additional languages in its school curricula; expecting students to study and hopefully learn at least two non-Greek languages (see below). The respect for cultural and linguistic differences in individual members' countries is obvious from the special wording in the plan, not surprisingly, to establish economic and political alliances as well as cultural cohesion.

From all the above, the first conclusion is that while the factors impacting on the evolution of language planning in Victoria and Greece were similar, the timing and the variety of responses were different. It seems particularly important to understand policy processes were pervasively bonded to Australian and Greek educational, socio-political and economic contexts at national, regional and global levels.

8.3 Language Policy Processes in Australia and Greece

Language policy processes and their formulations, as extensively documented in Chapters Four and Six, confirm that Australia is very often cited in the international literature such as Fishman (1991, 1994) and Tollefson (1994, 2002) as an excellent example of a country that has energetically pursued language policy-making. Moreover, the number and frequency of language policy statements issued by the Australian Commonwealth and state governments, as listed in Appendixes Nine and Ten, reveals that Australia's approach to network governance in language planning and policy has been significant. Likewise, the official Greek archives (Appendix 11) and published documents (as documented in Chapters Six and Seven) reveals that Greece's approach to network governance in language planning and policy has been outstanding. What follows are further insights of the processes through the extensive language policies developed. As Chapters Four and Six have showed at most times, if not all, 'identifying issues' e.g. "...the changes of migrants are being met as effectively as possible..." (Review of Post-arrival Programs and Services for Migrants in 1978, 2) or "...the

teaching of Greek as a second language for immigrant children and repatriated... in 1996...” were placed on the agenda for action.

Fundamental to any examination in both countries was that many institutions and government bodies had access to data, documenting their country’s linguistic diversity. However, demographic and linguistic data collection differs between Australia and Greece. In Australia, since 1976, the national census has documented Australia’s linguistic diversity whereas in Greece, information was difficult to obtain up to 2001, although information on population figures in EU member states can be obtained from the statistical Office of the EU in Luxembourg (EuroStat) (Boyd 2007). Moreover, linguistic profile data is not yet a reality. One reason is that nationality and/or country of birth as the criteria became less valid due to the increasing trend of births within Greece. In many, if not all, of the key documents, the process of ‘consultation’ (discussion papers in Australia and large/small scale questionnaires in Greece as documented in Chapters Four and Six) was also in parallel with the number and frequency of language policy statements that Australian and Greek governments have issued. Likewise, ‘coordination’ between agencies sharing interest, mechanisms (such as to bring together related agencies and work towards agreement on a common policy strategy), policy instruments (law, money) through advocacy as well as the ability to promote cooperation rather than competition among the different agencies, was alike.

Across the three decades of the focus of this thesis, parts of the language process were ‘decisions’ followed by, sometimes, legislation. One aspect of legislative development in both countries was government-to-government international educational agreements. Across the decades, 17 international educational agreements were signed between Victoria and other countries [Greece (1979, 1987); Spain (1991, 1992); Indonesia (1993); China (1995); Thailand (1995, 2002); Lebanon (2000); Cyprus (2000); Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (2001); Japan Foundation (2002); Vietnam (2003); Laos (2003); and the United Arab Emirates (2004) (Appendix 12). It is noteworthy that no country with a ‘large foreign’ language (e.g. French and German) is included. It is likely that the Victorian Government’s International Division did not identify ‘large foreign’ language government- to-government international educational agreements, to avoid any comparison with international educational agreements with governments of small countries. The evolution of languages on offer in Victoria (Table 8.1) perhaps reflects the above list. For instance, the first agreement between Victoria and Greece was signed in 1987 when Greek had the highest number of LOTE Year 12 enrolments across the state.

Not surprisingly, the rationale for these agreements was different since each had come to serve the formalization of already decided developments, which supported the interests of political power and authority. For instance, Victoria in the Spanish agreement (1988) emphasized “...the recognition of the growing importance of Spanish...with special significance to Australia...” (ibid, 1); in the

Indonesian version (1992) the geopolitical factor was "...our neighbouring countries..." (ibid, 1); in the Chinese (1995) "...the strengthening of cooperation..." (ibid, 2) and in the Cypriot, Lebanese and Greek versions (2000) "...the importance of mutual linguistic and cultural understanding...". Part of the processes was the legal status of the agreements or memoranda of understanding to vary according to laws existing in the respective countries e.g. "...Australian Treaty Series 1991 No 17, article 12..." (ibid, 3), or the binding force of the two signatory governments to one another e.g. "either parties...half a year's notice...to terminate/extend...through negotiation..." (Chinese 1995, 2) or "...may be modified or extended by either party by giving six months' written notice to the other party..." (United Arab Emirates 2004, 2).

Network governance concerning primary issues for implementation by members of communities themselves or by their representatives was anticipated. Each agreement also had been bounded by socio-political and educational practices of control. The Lebanese Ministerial Joint Standing Committee (2000), for example, had the objectives of: (1). Promoting and expanding Arabic in Victoria and English in Lebanon (status planning); (2). Promoting sister or twin programs; (3). Facilitating exchange programs and scholarships for teachers and students (personnel/community policy); (4). Promoting quality of language and cultural teaching (corpus planning); (5). Exchanging information in curriculum development, and assessment processes (curriculum/evaluation policy); (6). Supporting the professional development of teachers (personnel policy); (7). Exchanging information on Arabic language teaching, ESL and multicultural education (curriculum/material/evaluation policy); and (8). Cooperating on visitation programs (community policy) (p. 3).

Another example regarding network governance and its processes, on the one hand, was that of Greece reinforcing how its diaspora was subject to its traditional role as the national decision-making centre. On the other, in the receiving country, in the case of Victoria, two contradictory views emerged within the Greek community on the homeland's intervention. The first is that the Greek community in Victoria itself, because of its internal divisions, seemed unable to address its own problems and needed direction. It is interesting that many first-generation leaders and school stakeholders expected the Greek state to organize the Greek community's educational affairs (Arvanitis 2000). For them, the homeland's intervention was natural. However, many did not accept this, arguing that the community was capable, and responsible of organizing itself. The second-generation stakeholders, in particular, maintained that the Greek government had a minimal role to play as the immigrants view themselves as fully integrated into the Australian community (Arvanitis 2000).

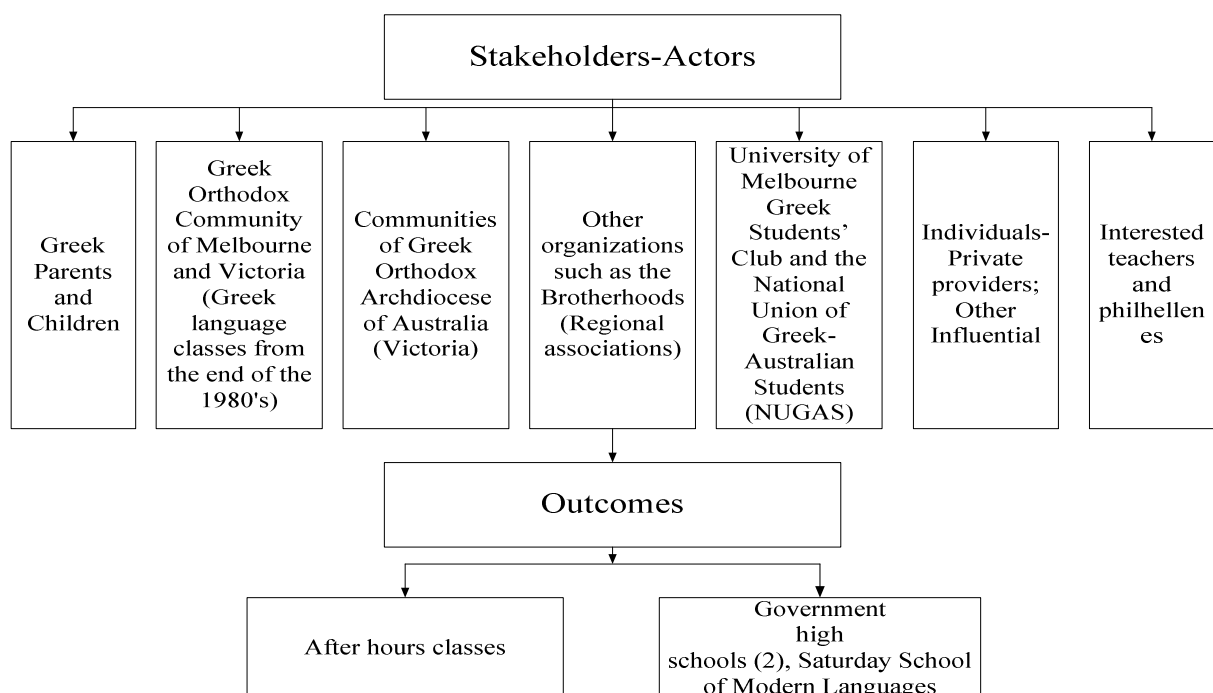
Through these agreements the issues addressed are connected to the implementation of language planning, which is not to be viewed as apolitical. The interconnectedness of socio-political, economic and educational processes perhaps can be perceived by the membership of the Spanish Ministerial Joint Standing Committee as previously outlined. Dissimilar economic contexts reveal Victoria's

different behaviour towards countries, which is critical. For example, “...Victoria shall provide a tax free salary of \$25,000 per annum to the Chinese Adviser...” (1995), or “...the salary will be met by the Hellenic Republic for the Greek Adviser...” (1994), or “...responsibility of the Japan Foundation includes payment of the Japanese Adviser... (1994)”. The content of the rationale was similar and the agreement details between the Greek and the Hungarian governments (P. no 27 in 1989, 2), as with the Yugoslav (P. no 44 in 1989, 9), Italian (P. no 2 in 1994, 2) and Egyptian (P. no 3 in 1994, 18) agreements: “...to promote the teaching of Greek and the Greek culture”.

Similarity, this can be seen in the implementation of language processes in Australia and Greece by way of three main activities: (a) legislative or the making of laws; (b) executive or the administration and enforcement of the law, and the management of the resources of government; and (c) judicial, the application and interpretation of the law to particular cases. Not surprisingly, a major difference between the two countries is the different agencies as well as their web of interrelationships (network governance within governments, departments, institutions and so on) sharing ‘implementation’ roles as documented in Chapters Four - Seven. Moreover, during the first two decades, very little evidence was found of both countries systematically and objectively evaluating themselves as educational agencies responding to a perceived understanding of education. But both countries’ evaluations were extensive, especially in the third decade as part of policy development processes.

A comparison of how Australia and Greece dealt with the challenges of language policy processes gives further insights into their complexities.

Figure 8.2: Stakeholders/Actors/Outcomes of Greek (pre-1970-1970s periods)



The Australian Commonwealth, Victorian and Greek governments were stakeholders-actors and their respective ministers (education, immigration) were 'key players' within a context of network governance. The governance of the Greek language, especially in the 1970s, as well as during its transition to subsequent periods for first, second and subsequent generations' identities, were the responsibility of the Greek community organizations, the church and individuals as well as the different Victorian governments (as stakeholders-actors) (see Figure 8.2).

In both countries, institutional voices have regulated and/or guided language processes. Academics as players producing relevant research have also fed into the planning process. Likewise, the value of 'organizational processes and structures' and their networks e.g. Ministries of Education or Goethe Institute or Japan Foundation, as well as the leverage of 'political opportunism' and 'policy entrepreneurship' were also apparent. The gathered evidence also suggests differences between attitudes, views and perceptions of bureaucratic and public perceptions in developing objectives and options in both countries. This was anticipated as Dalton et al. have noted: "...in a shadow of the formal process, there is often a series of phone calls, lunches, breakfasts, media leaks, meetings of both a regular and irregular kind" (1996, 107).

In both countries, policy development processes were sometimes revisited. In other words, over the years, there were steps backwards as well as steps forwards. In some instances, it resulted in some policy development processes overtaking recommendations e.g. at a federal level, while some other(s) have been in preparation e.g. at a state level. Likewise, analyses based on 'strengths', 'weaknesses', 'opportunities' and 'threats' (SWOT analysis) were apparent in both countries as Wickert (2001) has noted: "...the capacity to read the politics of the differing, competing and contradictory disciplinary and discursive positions...somehow dilutes the required focus of attention on the desired goal..." (p. 91). Most times, 'forms' and 'functions' broke up policy processes into clear steps managing the complexities and developing best policy in a systematic and rigorous manner. Not surprisingly, 'status', 'corpus' and 'acquisition' planning reveal both 'backward' and 'forward' steps through the years due to, as examples, lobbying and media attention.

It seems that policy directions were formed in a less timely manner in Australia and the state of Victoria in comparison to Greece (see Appendixes 9, 10 and 11 respectively). Sometimes, policy processes in both countries left the 'forms' and 'functions' only in place and therefore sometimes causing the implementation process to lose momentum. Likewise, major proposed policy changes would have had a chance of being better implemented if, at some stages, different processes had been addressed.

Recognising the complexity and multiplicity of the processes facilitating policy development in both countries enables a safe conclusion to be drawn, illustrating that whilst network governance and public policy processes are similar, the difference lies not only in the content but also in the timing.

8.4 The Impact of Language Planning and Policy Processes upon Practice

By developing awareness as to what and how, as well as by whom, when and why language planning has been implemented, it is important to consider the impact of basic concepts upon the whole public policy process. Certain central notions such as the concepts of ‘language’ and ‘ethnicity’, ‘one nation-one language’, ‘identity’ and ‘authority’ and ‘language(s) as a component of nationalism’ were major components of the formation and consolidation of the polities of Australia and Greece (Christidis 1999; Stefanidis 2001). However, sometimes, the role of language in nationalism is located in the historical conditions of nation creation (Blommaert 1996). The forces of the ‘nation state’ and ‘nationalism’ (Billing 1995; May 2001; Oakes 2001; Hegelund 2002) in both countries were awakening further as viable political ideologies to an extent were drivers of practice. Essential tools, as well as drivers for educational policies were the notions of ‘nationality’ and ‘statehood’, ‘ethnicity’ and ‘nationalism’. Obviously, the evidence collected in Chapters One - Seven suggests that of the two language policies, the Australian one seems more complex due to its huge and complex linguistic diversity across the decades usually labelled ‘multiculturalism’. In contrast, the Greek demographic profile has changed rapidly only since the mid-1990s.

Similarly, while the sociolinguistic perspectives regarding Aboriginal and immigrant communities has partially driven language education practice in Australia since the 1970s, in contrast, in Greece the languages of the different ethnic groups such as second generation immigrant students, mainly Albanian, have no place in the education domain. Applying Fishman’s (1972) principles in the Greek context, namely, ‘authenticity’ (Greek language), ‘efficiency’ (strategic foreign languages: English, French, German), ‘unification’ (no concern about community languages), Greece is distinctive in its national unity. Another focus in both countries are the various and different educational perspectives as well as pedagogical approaches for linguistic and cultural diversity. Nonetheless, as mentioned above, in both countries, the aim was to guarantee within the nation state the dominance of the first language of the dominant majority.

The aim has always been, and still is, to implement policy and practice to meet language planning objectives through policy processes to improve schools’ responses to the changing scenarios. The data from Chapters Four and Six revealed a troubled language landscape in Victoria. Its very different legislative and administrative processes nested within the socio-political, economic and educational context prevailing within the state, perhaps becomes more apparent in the listing of the ten top languages of LOTE Year 12 enrolments from 1970-2005 (Table 8.2). The many changes in language

planning and policies had a direct impact on the languages on offer and consequently chosen by the students.

Table 8.2: LOTE Year 12 Enrolments in the Top Ten Languages in Victoria (every five years from 1970-2005).

Source: Victorian Curriculum and Assessment Authority (VCAA), (2007).

A/A	1970 N=4284	%	1975 N=3652	%	1980 N=3894	%	1985 N=4916	%	1990 N=5821	%	1995 N=7395	%	2000 N=9072	%	2005 N=10578	%
1	French	66.1	French	43.6	French	29.8	Greek	24.4	French	17.3	French	13.6	Chinese	16.0	Chinese	24.8
2	German	13.5	German	13.7	Italian	16.4	French	20.7	Greek	15.2	Chinese	13.5	French	14.2	French	14.2
3	Italian	6.6	Italian	13.0	Greek	13.4	Italian	15.3	Chinese	13.7	Greek	11.6	Japanese	13.1	Japanese	11.5
4	Latin	5.3	Greek	6.7	German	11.9	Indonesian	8.8	Italian	12.8	Italian	11.3	Indonesian	10.1	Indonesian	9.1
5	Hebrew	2.6	Indonesian	4.9	Indonesian	10.1	German	8.3	German	8.2	German	8.1	German	8.2	German	7.5
6	Dutch	2.0	Hebrew	3.3	Chinese	3.4	Chinese	6.1	Indonesian	8.1	Vietnamese	8.0	Italian	8.1	Italian	7.3
7	Russian	1.5	Latin	3.2	Hebrew	2.9	Japanese	3.1	Vietnamese	5.8	Japanese	7.1	Greek	6.1	Greek	3.6
8	Indonesian	0.9	Chinese	2.3	Japanese	2.2	Spanish	2.7	Japanese	5.6	Indonesian	6.4	Vietnamese	3.4	Vietnamese	3.4
9	Chinese	0.5	Japanese	1.6	Latin	1.9	Latin	1.8	Spanish	2.9	Turkish	2.6	Spanish	1.4	Turkish	2.3
10	Spanish	0.4	Russian	1.6	Serbian	1.7	Hebrew	1.7	Hebrew	2.5	Spanish	2.1	Albanian	1.3	Latin	1.6
11	Others	0.6	Others	6.1	Others	6.3	Others	7.1	Others	7.9	Others	15.7	Others	18.1	Others	18.3
	Total	100		100		100		100		100		100		100		100

The table indicates that French has consistently had the highest number of enrolments with the first exception in 1985 being Modern Greek (24.4 per cent), and the second in 2000 when Chinese (16.0 per cent) began exceeding French (14.2 per cent). Comparably, from 1970-1980, enrolments in French were significantly higher compared to the other second top language. In other words, French was 66.1 per cent compared to German 13.5 per cent in 1970, 43.6 per cent compared to German 13.7 per cent in 1975, and 29.8 per cent compared to Italian 16.4 per cent in 1980. Worth mentioning from 1985 is that Modern Greek, a community language, had the most students, compared to French, a traditional 'large' world 'foreign' language. This happened because the number of second-generation Greek-Australians peaked in schools. However, here a question arises: In the mid-1980s, given the Italian community was significantly larger than the Greek, why were there more Greek Year 12 enrolments than Italian?

The response is neither single nor simple. The answer lies in the very strong historically-based commitment to their language by Greeks, firstly in Greece and then in the diaspora. During the Ottoman period when Greek was being suppressed, the Greeks, aided by the influence of the Church, had to fight for the retention of their language. As well, Greeks have been passionate about their language, including the contest between *katharevousa* and *demotic* Greek. As a consequence, upon migration, the Greeks established part-time Greek schools everywhere they went to ensure its maintenance. Italian was different, for the Italians have not had the same commitment to their standard language. The Italian sociolinguistic context is characterized by standard Italian which was accepted as the national language during the formation of the Italian nation state in the 1850s and 1860s together with the many so-called Italian dialects which are, in fact, separate though highly related languages. Each Italian immigrant to Australia often spoke his or own dialect language as well as perhaps a regional form of Italian and then standard Italian. Italian homes in Australia have been described as a "minestrone of languages" (Cahill 1986).

From the table it can also be seen that in 1985-2005, the difference in enrolments between the two top languages was not substantial, with the exception in 2005, where Chinese almost doubled (24.8 per cent) in comparison to French (14.2 per cent), certainly revealing the increased status of Chinese within Australia as well as the arrival of the immigrant Chinese during the 1990s. This increase was spread, though to a lesser extent, across the other Asian languages (see below). Furthermore, the number of LOTE Year 12 enrolees studying Asian languages has increased since 1994, not surprisingly, due to the introduction of the NALSAS program towards Asian languages of commercial importance to Australia, as well as through Asian migration. In 1996 the rise of Hansonism, "a racist ideology of Australia's socio-political context has often seemed underpinned by the shibboleths of the 1950s and by a 'fortress Australia' approach that recalled images of the White Australia policy" (Cahill 2002, 59) weakened the commitment to the multicultural agenda but it seems not to have weakened the study of second language in schools. Howard's liberal government closed down key

institutions such as the Office of Multicultural Affairs and the Bureau of Immigration, Multicultural and Population Research (BIMPR), which according to Cahill were “capable of exploring these issues and defusing the real dangers behind Hansonism” (2002, 62).

The results show that while the popularity in Japanese increased from 7.1 per cent in 1995 to 13.1 per cent in 2000, there is a slight decline to 11.5 per cent in 2005 in proportional terms though a slight rise in actual numbers from 1220 (1st and 2nd language speakers together) to 1326 (86 1st language speakers and 1240 2nd language speakers). Obviously, Chinese has significantly increased from 13.5 per cent in 1995 to 16.0 per cent in 2000 and to 24.8 per cent in 2005. In particular, Chinese remained the most popular in 2000 and by far the most popular language in 2005, doubling the Japanese proportion (11.5 per cent).

A major shift is in French, which declined from 66.1 per cent of the total number of students in 1970 to 14.2 per cent in 2005. Similarly, it is clear that Greek was studied by relatively fewer students in later years than previously, from 24.4 per cent (1198 students) in 1985 to 3.6 per cent (390 students) in 2005. Moreover, the relative percentage of Indonesian has increased more recently from 0.9 per cent in 1970 to 9.1 per cent in 2005. Worth mentioning is that from the mid-1980s to 2005, the Australian language landscape has seen a shift dominated by European languages to one in which Asian languages have gradually prevailed. What follows is the use of total Year 12 and LOTE Year 12 enrolments in Victoria, from 1980-2005, as a measure to gain comparative views of language education practice (see Table 8.3).

Table 8.3: Total Year 12 and LOTE Year 12 Enrolments in Victoria (from 1980-2005):

Year	Total Year 12 Enrolments	%	Total LOTE Year 12 Enrolments	%
1980	25,455	100	3,982	15.6
1995	49,964	100	7,395	14.8
2000	50,077	100	9,072	18.1
2005	54,285	100	10,578	19.1

Table 8.3 indicates that the total number of Year 12 enrolments has increased more than two-fold from 1980 (25,455) to 2005 (54,285). Moreover, the total number of LOTE Year 12 enrolments had also a minor, but significant, increase from 1980 (15.6 per cent) to 2005 (19.1 per cent), respectively. However, the total percentage of Year 12 enrolments across the years mirrors Victoria’s negative perception of the benefits of learning another language. As documented, in Chapter Five, the high-level informants, when asked to assess the importance of LOTE in the Victorian curriculum, stated overwhelmingly that LOTE is unimportant because of the universality of English.

Considering the above, it seems particularly important to comparatively measure responses across the states to identify differences and an overall trend towards teaching and learning languages in Australia. Table 8.4 presents the percentage of language enrolments in government schools per State and Territory across Australia, in the school years of 2001 and 2005. The table shows half (50.9 per cent) of all students studying a language in 2001 and slightly less (47.5 per cent) in 2005. Notwithstanding this, the overall decline in participation (from 50.9 per cent in 2001 to 47.5 per cent in 2005) is small.

Table 8.4: Languages Enrolments across the States in 2001 and 2005 (in percentage):

States and Territories	Language Enrolments % (2001)	Language Enrolments % (2005)
Australian Capital Territory	56.7	50.5
New South Wales	27.6	23.0
Northern Territory	33.6	37.5
Queensland	29.7	25.9
South Australia	67.2	65.5
Victoria	75.1	71.5
Western Australia	60.3	58.2
TOTAL	50.9	47.5

Source: (for 2001 figures) Review of Studies of Asian in Australian Schools 2002; for 2005 figures, Commonwealth Department of Education Australia 2005.

Comparisons across states, despite the fact that the above differences were anticipated since Australia has a Federal/State system, show that Victoria and South Australia have constantly had the highest participation rates, 71.5 per cent and 65.5 per cent respectively in 2005. Victoria exclusively had the largest proportion of language learners, 75.1 per cent and 71.5 per cent in 2000 and 2005 correspondingly. Furthermore, while the data shows that participation rates have fallen – and in most of the cases the drop is small in every State and Territory except the Northern Territory – it is clear that the overall interest of teaching and learning languages in the recent years has significantly declined. The situation of language learning in New South Wales is less encouraging than in the other states. Moreover, and if a comparison be made within the above two tables (8.3 and 8.4), the outcome is clear: both within states and Australia, the interest of teaching and learning languages has fallen in the last years. The Review of the Commonwealth LOTE Programme (2002) indicates some of the reasons why the interest.....has fallen:

“According to principals, the geographic and demographic profile of many Australian primary schools significantly challenges their capacity to deliver effective, ongoing second language programmes. If LOTE is to remain available to all primary students, then it needs to be fully resourced, ensuring quality for all schools, without impacting on the overall curriculum. Otherwise the pressures of an overcrowded curriculum, thinning of resources, access to quality specialists and intermittent programmes will continue to erode the value of primary school LOTE programmes” (p. xiv-xv).

Looking more closely at the selection of specific languages within Australia, it is obvious from the table below their roles facilitate certain types of ‘communication’ and create certain types of ‘community’. Table 8.5 indicates the number and range of Asian community languages. Predominantly the Japanese language had the highest number of enrolments, namely 21 per cent in 1995, 22 per cent in 2000 and 20 per cent in 2005. The Chinese language, while in 1995 in fourth position (10 per cent) and in third position with 12 per cent in 2000, was in 2005 in first position (20 per cent) along with Japanese. French in 1995 and 2000 was in second position with 18 per cent and 17 per cent respectively, with 17 per cent in 2005 in third position, validating Australia’s view towards its diplomatic and strategic importance.

So, not surprisingly, the highest percentage of language learners (20 per cent) was in Japanese/Chinese, reflecting the rise in the popularity of these two languages with commercial importance to Australia. The shift from multilingualism to a narrower focus was also seen by some Australian informants (Cahill 1996, 2002) due to the increasing importance of ESL and (English) literacy since 1991, rather than the complementarity of English and LOTE. Foreign languages with commercial promise since 1994 have attracted substantial policy support and consistently rated the greatest attention in policy (Chapters Four and Six), and the number of students studying an Asian language has increased, in contrast in community languages where the number continues to be lower.

Table 8.5: Top Ten Year 12 LOTEs in Australia (1995-2005):

A/A	1995	%	2000	%	2005	%
1	Japanese	21	Japanese	22	Japanese	20
2	French	18	French	17	Chinese	20
3	German	11	Chinese	12	French	17
4	Chinese	10	German	11	German	10
5	Italian	9	Indonesian	9	Italian	8
6	Indonesian	6	Italian	8	Indonesian	7
7	Greek	6	Greek	4	Greek	3
8	Vietnamese	5	Vietnamese	3	Spanish	3
9	Spanish	3	Spanish	3	Arabic	2
10	Arabic	2	Arabic	2	Vietnamese	2
11	Other	9	Other	11	Other	10
Total		100		100		100

Note: All figures have been rounded towards totals and the sums of component parts, taking the totals equal to 100 per cent.

Source: Department of Education and Training Australia (2005).

Overall as Table 8.5 reveals, both the proportion of students taking languages is less and the range of community languages offered, both European and Asian, is narrower. This sense of the local and the time boundedness is similar and further reinforced in the next section which discusses Greece, using a similar measure for comparison and contrast with Australia. Tables 8.6 and 8.7 present data of Year 7-12 languages' offer and choice in government and non-government secondary schools in Greece from 2004-2007 (data lacking prior to 2004). However, one can argue that in Greece, given that the teaching and learning of languages is compulsory as documented in the previous chapters, the findings can safely be generated across primary education as well as across the decades and to the nation as a whole.

Table 8.6: Number of Year 7-12 Students Taking Languages in Public Secondary Schools in Greece 2004-2007:

N/S= Number of students

Languages	2004-2005 N=936,806 100%	2005-2006 N=960,354 100%	2006-2007 N=953,166 100%
English	602,745 64.3%	592,594 61.7%	591,690 62.0%
French	217,276 23.1%	212,329 22.1%	202,949 21.2%
German	116,785 12.4%	125,250 13.0%	134,677 14.1%
No Language	28,426 3.0%	30181 3.1%	23,850 2.5%
One Language	311,062 33.2%	298,029 31.0%	286,514 30.0%
Two Languages	312,872 33.3%	316,072 32.9%	321,101 33.6%

Source: Greek Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs (2007)

Table 8.6 shows that in 2004-2005, 64.3 per cent of students were learning English in government schools (with small declines or increases in subsequent years), with 23.1 per cent and 12.4 per cent of students learning French and German respectively. Moreover, the overall percentage of students studying none, one or two languages, is 3.0 per cent, 33.2 per cent and 33.3 per cent, respectively. The smallish percentage of students studying no language, as documented in Chapters Five and Seven, is due to either a lack of availability of a special teacher (less likely) or the demographic profile of the school, and/or

(most likely) schools' isolation in rural and/or island areas. The question that perhaps naturally comes to mind, and has been documented in documents and interviews due to the extent of the greater global transnational movements is: How well does Greece respond to the linguistic aspirations of all its citizens these days? Again, the response is neither single nor simple. This question has also been of considerable concern to scholars in Greece interested in the role of immigrant languages in the curriculum (Dendrinou 2004; Christidis 2004; Sapiridou 2004). The above table (Table 8.6) shows that the linguistic diversity which currently characterizes the Greek population is not reflected in its language offerings.

Similarly, Table 8.7 for non-government secondary schools indicates 58.3 per cent of students learning English, as compared to 26 per cent and 15.3 per cent for French and German respectively. The overall percentage of students studying none, one or two languages are 1.7 per cent, 30.5 per cent and 34.7 per cent respectively. The smallish percentage of students studying no language in private schools is critical.

Table 8.7: Number and Percentage of Year 7-12 Students Learning Languages in Private Secondary Schools in Greece 2004-2007:

Languages	2004-2005 N=59,036 100%	2005-2006 N=60,893 100%	2006-2007 N=58,664 100%
English	34,422 58.3%	34,974 57.4%	32,711 55.7%
French	15,545 26.3%	15,863 26.0%	15,892 25.1%
German	9,069 15.3%	9,179 15.0%	9,287 15.8%
No Language	1,044 1.7%	877 1.4%	774 1.3%
One Language	18,020 30.5%	17,510 28.7%	15,163 25.8%
Two Languages	20,508 34.7%	21,253 34.9%	20,809 35.4%

Source: Greek Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs (2007)

No significant differences between languages neither across the years nor across languages can be seen in either table. Greek language planning aligns with the status assigned to these languages at both European and national level. There is definitely a hierarchical principle governing the treatment of languages. In the Greek national school curriculum, in decisions regarding languages, for the first time in 1996, the term ‘civilisation’ was replaced by the term ‘intercultural’ by Presidential Decree (P. D.) 370 in 1996 (p. 4152) and English has been defined as ‘lingua franca’ by the P. D. 15 in 1996 (p. 57). In 2000, a reference from another key document makes reference to the following: “...moreover due to the classification of Greek as one of the less spoken and taught languages, the teaching and learning of foreign languages is more imperative” (Decision number G2/2896 in 2000, p. 15477). In 2003, the concepts of ‘multilingualism’ and ‘multiculturalism’ as well as ‘harmonization’ were included in the school curricula regarding additional languages (FEK 304 in 2003, p. 4085). However, as the tables above indicate, the Greek version of multilingualism and multiculturalism balances harmonization and preservation of language diversity only towards specific languages. Despite the rhetoric about harmonization in Greek government documents as well as in the European Union’s documents for immigrant minority languages, they have no status in the education domain. Genuine linguistic pluralism has not yet replaced linguistic uniformity in Greece.

While the above mirror language policy and practice in Greece through the decades in its specific diasporic context, in Victoria many policy formulations were focusing on second and third-generations of Australian-Greeks; their hyphenated identities were pursuing language maintenance in consideration of remembering their heritage. So, across the decades, some measures of Greek language practice in Victoria were the number of community, parish and private after-hours classes (‘Greek schools’ or ‘Sunday schools’ or ‘Religious education classes’, later ‘ethnic schools’) and Greek language programs in inner suburban high schools, (Richmond Girls High School and Fitzroy High school), (GOCMV Community News, Feb. 1982) and at the government School of Modern Languages. The first available measures for Greek in Victoria indicate that by 1986 the Victorian School of Languages (VSL) had 2,257 students studying Modern Greek, falling to 1,778 in 1987, but it still retained the highest enrolment of any language taught at the school at the time *Languages Action Plan*, (LAP), 1989. In 1986, the continuous presence of a high level of candidature, 1168 compared to French 1090 at the Victorian Certificate of Education may have influenced the selection of Modern Greek in the eight Priority or Key languages for *Victoria for the National Languages Policy* (NLP) in 1987. The number of secondary schools offering Modern Greek had increased from 32 in 1984 to 43 in 1987. Table 8.8 shows the six highest LOTEs in Victorian High Schools in 1987 based on the number of students as a measure. Greek had the fourth position in the state.

Table 8.8: Greek in Victorian Government High Schools (1987 and 2007):

N/S = Number of Students

LOTE in Victorian High Schools	N/S 1987	N/S 2007
French	26,406	20,352
German	13,603	13,820
Italian	13,311	21,873
Greek	4,462	766
Indonesian	3,715	20,151
Japanese	1,385	18,862

Source: LOTE survey, May 1987, in *Languages Action Plan, 1997-2007*, Department of Education Victoria.

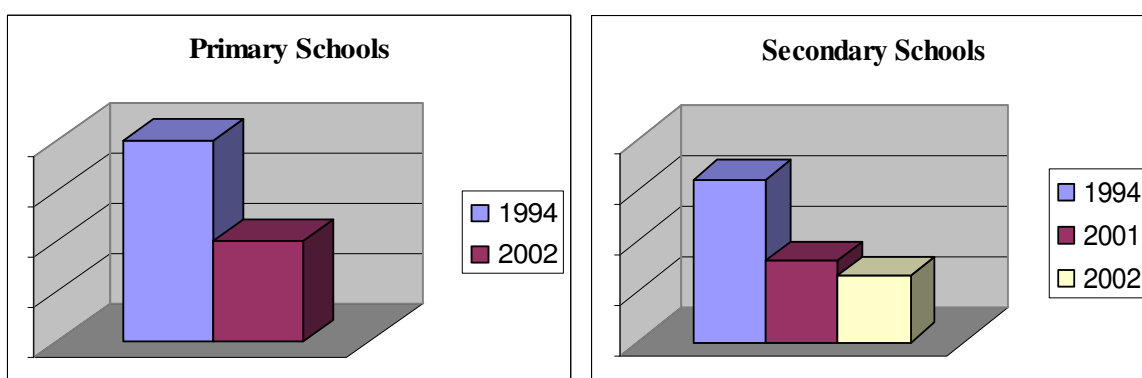
Dominant institutional voices (assimilationist, emergent, inclusive and pragmatism), (Winter and Pauwels 2007) across the decades, characterising Victoria's linguistic diversity and Greece's willingness for its language's maintenance and language education formulated responses in various features. Some measures were the following: In the 1980s, three more (after the initial one began in 1979) Greek full-time schools were established in Melbourne (Evangelistria College in 1982, St Anargiri in 1983 and St Basilis in 1986 (Hudson 1991). Enrolments in Greek ethnic schools were 12,207 out of 37,660 of the total ethnic schools enrolments in 1981 (32% of total ethnic schools) and 12,516 out of 88,263 in 1986 (14% of total ethnic schools) (Arvanitis 2000). As mentioned above, in 1987 a Ministerial Joint Standing Committee on Education between Greece and Victoria (as a policy domain) was established and in 1990, a Greek language adviser was appointed to the Department of Education and Training Victoria.

The 1991, the *Australian Language and Literacy Policy* (ALLP) designated fourteen priority languages, among them Modern Greek, with states to nominate eight of these priority languages for Commonwealth funds (policy instrument) to be made available on a per capita basis. As Cahill (1996) has stated this could depend on the number of Year 12 students enrolled in a priority language, among them Modern Greek. The 1993 state *LOTE Strategy Plan* placed emphasis on LOTE teaching supported on the eight key languages for Victoria, namely, Chinese, French, German, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, Modern Greek and Vietnamese whilst other languages were mentioned for special support within the Victorian School of Languages and the "ethnic schools" sector (LOTE Strategy Plan 1993). The 1994 report on *Asian Languages and Australia's Economic Future* broke with the previous pattern of language issues, community languages being rated as a subordinate category (Djite 1994; Cahill 1996, 2002).

In this period, Modern Greek programs as well as other community languages diminished in schools partly from a combination of school amalgamations and partly because of the Government's Quality Provision policy, the broader *Literacy and Numeracy Program*. According to Cahill (2002) "within the

context of overall cuts in school expenditure...motivated by an economic rationalist philosophy...to cut government spending as much as possible...by the attack on the so-called multicultural industry led mainly by economists within Canberra bureaucratic circles...” (p. 60). The changes in the Greek profile and the perception among school communities that particular languages improve career prospects appear to have diminished the number of Modern Greek programs in schools, and particularly in secondary schools. The number of students studying Greek in Victorian Government Schools decreased over the years from 4,054 in 1994 to 2,822 in 2002 (see Figure 8.3).

Figure 8.3: Victorian Government Primary and Secondary Schools Teaching Modern Greek.



Source: LOTE in Government Schools (Department of Education, Victoria, annual documents 1994, 2001, 2002).

At the Victorian School of Languages (VSL), the number of students studying Greek has constantly decreased over the years from 2,257 in 1986 to 935 in 1997. Student numbers studying Modern Greek via distance education has remained stable though relatively small (55 students in 1996, 63 students in 2001). Modern Greek, however, still had a significant number of students presenting at VCE level and continued to do so until 1992 (1009 students) when a steady decline those taking Greek began. In 2000, 563 students presented at the VCE. In the post-1991 phase, Greek ethnic schools are no longer solely community or church-run agencies as they were in the 1970s. These schools have been increasingly privatized (Arvanitis 2000; Tripolitakis 2004) and Greek student numbers increased from 1991 to 1996 and then to 2001. However, their actual overall proportion was declining as other immigrant communities initiated their own schools. Figure 8.4 indicates Greek ethnic schools’ numerical growth in Victoria during the 1990s, Department of Education Victoria (1991-2001). Figure 8.5 shows the number of undergraduate student enrolments for Modern Greek at Victorian universities. A total of 70 full time students out of 199 (both full and part time) were attending Greek language courses at all Victorian universities in 2001. Numbers have declined since 1997 (Ministerial Joint Standing Committee 2001).

Figure 8.4: Greek Ethnic Schools Enrolments in the post 1991 Phase

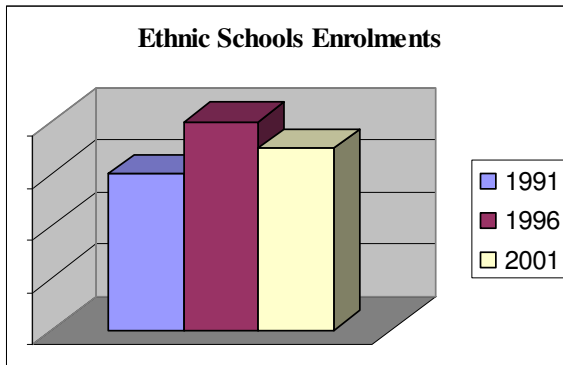
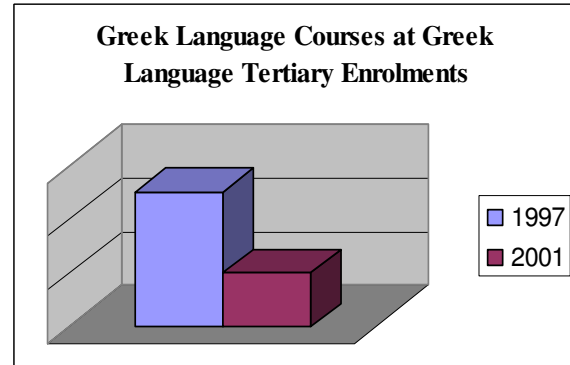


Figure 8.5: Enrolments in Greek Language Victorian Universities



By mid-1996, Greek was included in the satellite PALS program, but this initiative never went beyond the pilot stage and was discontinued at the end of 1997. The Department of Education also introduced the Greek Secondary Access to Languages via Satellite (SALS) program at the Victorian Certificate of Education (VCE) level in 1998 but it was discontinued at the end of 2000. Since 1998 the Greek PALS and SALS materials have been available to schools as resource material (material policy).

In the post-1991 phase, successive Greek governments supported the commitment to language maintenance efforts. Greece was supporting both ‘status’ ‘acquisition’ and ‘corpus’ planning with the continuing provision of: personnel, (Consul for Educational Affairs, Greek Language Adviser, seconded teachers) (personnel policy), community programs (places in Greek higher education institutions) (community policy), formation of the Council of Greeks Abroad (SAE), (legislative policy), legislation (enactment of educational legislation 1996), dealing with Greek Education Abroad (legislative policy), curriculum materials (material policy). Processes emanating from Greece for its diaspora had provided only ‘materials-textbooks’ as well as ‘personnel policy’ in the 1980s up to date.

In the post-1991 phase, academics as ‘players’ played a crucial role in identifying issues for the Greek language in Victoria with an increase in language shift to English among second-generation Greek-Australians since 1976. An examination of cross-tabulations by age indicates that the use of ‘English only’ was more prevalent in the second generation than in the first generation (that is, the relatively small number of young children of more recent migrants). The Australian scholar Cahill (1996) had concluded that the Greek community is said to have the highest degree of language maintenance and ethno-linguistic vitality, certainly among the larger ethnic groups. The Greek scholars Tamis, Gauntlett and Petrou (1993); Tamis (1997, 2005), pessimistically worried about the future of the Greek language in Australia,

particularly in schools, because the Greek settlement is not being renewed, the rate of inter-ethnic marriages and cohabitations has increased and the Anglophone discouragement of mother-tongue acquisition continues (Tripolitakis 2001, 2003).

Table 8.9 indicates the trends in Greek language study at both primary and secondary levels in Victoria over the last six years. It provides an informative overview of the current state of Greek language study and highlights the differing patterns of its enrolments at the primary and secondary levels as well as enrolments of government school students at the VSL. The most noticeable trend has been Greek's decline in government secondary schools. The growing number of enrolments in Greek at the primary schools is almost apparent. Overall Greek's enrolments in government schools at primary and secondary levels between 2002 and 2007 were stable.

Table 8.9: Trends in Greek Language Study, 2002-2007:

Greek	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Government primary	2,822	2,783	3,293	3,131	3,169	3,104
VSL government primary	449	537	579	570	547	456
Government secondary	914	929	932	830	873	766
VSL government Secondary	233	214	178	164	192	127
Total	4,418	4,463	4,982	4,995	4,781	4,453

Source: Department of Education and Training Victoria 2007.

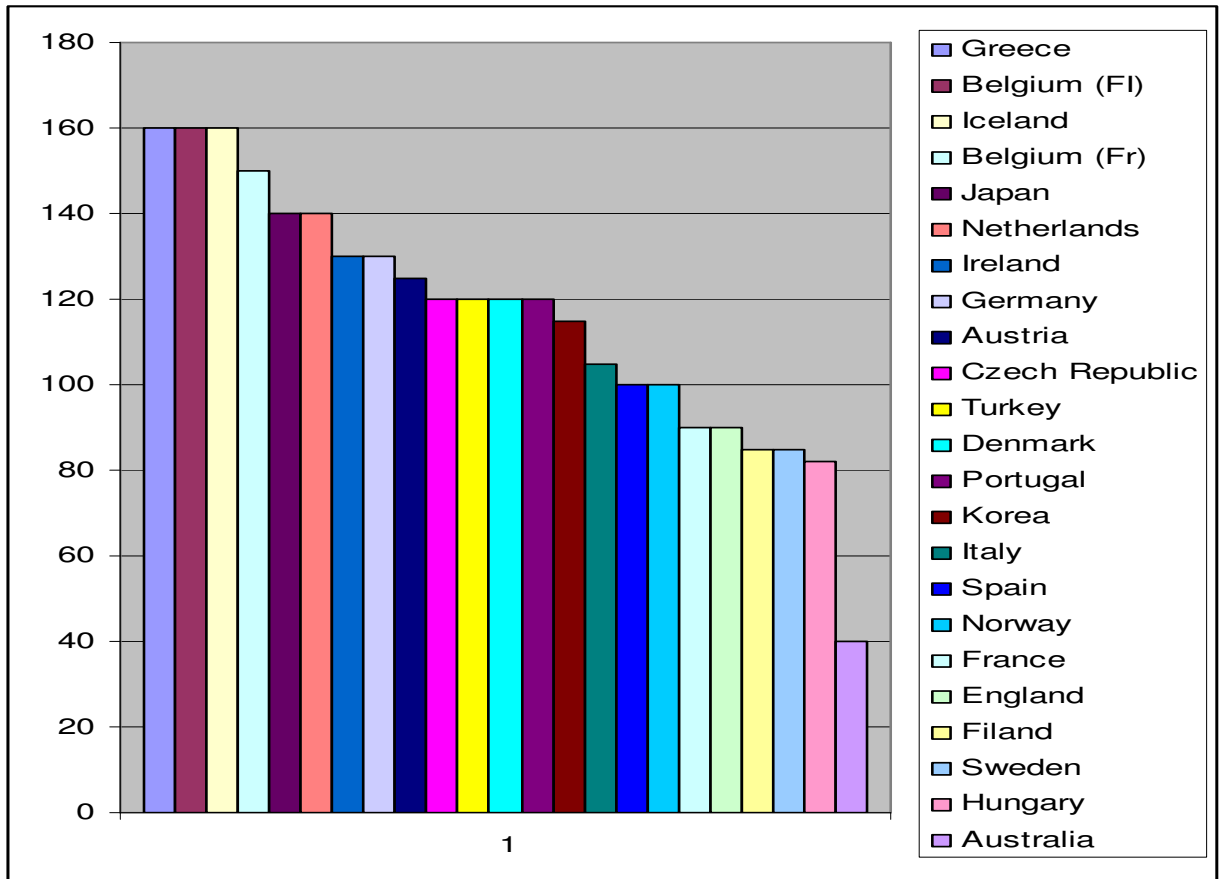
The fundamental difference between the two countries in the teaching and learning of languages as compulsory in Greece and non-compulsory in Australia is obvious (see Table 8.10). The overlap of the findings, both across languages and the number of students participating, is clear. The table indicates that in both countries in 2005, a certain type of multilingualism has been given greater importance than others. In Australia, limited multilingualism of specific languages was considered of greater importance than the multilingualism of immigrant languages.

Table 8.10: Top Languages in Australia and Greece in 2005 (in percentages)

Top Languages in Australia and Greece in 2005			
Australia	%	Greece	%
Japanese	20	English	92
Chinese	20		
French	17	French	33
German	10		
Italian	8	German	17
Indonesian	7		
Greek	3	No Language	4
Spanish	3		
Arabic	2	One Language	47
Vietnamese	2		
Other	10	Two Languages	47

One of the differentiating points is in the treatment of language status. The main policy distinction has been between Asian (Chinese and Japanese) and to a lesser extent for Indonesian and European (French, German and Italian) and progressively less stress on community languages (Greek and Vietnamese) and world languages (Arabic, Spanish). In Greece in 2005, multilingualism and multiculturalism are reflected by the provision of English, French and German. Another difference between the two countries is the number of students participating in language programs. Using the hours of languages taught in Australia and Greece as a measure, Figure 8.6 compares the average number of hours per year devoted to Year 4-8 foreign language instruction within twenty-three countries in 2000. The general conclusion from the data is clear. Greek students receive far more language instruction than Australian students.

Figure 8.6: Years 4-8 Number of Hours Devoted per Year to Language Instruction in Twenty-three Countries (2000):



Source: Figure from (OECD 2002).

Having discussed Australian and Greek language planning/processes and practices, it must be stressed that at the beginning of the post-WWII migration, a linguistic assimilation approach (in Australia, mostly up to the 1970s and in Greece up to now) was adopted for nation building and nationalist purposes, as language ideology was developed in both countries. At least a partial abandonment of social justice goals, except in learning and improving basic skills in their majority language and the tendency to transmit cultural issues of their major civilisation, was built up in both countries.

From the 1970s but more importantly in the 1980s, Australia had seen many massive national and state language policies both in English and other languages. The data in this study confirms that Australia is indeed remarkable for the number and frequency of the language policy statements that its federal and state governments have issued (see Appendixes 9 and 10), indicating an active sequence of nationalism and national identity debates in languages. Especially, in the 1980s, Australia moved from the linguistic

assimilation approach to linguistic integration to linguistic pluralism, creating the Australian model of a multilingual and multicultural society. However, from a multilingual and a multicultural perspective, the data in this study (downsizing of the teaching force, educational commodification, and privatization) revealed a troubled educational landscape during this decade. The data also suggested that in the 1990s, Australia attracted considerable policy support for foreign languages with trade secure and cuts in the immigrant intake, while immigrant languages have not received equal attention in policy and funding. Likewise, English literacy initiatives and the teaching of English for newcomers have consistently garnered most attention in policy and funding as other scholars such as Moore (2001); Nicholls (2001); Ozoling (2001); Cahill (2002) and Lo Bianco (2007) have reported. Obviously, as the data from this study revealed, the increasing importance since 1991 of ESL and (English) literacy resulted in a narrower focus on LOTE rather than the complementarity of English and LOTEs strengthening.

In Greece, in the 1970s and 1980s, inter-national and intra-national economic, political and ideological factors, combined with the co-occurring relations of power and authority, served the formalization of politically preordained developments, facilitating the importation of “world languages” with particular forms of culture and knowledge such as English, French and German. In the mid-1990s, as documented in Chapters Five and Seven, a strong need was cultivated in the learning of Greek as a second language for immigrants and repatriates as part of an integration approach. Greek principles of statehood and nationality reflect an assimilationist/integrated language ideology up to now. The data suggest that despite the fact that legislative features of Greek language planning and policy is cultural pluralism towards the recognition of the value of diversity, programs reflect linguistic assimilation/integration in unilaterally promoting only Greek. This issue has been posed by scholars in Greece concerned that school authorities do not make heterogeneity their reference point, despite the changes in the socio-cultural and communicational landscape leading to linguistic and cultural diversity (Tocatlidou 2003; Dendrinos 2002, 2004).

The Greek national functions are found in three ways: (i) Greek has been stressed as the ‘major language of communication’ for the teaching of other school subjects; (ii) English as the lingua franca for ‘international communication’; (iii) an ‘additional third language’ chosen from several priority languages at the national, regional and local levels of the multicultural society’. In the case of Greece, the additional third language tended to be among the preferred languages of the dominant European states. This certainly did not relate to geographical positions. In fact, in Greece there is definitely an ongoing principle governing the treatment of traditional world languages, towards linguistic imperialism. However, not surprisingly, Greece’s ‘national interest’ was viewed within the framework of its political and economic structure.

Both countries have faced the challenges that the increasing spread of English, at international, regional and national levels, as the global lingua franca has placed on their languages' management. Of course the challenges vary. For Australia, according to Pauwels the growing importance of English places "further constant worry on promoting policies and making conditions for the study of other-community or foreign-languages" (2007, 6). Likewise, at a regional level, in Greece, national projects under the European Programs (such as Lingua, Erasmus and Socrates) for developing open networks and for providing distance language learning services have been taking place as pilot programs (Greek Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs 2007). According to Nedle "contact linguistic analyses of smaller language communication have shown that to date there has been no overall European concept, not even an overall European vision with respect to the linguistic and cultural coexistence of the 25 members of the Union" (2007, 63).

Drawing on the short and long term effects of language planning and policy processes upon practice in the case of Australia and Greece the following conclusion can be drawn: Language planning and policy upon practice resulted in specific multilingualism and multiculturalism in the respective countries of Australia and Greece, mirroring their national language planning/processes and practice and vice-versa.

Since the early 1990s, Greece has continued to evolve as a culturally and linguistically diverse country, including in the education domain also with the ever-increasing number of foreign students studying in government schools (Table 8.11). Data regarding immigrant students are fragmentary and distinguished by discontinuity due to the fact that there are no time-series datasets. Available information indicates that the number of foreign students in Greek schools (primary and secondary) since 1996 has increased from 44,000 to 86,000 in 2000 and to 96,526 in 2002-2003 with an additional 31,000 Greek re-settling students from abroad (Baldwin and Edwards 2004, 21-22).

Table 8.11: Year 1-Year 12 Immigrant Students in the Greek Schooling System, 2002-2003:

Year 1-Year 12 Immigrant Students in the Greek Schooling System, in the 2002-2003 School Year				
Birthplace Country	Boys	Girls	Total	%
Albania	36,672	33,208	69,880	72.4
Greece	5,240	5,052	10,292	10.7
Bulgaria	1,485	1,388	2,873	3.0
Georgia	1,113	1,017	2,130	2.2
Russia	1,050	985	2,035	2.1
Ukraine	686	802	1,488	1.5
Romania	587	556	1,143	1.2
Armenia	555	489	1,044	1.1
Moldavia	314	371	685	0.7
Poland	261	282	543	0.6
Iraq	215	199	414	0.4
Yugoslavia	182	186	368	0.4
Germany	178	180	358	0.4
Kazakhstan	141	135	276	0.3
USA	146	115	261	0.3
Syria	155	99	254	0.3
United Kingdom	126	120	246	0.3
Egypt	118	98	216	0.2
Uzbekistan	49	68	117	0.1
Turkey	58	56	114	0.1
Filipino	51	56	107	0.1
Nigeria	50	48	98	0.1
Italy	34	41	75	0.1
Canada	27	41	68	0.1
FYROM	33	35	68	0.1
Cyprus	40	25	65	0.1
France	25	33	58	0.1
Brazil	29	27	56	0.1
Pakistan	34	22	56	0.1
Holland	26	28	54	0.1
Australia	23	29	52	0.1
India	33	16	49	0.1
Iran	34	13	47	0.0
Lebanon	19	22	41	0.0
Ethiopia	20	18	38	0.0
Belarus	23	14	37	0.0
Sweden	16	15	31	0.0
Jordan	14	16	30	0.0
Dominican Republic	12	15	27	0.0
Switzerland	13	14	27	0.0
Belgium	11	11	22	0.0
Czech Republic	8	13	21	0.0
South Africa	10	10	20	0.0
Israel	10	9	19	0.0
Vietnam	5	11	16	0.0
Other Countries	297	607	310	0.6
Total	50,228	46,298	96,526	100.0
Resettlers			31,000	
General Total			127,526	

Source: IPODE (quoted in Bardwin-Edwards 2004, 18).

The 10 top birthplace countries were Albania (72.4 per cent), (compared to 56 per cent in 2001), followed by 10.7 per cent in Greece (10,000 students roughly), Bulgaria (3.0 per cent), Georgia (2.2 per cent), Russia (2.1 per cent), Ukraine (1.5 per cent), Romania (1.2 per cent), Armenia (1.1 per cent), Moldavia (0.7 per cent), and Poland (0.6 per cent). The Americans and British send their children to expensive private schools and other nationalities such as Arabic and Polish have their own schools.

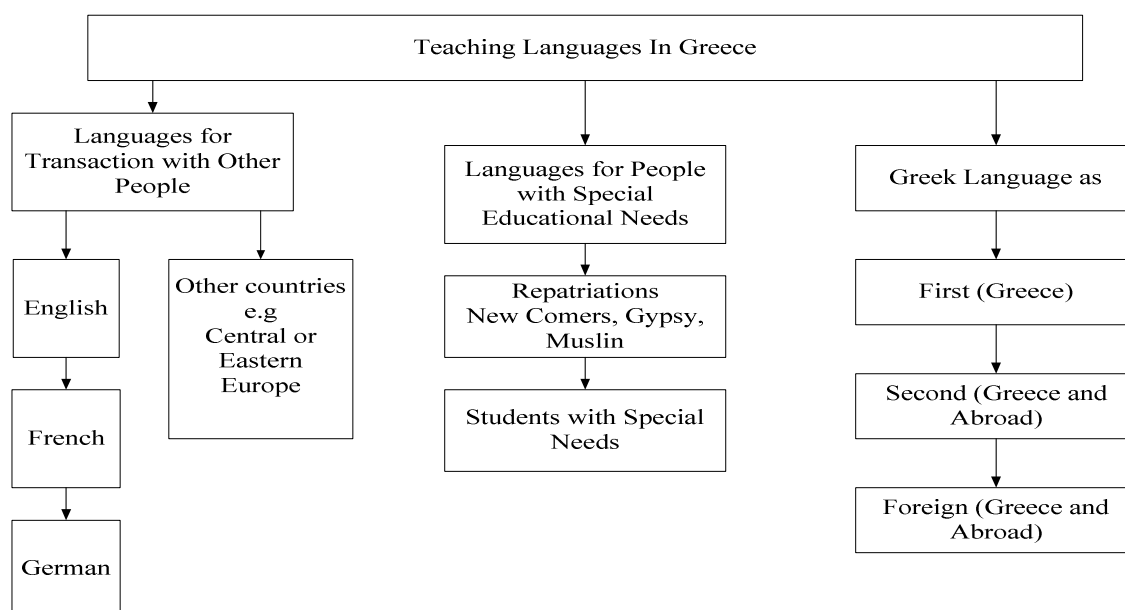
In 1990, a common Ministerial decision between the Ministry of National Defense and the Ministry of the Internal Affairs allowed immigrants who claimed that they have Greek origin, to stay in Greece without written documentation. Law 2130 in 1993 determined the meaning of “repatriated Greek”, establishing a rapid process to grant Greek Citizenship to applicants. This was supplemented by Law 2790 in 2000 and from the Ministerial Decision 4864/8/8[G]/2000 that determined specifically the privileges, structures of support and a new separate process for expediting Greek Citizenship for the Greeks from the former Soviet Union. In 2001 the new law for immigrants (2910/2001), which was also accompanied by legalisation, assembled 368,000 applications though media reports claim that only 220,000 were approved. Finally in 2004, the Ministry of Internal Affairs completed a proper database on the authorizations. Greece has long faced difficulties collecting immigration data though it has improved since 2004 as the responsibility of the Greek National Statistical Organization.

Due to a lack of particular plans or strategies to receive these immigrants, the unsettled circumstances of their integration led to xenophobic behaviour (Department of State 2004a, p. 1, 10-11, quoting Niarchos 2006). In response, Greece, in 1996 through its Ministry of Education, Life Learning and Religions, laid the foundations for a system designed to meet the educational needs of social groups with particular social, cultural or religious identities. The Ministry adopted cross-cultural education as a new form of education in Greece as part of this policy. The aim of this multicultural education has been to set up and run schools that provide education to young people with different educational, social or cultural identities. In multicultural schools, the curriculum has been adapted to meet the specific educational, social or cultural needs of the students. A total of 26 multicultural schools have been established throughout Greece since 1996. These schools, and their number will increase, guarantee equality of opportunity to every student in the country, while the cutting-edge approaches to teaching and learning utilized in these schools have a positive knock-on effect on the Greek educational system as a whole. Of the 26 schools, 13 are primary schools, while there are 9 junior high schools and 4 senior high schools. A school can only be described as multicultural when repatriated Greek and/or foreign students account for at least 45 per cent of the total student body. The educators in these schools receive special training, and are selected on the basis of their knowledge of multicultural education and teaching Greek as a second language (GSL).

Furthermore, in the majority of the primary schools in Greece, there are special classes ‘frontistiriakes takseis’ and/or ‘tmimata ypodoxis’ to cater for students with diverse social, linguistic and cultural backgrounds (Greek Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs 2007). The Moslem minority attend minority schools, in which teaching occurs in both Turkish and Greek.

In Greece, national language planning and policy potentially allows future Greek-European citizens to have immediate access to a variety of “foreign” languages and cultures emphasizing the increasing need for European citizens with a transnational and multicultural affinity and identity and Greek nationalism (Kolliopoulos and Veremis 2002). The teaching of languages in Greece for three purposes: (a) languages for transaction with other people (English, French and German); other countries from central or Eastern Europe; (b) Greek as a second language for people with special educational needs (repatriations, new immigrants, Roma, Muslims); (c) Greek as second or as a foreign language abroad (see Figure 8.7), (Greek Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs 2010).

Figure 8.7: Language Teaching Profile for Greece (1970-2005)



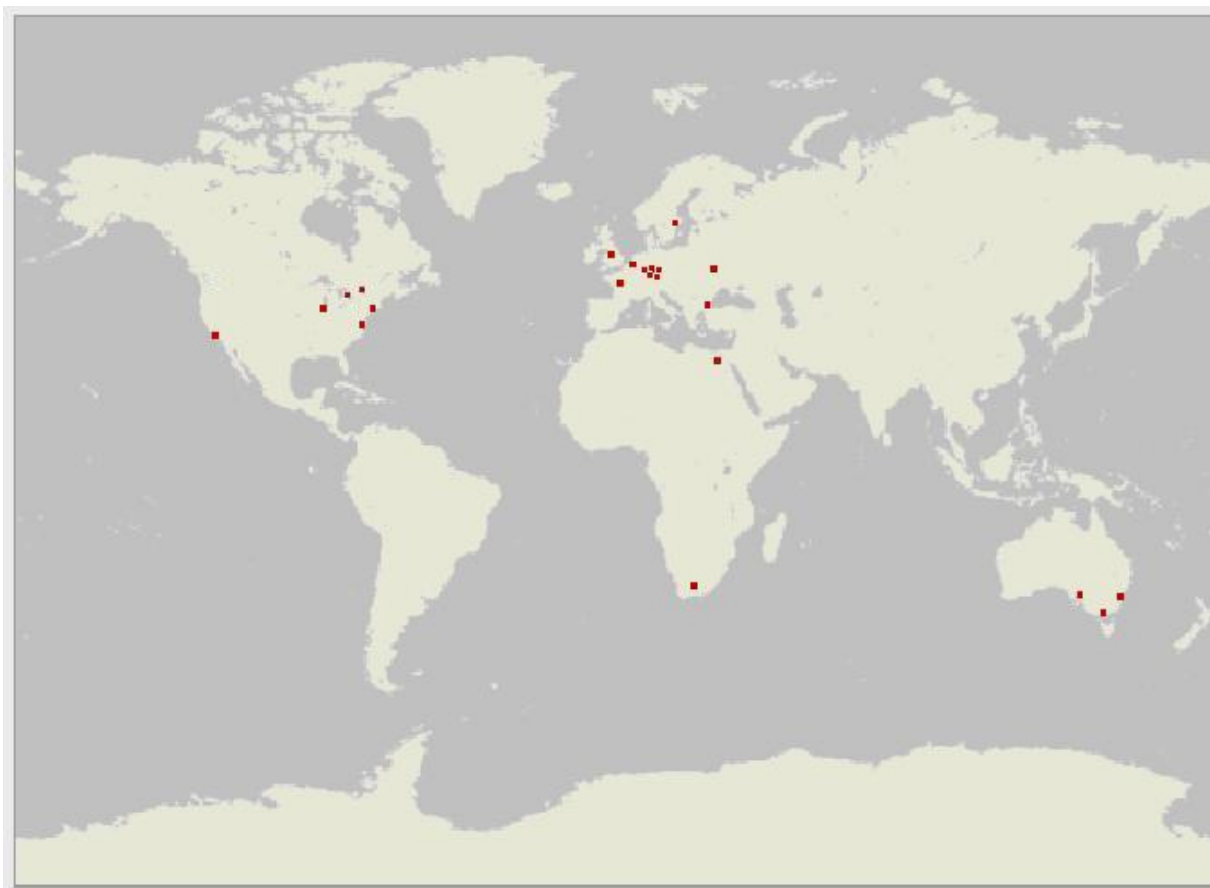
Source: Based on Tocatlidou (2003)

Greece supports policies of Greek linguistic and cultural protectionism due to the overriding feeling that linguistic and discursive practices are threatened by the hegemonic practices of the more powerful languages. Language education as part of the curriculum aims for pupils to become integrated in some way into the local dominant ‘national’ culture. The design of new foreign language programs in schools

aim at the development of the learner's linguistic and intercultural communicative competence. In Greece, there is a pressure to participate in foreign language classes as one would attend first language classes, since it is through both that positive representations of cultural and linguistic diversity will emerge. Through both languages, learners are taught to use this diversity as a constructive resource forming a new ethos of communication (Tocatlidou 2003; Dendrinos 2002, 2004).

Diasporic communities adopt similar linguistic, cultural and religious values with their home country (Vertovec 1999). Since the late 1990s, migration scholars such as Vertovec (1999), Castles (2000) and Al-Ali and Koser (2002) have focused on the transnational aspect of migration examining the maintenance of social relations and connections with the home country (Baldassar 2001). The Greek diaspora during its long history has established networks of community Orthodox Church and private institutions to meet its cultural, religious and educational needs across the globe (Avanitis 2000; Xatzidaki 2004; Tamis 1997, 2005; Damanakis 2007). Greece as part of its national language policy supports the teaching of Greek language, culture and faith in its diasporic communities abroad. Greece through its "educational units" in Europe, America, Australia and Africa (see Figure 8.8) or from the State officials in Greece provides language consultants, personnel (about 3000 teachers per year, outside Greece, across the world), funding, books, exchange programs, materials, seminars and scholarships to its diasporic communities. Greece respects its diasporic communities in their integration and in the re-defining, in their specific transnational/diasporic contexts, of their Hellenism as well as of their changing identities (Greek Ministry of Education, Life Learning and Religious Affairs 2007).

Figure 8.8: Greek Educational Units Abroad



Europe	America	Australia	Africa
Brussels, Paris, Berlin, Munich, Düsseldorf, Stuttgart, Frankfurt, London, Kiev, Stockholm, Istanbul	New York Washington San Francisco Chicago Montreal Toronto	Melbourne Adelaide Sydney	Cairo Johannesburg

Source: Greek Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs (2007).

The findings of the literature suggest that languages, **usually**, are invariably lost within three generations, or sometimes less, and that language loss is unavoidable and natural (Dicker 1996). Given that many people worldwide with Greek origin are impacted by language shift, as well as many other immigrants worldwide, the following questions must be addressed for any future language education policy:

- (a) In the hosting and posting countries in the years ahead, what will be the governance of language education of teaching and learning second languages and cultures?

- (b) Will the overseas governments continue to support the maintenance and development of language and culture of the migrants?
- (c) What are the pros and cons of overseas active involvement in language and culture maintenance in diasporas?
- (d) How significant is language and culture to young people with ethnic origin abroad today and in the future?
- (e) What will be the impact of national and state language policy initiatives for immigrant languages and cultures in their diasporas?
- (f) What can ethnic diasporas learn from overseas experience where migrants are already in their 3th and subsequent generations?

Drawing on the short and long term effects of language planning and policy processes upon practice in the case of Australia and Greece the following conclusion can be withdrawn: Language planning and policy upon practice in resulted specific multilingualism and multiculturalism contexts in the respective countries of Australia and Greece, mirroring their national language planning/processes and practice and vice-versa.

CHAPTER NINE

CONCLUSIONS

This comparative research study was focused on language planning and language policy in Australia and Greece. The two broad factors of (i) the shared Europeanist ideology of one nation-one language and (ii) the processes of globalisation constituted grounds for comparing the two countries. The research aimed at investigating two issues: firstly, *how well have Australia and Greece, each in its specific geopolitical (global and local), historical, sociolinguistic (national and local), socio-cultural, political and educational contexts, designed second language education over the past 35 years?* Secondly, *what can each country and, by extension, other countries learn from the other's performance in policy development, policy implementation and program evaluation regarding second language education?*

To achieve these aims, the research project benefited greatly from being structured around three interrelated research objectives. **Objective one:** To document the evolution of language planning and policy development over the past thirty-five years in Australia and Greece. **Objective two:** To analyse the process of language policy development over the past 35 years in Australia and Greece within their educational, socio-political and economic contexts at local, national and global levels. **Objective Three:** To assess, for both Australia and Greece, the impact of policy upon practice, and of evaluation upon both policy-planning and practice over the past 35 years.

The major findings from the study were as follows:

- (a) Language planning and language policy are always connected to the economic, socio-political arrangements and, to a lesser extent, to nationalism and belonging in specific historical and situational moments and factors.
- (b) There is no general model for language planning and language policy that would be subject to pragmatic factors.
- (c) Language policy processes were similar in both countries as driven by government action, regulation and legislation.

- (d) Political influences in both countries as a driver of language planning and policy were not neutral, and had a vested political interest to influence policy for political gain.
- (e) The difference in sociolinguistic contexts of Australia and Greece, as a result of population movements, impacted on language policy and practice.
- (f) The situation in Greece of second language education is typical of many non-English-speaking countries whose national language is only spoken in the country and by its diaspora.
- (g) Both countries have aspired to be monolingual in the past, but how far they will change towards multilingualism remains unpredictable.
- (h) The internationalisation of English and the emergence of different forms of global English have different and opposing impacts in the two countries.

In bringing together the evidence of the networks of governance related to language planning and language policy in Australia and Greece, many factors were part of this complexity and it is difficult to conduct a succinct analysis for such a long period of time. The response to the fundamental question of how well Australia and Greece have, each in their specific context, designed policy and program implementation for language education is to give a 'fair to good' rating to Australia and a 'good' rating to Greece, mainly because of Greece's almost 100 per cent coverage. How Australian and Greek governments responded to satisfy all groups in their societies and addressed national needs and aspirations in their diasporic and international contexts, as well as their ability to initiate, formulate and sustain change was a product of many complex and contradictory factors and organizational arrangements. The current state of language planning and language policy in Australia and Greece emanates not from any lack of effort or money being spent. It would be unfair and unjust to claim that Australian and Greek governments did not provide sufficient resources. The reality is much more complex, and it is unrealistic to suggest that there is a single or simple solution to resolving the complicated interplay between the various factors and challenges.

The evolution of language planning and policy development over the past 35 years in these two countries depended upon major economic and socio-political factors and arrangements embedded in specific historical and situational moments. Other factors, such as the principles of 'nationhood' and 'nationality', functioned in relatively consistent ways in both countries. In Australia language planning and language policies both guided and were guided by the impact of multicultural electoral politics, Asian regional

integration and the political mobilization of citizenship. Language planning and language policy in Greece was impacted by economic and socio-political relations in the EU context.

Due to their different sociolinguistic contexts, the complexity of policy action was obvious. These fundamental differences formed the groundwork for other factors to impact on language planning and policy throughout the decades. Powerful transnational movements of people have accelerated change as a result of the post-WWII immigration intake into Australia. In Greece, they have occurred from the mid-1990s. The need for multilingual and multicultural communication results from this increasing transnational mobility which has provided new opportunities for the maintenance, development and transmission of languages to the second and subsequent generations of immigrant and refugee children in both Australia and Greece. The complex global realities in language planning and policy originally stemmed, and continue to stem, from geopolitical conflict, warfare and resurgent nationalism, but this reality has been further complicated by globalisation as the primary driver of the global economy and the new global linguistic profile. These complexities have culminated in other new emergent issues around the spatial redistribution of wealth and privilege, the identity politics of racism and religious intolerance and the internationalisation of English which has resulted in other languages not being treated equally.

Through the decades, the economic rationales of both countries have entrenched the position and status of certain languages. The complex realities of the global economy as the primary driver of globalisation have very rapidly increased linguistic diversity in the nation states of Australia and Greece. The trend towards the homogeneity of global culture has stimulated many people, as a counter, to search for their native roots and embrace their cultural and linguistic identity and belonging in diasporic communities. Hence, over the last decade there has been a paradoxical rise of multilingualism and multiculturalism; however the internationalisation of English as a driving political and economic force has had greater impact on language policy and planning in both Australia and Greece regardless of the national first language. Historically, both Australia and Greece have aspired to be monolingual as a part of their strategic language policy and planning, however, monolingual education is no longer adequate as the data contained in this study reveal. Additionally, this study reveals that some form of multilingualism and multiculturalism is required in the language planning and policy in both Australia and Greece for effective internal social and economic cohesion.

The internationalisation of the English language has resulted in vastly different impacts on the language policy and planning of both Australia and Greece. This study confirms that monolingual Australians are difficult to motivate to learn other languages due to the pre-eminence of English as the national language of Australia as well as its global status as *the* international language. Greece follows a similar path to that of other non-English-speaking countries in their language planning and policy, namely in teaching English

as a first foreign language, thus encouraging multilingualism, with English being the other language spoken in addition to Greece's official language. Multilingualism and multiculturalism in Greece is tolerated in the government schooling system, and it is receiving increasing support in the private sector.. Changes in the language education field in both Australia and Greece, in particular in changing teaching methodologies, are dependent upon changes in the technological capacity, its accessibility and the mass production of communication software. Fluctuations in 'orientations' and 'ideologies' were seen as viable political entities in the apparent weakening of the nation states. Language, as a problem, as a right and as a resource, coexisted in both countries and was dependent on their historical contexts and needs, as well as on the wishes of the people. In a political sense, the availability of government services in chosen languages is the only path to their legitimacy within a society. It is even more critical for community languages to be used in commerce. Large-scale socio-political developments, such as 'regionalization' and 'localization', especially the strengthening and the expansion of the EU for Greece and, for Australia, greater trade interests with Asian regional partners, especially China, have recently been major drivers for language planning and language policy. Curriculum aims and content informing language programs, as well as texts and discourses along with codified and transmitted literacy practices in schools, varied in both countries and across the decades. In both countries, the interests of policy makers and the implementation consequences were an ongoing and changing sequence of events through the years.

The language policy processes over the past 35 years in Australia and Greece within their educational, socio-political and economic contexts at local, national, regional as well as global levels, clearly revealed involvedness, complexity and inter-connectedness. The policy development processes in both countries were similar, however the critical difference lay not only in the content but also in the different historical periods of the respective countries. The factors stemming from network governance as well as the rationale of leadership and management in the global context impacted as much on language policy development in Australia and Greece as did the national and local factors of the respective countries. Certain regulations and arrangements were implemented at specific time periods and were strengthened or reversed, depending upon changing historical factors, which in turn, further endorsed or changed existing language and planning policies. However, in both countries, comprehensive reform processes quite often led to radical reforms and changes in language education and resulted in the abandonment of existing language and planning policies.

In both Australia and Greece, language processes were affected by vertical and horizontal dimensions of the organizational *forms* and *functions*; additionally, the broader role of the socio-political and economic factors within the legislation and funding allocations further affected language processes. These language processes were full of complexities, usually involving a diverse range of players coming from different perspectives and spawning a host of unexpected events. The Australian and Greek governments became

involved, either because they wanted to or because they had stumbled into it because of their power to legislate and the ability to foster incentive structures (and disincentive structures) to enforce the aims of governance. Either *initial* or subsequent funding programs provided by their governments were relatively modest in both countries.

The analysis of the impact of policy upon practice, and of evaluation upon both policy-planning and practice over the past 35 years in Australia revealed that support by progressive forces among the grassroots communities of their respective populations has hardly grown in Australia. The changes in the linguistic landscape's changes throughout the decades have not been very dramatic, and thereby, have not resulted in a reversal or a major shift in the hierarchy of languages in Australia. In recent years, both in Australia and Greece, political movements and parties are openly hostile towards ethnic and linguistic diversity. The essential different socio-political and legislative responses has been closely linked to policing and constitutional processes impacting on linguistic patterns which have resulted in a state of flux for language planning and policy in both countries, in particular in Australia.

The implementation of language programs in each country reveals that the governments had designed both similar (in the case of global trends) and dissimilar responses (in the case of regional and national contexts). Conflicting interests on the national level both in Australia and Greece were requiring governments to examine or reformulate national language policy in a more restrictive manner than was previously the case. This has led the governments of both countries to put much effort into redesigning language policy and program implementation, thereby ensuring as far as possible that good outcomes emerge to accommodate conflicting national interests. As the earlier review of these two countries' practices attests, language teaching and learning in Australia and Greece and its implementation has little variation substantially from those designed in Canada, the United Kingdom and the United States. Globalisation, rather than opening up possibilities for new lines of communication and new international communities, has instead led to a retreat in Australia from previously progressive multilingual and multicultural policies as the Hanson-phenomenon attested.

Inefficiency and problems in language education in Australia reveals a deeply Europeanized approach to practice what determines the status of multilingualism and multiculturalism. However conditions for inscribing multilingualism within national policy exist in contemporary multicultural societies, such as Australia and Greece, to rectify inefficiencies and problems in language education. Despite this possibility, the strategic language planning policies of both countries aim to ensure the predominance of the first language of the majority of the population as maintained in official government communications, including education. However the strategic thinking behind language planning and policy seems to be shifting and evolving as a result of economic, political and cultural globalisation to be more inclusive of

multilingualism and multiculturalism in new policies for language planning and policy in both countries reflecting global values. The present-day situation with respect to current policies for language planning and policy in both nations has taken many years to evolve. Specific moments in the history of both countries illustrate complexities and points of intersection between the interests of the State and specific problems posed by globalisation upon language planning and policy. Issues arising from these specific moments in history affected policy and were influenced by local and temporal contingencies. They gave rise to national policy debates about how language pluralism would be addressed.

What can Australia and Greece learn from the other's performance in policy and program implementation regarding language education with respect to future language planning and language policy? The challenges for Greece and Australia may indeed be very different. Australia can learn from Greece that a national, rather than state, policies are needed, as well as that languages other than the national language can be learned, and should be learned, by almost all school students. It can also learn that a society can be convinced to become committed to learning key languages other than English. In political terms, Australia is unlikely to change dramatically, even if it becomes a republic, and it is unlikely that transitions affecting language policy will matter in any significant way. The challenge ahead for Australia in its language planning and policy is to increase its commitment and priority to expand language teaching and learning on par with other countries.

Greece can learn from Australian key programs of Greek as a second language, offered both for immigrant and for repatriate students. Key programs of ethnic schools in maintaining immigrant languages through full or part time community schools or government schools could be another lesson. Likewise, key programs in government schools modelled on the Victorian School of Languages could be another lesson. For Greece, the future challenges of language planning and policy lies in the dominance of global and regional languages and future political changes and alignments in the European Union. But it also needs to be cognizant of its geographical positioning in the Mediterranean Basin.

Social justice goals were partially abandoned in favour of certain types of multilingualism which were given greater importance, except in learning and improving basic skills in the majority language. A token approach to the discourse of multilingualism as a resource and as a fixed feature of society was taken by governments in Australia and Greece; this can be particularly evidenced in the Greek approach. There is little evidence in this study to suggest that both countries intended to fully utilise their resources to give full effect to the discourse of multilingualism as a resource and as a fixed feature of society. This is especially evident within the last decade. Similar changes occurred in language planning and policy of both countries towards a narrowing of policy interests reflecting dominant global and regional languages, which provided economic and social benefits. The multilingualism of immigrants is not considered to be

of a greater importance for bringing about changes to language planning and policy. As the notion of greater multilingualism encompassing all languages, except for the dominant global and regional languages is limited and isolated to either the home (in Greece) or to specific minority communities (in Australia), thus limiting its utility to shape language planning and policy in both countries. The influence of the dominant global and regional languages on language planning and policy stems from its utility to increase communication with others in economic or political domains outside the country's borders.

This study identified future broad implications on language planning and policy posed by greater transnational movements within a globalising context in particular. In relation to what form language planning and language policy should take in individual countries together with policy implementation and program evaluation, there is no general model for language planning and language policy, nor for policy implementation and policy evaluation across all circumstances. The general language planning and policy of an individual country mirror a specific context within historical times.

In relation to how should governments respond to satisfy all groups in plurilingual societies and address national needs and aspirations in their diasporic and international contexts, this study identifies that the most appropriate language education planning and policy is to tailor specific national solutions in specific national contexts. Furthermore, in regards to hosting and posting countries and their governments, these implications should perhaps include how network governance will impact the teaching of second languages and cultures, the future of development and support for the languages and culture of migrants. The benefits and disadvantages of active involvement of overseas governments in the language and cultural maintenance of their diasporas and how this will be received in hosting countries is an ongoing and future challenge. Furthermore, the broader significance of ethnic language, culture, identity and sense of belonging on future generations of diasporic communities around the world is an additional implication to be addressed.

Matters of ongoing concerns are issues of how all languages could be equally treated, given the changes within the contexts of economic globalisation, geopolitical conflict and warfare, resurgent nationalism, emergent issues around and the spatial redistribution of wealth and privilege, the identity politics of racism and religious intolerance and the internationalisation of English. Previous changes to language planning and policy involved a fundamental re-examination of values, national identity and most importantly, the future role of the country, both regionally and globally. This, however, makes it difficult to predict policy trends in language planning, as any model that is forecasting emergent trends needs to take into account the ongoing interplay between the varieties of complexities over the years ahead.

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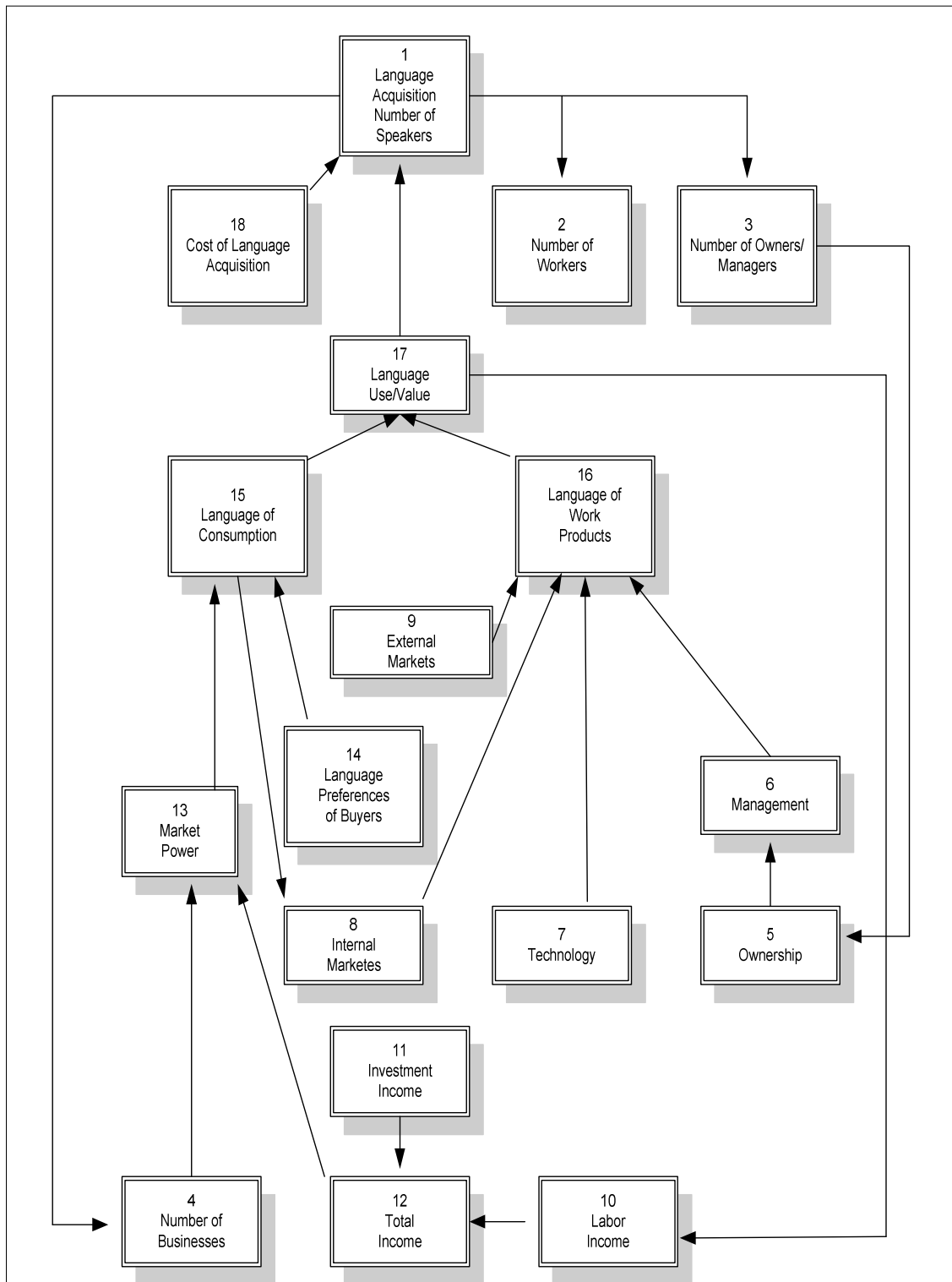
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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX ONE

FRAMEWORK FOR THE ECONOMICS OF LANGUAGE(S)



Source: Vallancourt 1991, 32 (quoted in Kaplan and Baldauf 1997, 157)

APPENDIX TWO

GREEK AND EUROPEAN PUBLISHED DOCUMENTS FOR LANGUAGE EDUCATION

1 Greek Published Documents for Language Education

1	1979	Year 12 Curriculum Program and Teaching Hours
2	1980	Year 11 Curriculum Program and Teaching Hours
3	1982	Curriculum Program and Foreign Languages' Teaching Time in Gymnasium (Year 7-9)
4	1993	Teaching English as a First Foreign Language in Primary Schools
5	1996	Teaching Hours for Foreign Languages in the Gymnasium
6	1996	Curriculum for French in Secondary Education
7	1996	Curriculum Program for Year 4-6
8	1996	Amendment of the Curriculum Program for the Gymnasium for French
9	1997	Years 10-12 Curriculum Program for German
10	1999	French and English Curriculum Program for Secondary Schools
11	2000	Year 7-9 Curriculum Program for German
12	2003	Integrated Curriculum of Teaching Foreign Languages in Primary and Secondary Schools

2 European Published Documents for Language Education

- Council of Europe. 1988. *Autonomy and Self-directed Learning: Present Fields of Application*, Strasbourg.
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APPENDIX THREE

PLAIN LANGUAGE STATEMENT FOR AUSTRALIAN PARTICIPANTS IN INTERVIEWS

Tuesday, 5 September 2006

Dear Ms/Mr

My name is Kontantinos Tripolitakis and I am studying for a PhD in the School of Global Studies, Social Sciences and Planning at RMIT University in Melbourne. The title of my PhD is: **Network Governance and Public Policy: Language Planning and Language Policy in Australia and Greece within a Globalising Context (1970-2005)**.

This project is intended to investigate two basic goals. *Firstly, how well have Australia and Greece, each in their specific geopolitical, historical, sociolinguistic, sociocultural and educational contexts, designed policy and planning for language education in government and non-government schools and implemented and evaluated these programs based on the aims and objectives of the policy over the past thirty five years? Secondly, what can each country and, by extension, other countries learn from the other's performance in policy and program implementation regarding language education?*

The project could make a useful contribution to language education policy and program implementation in Australia and Greece by addressing similarities and differences and through up to date literature reviews of key issues and key elements for language education policy and planning. The overall contribution of this research will be in its attempt to use empirical evidence from Australia's multicultural experience to benefit Greek language education and to use Greece's experience in teaching traditional world languages to benefit Australia's language education program.

The project will investigate the language education policy and program implementation in Australia and Greece, focusing in particular on: a) The past and current provision of languages programs in governments and non government schools b) Issues related to both successful and unsuccessful policy and program implementation of languages programs for both Australia and Greece c) Recommendations for future strategic directions for languages programs in Greece and Australia.

As part of my research, I am asking a small group of key informants with high level knowledge and expertise in language education to provide their background knowledge and their assessment of the language education policy and practice over the past thirty five years in Australia and Greece.

I would thus like to invite you to participate in this project. Participation in this research project is entirely voluntary and will be conducted by interview. I would ask that you participate in one interview to answer a series of questions for approximately half an hour's length. You may withdraw at any time, even subsequent to the interview, and any unprocessed data may also be removed.

The data proposed from interview would inform and deepen the research finding and would be used in addition to documentation analysis. The interviews would provide important material in terms of extending the understanding of the documentation analysis. The interviews will be recorded. Both the recording and the transcription will be transferred and stored in a secure place in the researcher's house and will only be used for the purposes of this investigation. The information that is gathered may be used in a range of publications, both academic and non-academic, and will be available internationally. Records relating to this project will be held for five years. Anonymity will be guaranteed.

If you have any queries regarding this project, please contact me by phoning +61 3 9925 1764, mobile 0413 886024 or s2016950@student.rmit.edu.au or via the postal address on this letter. You can also contact my senior supervisor,

Professor Desmond Cahill, on +61 3 9925 2328 or des.cahill@rmit.edu.au. Please note that I will be in Australia until 27th of September.

Accompanying this letter are a list of questions and the key Commonwealth and Victorian documents so far identified that will help guide our interview.

I will contact you very soon to arrange a suitable time and place for an interview if you are in agreement.

Yours sincerely

Konstantinos Tripolitakis

Any complaints about your participation in this project may be directed to the Secretary, RMIT Human Research Ethics Committee, University Secretariat, RMIT, GPO Box 2476, Melbourne 3001. The telephone number is (03) 9925 1745

APPENDIX FOUR

PLAIN LANGUAGE STATEMENT FOR GREEK PARTICIPANTS IN INTERVIEWS

Αξιότιμ κ.

Ονομάζομαι Τριπολιτάκης Κωνσταντίνος και εκπονώ τη διδακτορική μου διατριβή στο Τμήμα Διεθνών και Κοινωνικών Σπουδών του Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology της Μελβούρνης, στην Αυστραλία. Ο τίτλος της διδακτορικής μου διατριβής είναι: **Σχεδιασμός Γλωσσικής Πολιτικής, Εφαρμογή Πολιτικής και Αξιολόγηση της Γλωσσικής Πολιτικής στην Εκπαίδευση στην Αυστραλία και την Ελλάδα (1974-2004).**

Σκοπός της παρούσας έρευνας είναι η διερεύνηση δύο βασικών ερευνητικών ερωτημάτων α) Πόσο καλά η Αυστραλία και η Ελλάδα καθεμιά στο δικό της γεωπολιτικό, ιστορικό, κοινωνιογλωσσικό, κοινωνικοπολιτισμικό και εκπαιδευτικό πλαίσιο, είχε/έχει σχεδιάσει τη γλωσσική πολιτική, τον γλωσσικό σχεδιασμό και τον σχεδιασμό γλωσσικών προγραμμάτων στον δημόσιο και τον ιδιωτικό τομέα, και είχε/έχει εφαρμόσει και αξιολογήσει τα ανωτέρω, σύμφωνα με τους σκοπούς και τους στόχους που ετέθησαν τα τριάντα τελευταία χρόνια; β) Τι θα μάθει καθεμιά από αυτές τις δύο χώρες και κατ' επέκτασιν άλλες χώρες, από τον σχεδιασμό και την εφαρμογή των παραπάνω τριών θεματικών πεδίων της γλωσσικής εκπαίδευσης, στον συγκεκριμένο ιστορικό χωροχρόνο;

Κυρι , η διατριβή αναμένεται να συμβάλει στον σχεδιασμό και την εφαρμογή της γλωσσικής εκπαίδευσης στην Αυστραλία και στην Ελλάδα. Η διατριβή βασισμένη στη μέχρι τώρα διεθνή βιβλιογραφία και αξιοποιώντας την πείρα της Αυστραλίας στα παραπάνω τρία θεματικά πεδία, βασισμένα στην πολυπολιτισμικότητα, την πολυεθνικότητα και την πολυγλωσσία, αναμένεται να βοηθήσει την γλωσσική εκπαίδευση της Ελλάδας. Αντίστοιχα η έρευνα, αξιοποιώντας την πείρα της Ελλάδας στον σχεδιασμό και την εφαρμογή των ευρέως ομιλουμένων γλωσσών, αναμένεται να βοηθήσει την γλωσσική εκπαίδευση της Αυστραλίας.

Η ερευνητική προσέγγιση που επιχειρείται στη συγκεκριμένη έρευνα επικεντρώνεται στην καταγραφή, περιγραφή, ανάλυση και ερμηνεία των ενεργειών, των αρμοδιοτήτων και των αποτελεσμάτων-προϊόντων, όλων των αρμοδίων οργάνων που είχαν/έχουν την αντίστοιχη αρμοδιότητα μέσα στο εκάστοτε ισχύον θεσμικό πλαίσιο. Η διαχρονική καταγραφή των κοινωνικών ελέγχων που είχε/έχει υποστεί το όλο σύστημα μέσα από τις οργανωμένες μορφές εκπροσώπησης των κοινωνικών ομάδων, αποτελεί επίσης μέρος της ερευνητικής προσέγγισης της διατριβής. Παράλληλα εξετάζονται οι κοινωνικές, οικονομικές, θεσμικές, πολιτικές και πολιτισμικές συνθήκες, ως ιστορικά προϊόντα, των συνθηκών που δημιούργησαν την/τον εκάστοτε γλωσσική πολιτική, γλωσσικό σχεδιασμό και σχεδιασμό γλωσσικών προγραμμάτων.

Η ιστορική διάσταση κυριαρχεί στις σχετικές αναλύσεις· πρόκειται δηλαδή για μια ιστορική έρευνα. Συγχρόνως όμως επιχειρούνται και συγχρονικές αναλύσεις για τον σχεδιασμό και την εφαρμογή των τριών θεματικών πεδίων της γλωσσικής εκπαίδευσης, στον δημόσιο και τον ιδιωτικό τομέα. Θέματα επιτυχούς ή ανεπιτυχούς σχεδιασμού και εφαρμογής των παραπάνω τριών θεματικών πεδίων (αξιολόγηση) της γλωσσικής εκπαίδευσης στις δύο χώρες, αποτελούν επίσης αντικείμενα της παρούσας έρευνας.

Η ερευνητική προσέγγιση τού αντικειμένου της έρευνας θα γίνει με περιγραφή, ανάλυση και ερμηνεία νομοσχεδίων/νόμων, προεδρικών διαταγμάτων, πράξεων τού Παιδαγωγικού Ινστιτούτου (της τελευταίας τριακονταετίας), ως πρωτογενών πηγών άντλησης πληροφοριών. Μία από τις κύριες πηγές άντλησης υλικού και πληροφοριών, δεδομένου ότι πρόκειται για μια ιστορική έρευνα, είναι και η συνέντευξη. Η συνέντευξη θα πληροφορήσει και θα βοηθήσει στην καλύτερη και βαθύτερη επεξεργασία των ευρημάτων της έρευνας που θα προκύψουν από τους νόμους, τα νομοσχέδια και τα προεδρικά διατάγματα. Ένας μικρός αριθμός πληροφορητών από επιλεγμένες προσωπικότητες, οι οποίες σχετίστηκαν ή σχετίζονται με τον χώρο της γλωσσικής εκπαίδευσης στις δύο χώρες, επιλέχθηκαν ως συνεντευξιζόμενοι. Η καταγραφή, ερμηνεία και ανάλυση, των προσδοκιών και των στάσεων τους, οι οποίες επηρέασαν, επηρεάζουν και θα επηρεάσουν την γλωσσική εκπαίδευση στις δύο χώρες, αποτελεί επίσης ερευνητικό ζητούμενο στη συγκεκριμένη έρευνα.

Αξιότιμ κ. , σάς παρακαλώ εξετάσετε την πιθανότητα χορήγησης συνέντευξης στην παρούσα έρευνα. Η μορφή της συνέντευξης θα στηριχτεί σε δομημένο ερωματολόγιο, το οποίο απαρτίζεται από δεκαπέντε ερωτήσεις ανοικτού τύπου. Η συμμετοχή σας στη συνέντευξη θα διαρκέσει περίπου μισή ώρα. Οι συνεντεύξεις θα ηχογραφηθούν· οι ηχογραφήσεις και οι μεταφράσεις τους θα μεταφερθούν και θα φυλαχτούν σε ασφαλές μέρος στο σπίτι τού ερευνητή για πέντε χρόνια και θα χρησιμοποιηθούν μόνο για τους σκοπούς αυτής της έρευνας. Οι πληροφορίες που θα εξαχθούν θα χρησιμοποιηθούν σε πλήθος δημοσιεύσεων σε ακαδημαϊκό και μη

ακαδημαϊκό επίπεδο και θα είναι διαθέσιμες διεθνώς. Κλείνοντας επιθυμώ να σας γνωρίσω, ότι μπορείτε οποιαδήποτε στιγμή να αποσυρθείτε από τη συνέντευξη και να αποσύρετε μέρος ή ολόκληρα τα δεδομένα που θα προκύψουν από αυτήν.

Εάν έχετε οποιαδήποτε απορία με την επιστολή, παρακαλώ ενημερώστε με στο τηλέφωνο 210-5232625 ή στο κινητό 693-9771224 για να επικοινωνήσω μαζί σας ή στείλτε μου μήνυμα στο satsok2@hotmail.com ή τέλος επικοινωνήστε μαζί μου ταχυδρομικά στη διεύθυνση τού γράμματος. Μία από τις επόμενες ημέρες θα επικοινωνήσω μαζί σας, για διευθέτηση λεπτομερειών πιθανής ημερομηνίας και ώρας τής συνέντευξης, εάν και εφόσον έχετε χρόνο και το επιθυμείτε.

Με εκτίμηση

Τριπολιτάκης Κωνσταντίνος

Γλωσσική πολιτική: Η στάση μιας εξουσίας, κρατικής συνήθως, απέναντι στα γλωσσικά ζητήματα που εκδηλώνονται μέσα στις κοινωνικές ομάδες της επικράτειάς της καθώς και τις αποφάσεις αυτής της εξουσίας που παίρνουν συντεταγμένη μορφή, δηλαδή τις συνταγματικές ρυθμίσεις ή και τους νόμους.

Γλωσσικός σχεδιασμός: Τα συγκεκριμένα μέτρα υλοποίησης αυτών των αποφάσεων, δηλαδή τα κείμενα νομικής ισχύος που περιλαμβάνουν, υποδεικνύουν και επιβάλλουν τρόπους, διαδικασίες, όργανα και μέσα πρακτικής εφαρμογής των πολιτικών αποφάσεων.

Σχεδιασμός γλωσσικών προγραμμάτων: Προγραμματισμός της διαδικασίας παραγωγής ενός προϊόντος και συγκεκριμένα ενός προγράμματος το οποίο θα εφαρμοστεί σε συγκεκριμένα άτομα, για να τα εκπαιδεύσει έτσι, ώστε να μπορούν να πραγματοποιούν ορισμένες ενέργειες σε μία ή περισσότερες γλώσσες (Τοκατλίδου, 2003).

APPENDIX FIVE

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE (IN ENGLISH)

- 1 Explain your role in language policy and practice (LOTE, ESL, and Multicultural Education) in schools since the 1970s.
- 2 What major issues do you believe impacted on the teaching of language (LOTE and ESL) in Australian primary and secondary schools during the following time periods:
 - (a) 1970-80
 - (b) 1980-90 and,
 - (c) 1990-2005?
- 3 What is your assessment of the various Commonwealth and Victorian State government policy statements developed in relation to primary and secondary school language programs in the following time periods:
 - (a) 1970-80
 - (b) 1980-90 and,
 - (c) 1990-2005?
- 4 How realistic were the aims of the funding programs for these language programs in teaching ESL and LOTE in Victorian primary and secondary schools (government and private) in the following time periods:
 - (a) 1970-80
 - (b) 1980-90 and,
 - (c) 1990-2005?
- 5 What is your assessment of how different policy aims and objectives were implemented and achieved in Victorian primary and secondary schools (government and private) for the following time periods:
 - (a) 1970-80
 - (b) 1980-90 and,
 - (c) 1990-2005?
- 6 How did the following issues impact on the implementation of Victorian primary and secondary school language programs (government and private), (LOTE and ESL) in the indicated time periods?
 - 6.1 National interest and geopolitical considerations
 - (a) 1970-80
 - (b) 1980-90 and,
 - (c) 1990-2005?
 - 6.2 Range and choice of languages on offer
 - (a) 1970-80
 - (b) 1980-90 and,
 - (c) 1990-2005?
 - 6.3 Teacher supply and retention
 - (a) 1970-80
 - (b) 1980-90 and,
 - (c) 1990-2005?
 - 6.4 Integration of language and cultural studies
 - (a) 1970-80
 - (b) 1980-90 and,
 - (c) 1990-2005?
 - 6.5 Student interest

- (a) 1970-80
- (b) 1980-90 and,
- (c) 1990-2005?

6.6 Role of new technology

- (a) 1970-80
- (b) 1980-90 and,
- (c) 1990-2005?

- 7 Generally speaking, in light of the issues raised in Question 6 above, were there differences in the treatment of the most commonly taught foreign languages and the treatment of teaching ethnic communities' languages?
- 8 In your view, to what extent did the policy statements on LOTE and ESL influence Victorian curriculum development and actual teaching practice in primary and secondary schools for the following time periods:
 - (a) 1970-80
 - (b) 1980-90 and,
 - (c) 1990-2005?
- 9 How important has ESL and LOTE programs been in the past to the Victorian curriculum? And how important is it now?
- 10 How do you measure "success" in relation to ESL and LOTE programs in Victorian primary and secondary schools?
- 11 In all the issues covered, how did Victoria compare with other States?
- 12 In your assessment, what lessons are to be learned from language policy and practice as implemented in Australia in the following time periods:
 - (a) 1970-80
 - (b) 1980-90 and,
 - (c) 1990-2005?
- 13 What issues do you believe will impact on the teaching of language in Australia in the near future?
- 14 Overall, what have been the significant "successes" and "failures" in the last thirty five years?
- 15 Is there anything else that you would like to comment on that has not yet been covered above?

APPENDIX SIX

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE (IN GREEK)

1 Εξηγήστε το ρόλο σας στο σχεδιασμό ή/την εφαρμογή της γλωσσικής πολιτικής, του γλωσσικού σχεδιασμού ή/του σχεδιασμού γλωσσικών προγραμμάτων από τη δεκαετία του 1970 μέχρι σήμερα.

2 Ποια μεγάλα γεγονότα νομίζετε ότι επηρέασαν τη διδασκαλία των γλωσσών στα σχολεία της Πρωτοβάθμιας και της Δευτεροβάθμιας εκπαίδευσης κατά τις παρακάτω χρονικές περιόδους;

- (α) 1970-80
- (β) 1980-90
- (γ) 1990-2006

3 Πώς αξιολογείτε τη γλωσσική πολιτική, το γλωσσικό σχεδιασμό και το σχεδιασμό γλωσσικών προγραμμάτων στην Πρωτοβάθμια και στη Δευτεροβάθμια εκπαίδευση κατά τις παρακάτω χρονικές περιόδους;

- (α) 1970-80
- (β) 1980-90
- (γ) 1990-2006

4 Πόσο ρεαλιστική ήταν η χρηματοδότηση των γλωσσικών προγραμμάτων στη δημόσια και την ιδιωτική εκπαίδευση στην Ελλάδα κατά τις παρακάτω χρονικές περιόδους;

- (α) 1970-80
- (β) 1980-90
- (γ) 1990-2006

5 Πώς αξιολογείτε το σχεδιασμό και την εφαρμογή της γλωσσικής πολιτικής, του γλωσσικού σχεδιασμού και του σχεδιασμού γλωσσικών προγραμμάτων στην Πρωτοβάθμια και τη Δευτεροβάθμια εκπαίδευση κατά τις παρακάτω δεκαετίες;

- (α) 1970-80
- (β) 1980-90
- (γ) 1990-2006

6 Πώς και κατά πόσο τα παρακάτω θέματα, επηρέασαν τον σχεδιασμό και την εφαρμογή της γλωσσικής πολιτικής, του γλωσσικού σχεδιασμού και του σχεδιασμού γλωσσικών προγραμμάτων;

6.1 Εθνικό ενδιαφέρον και γεωπολιτικές σκοπιμότητες

- (α) 1970-80
- (β) 1980-90
- (γ) 1990-2006

6.2 Προσφερόμενες γλώσσες και επιλογή γλωσσών

- (α) 1970-80
- (β) 1980-90
- (γ) 1990-2006

6.3 Αρχική εκπαίδευση και επιμόρφωση των εκπαιδευτικών

- (α) 1970-80
- (β) 1980-90
- (γ) 1990-2006

6.4 Ενσωμάτωση γλωσσικών προγραμμάτων και του αντίστοιχου πολιτισμού των στο αναλυτικό πρόγραμμα;

- (α) 1970-80
- (β) 1980-90

(γ) 1990-2006

6.5 Ενδιαφέρον μάθησης γλωσσών από τους/τις μαθητές/τριες

(α) 1970-80

(β) 1980-90

(γ) 1990-2006

6.6 Ο ρόλος της νέας τεχνολογίας

(α) 1970-80

(β) 1980-90

(γ) 1990-2006

7 Γενικά και σε σχέση με τα όσα ελέχθησαν στην παραπάνω ερώτηση, υπήρχαν/υπάρχουν διαφορές στις προτιμήσεις των «ευρέως ομιλουμένων γλωσσών», έναντι των «ολιγότερο ομιλουμένων γλωσσών»;

8 Σε ποιο βαθμό κατά την γνώμη σας η εκφρασμένη γλωσσική πολιτική επηρέασε την ανάπτυξη αναλυτικών προγραμμάτων των γλωσσών και τη διδασκαλία τους στην Πρωτοβάθμια και τη Δευτεροβάθμια εκπαίδευση στις παρακάτω δεκαετίες;

(α) 1970-80

(β) 1980-90

(γ) 1990-2006

9 Πόσο σημαντική ήταν η διδασκαλία της Ελληνικής ως δεύτερης ή ξένης γλώσσας και η διδασκαλία των «ολιγότερο ομιλουμένων γλωσσών» στην Ελλάδα κατά το παρελθόν και πόσο σημαντική είναι τώρα;

10 Ποια είναι τα κριτήρια «επιτυχίας» διδασκαλίας της ελληνικής ως δεύτερης γλώσσας και της διδασκαλίας των «ολιγότερο ομιλουμένων γλωσσών» στην Ελλάδα στην πρωτοβάθμια και την Δευτεροβάθμια εκπαίδευση;

11 Με όλα όσα ελέχθησαν παραπάνω πώς θα συγκρίνατε την Ελλάδα με άλλες ευρωπαϊκές χώρες;

12 Σύμφωνα με την άποψή σας, τι συμπεράσματα θα μπορούσαν να προκύψουν από την γλωσσική πολιτική, τον γλωσσικό σχεδιασμό και τον σχεδιασμό των γλωσσικών προγραμμάτων στην Ελλάδα στις παρακάτω περιόδους;

(α) 1970-80

(β) 1980-90

(γ) 1990-2006

13 Ποια θέματα κατά την άποψή σας θα επηρεάσουν τη διδασκαλία των γλωσσών στην Ελλάδα στο άμεσο μέλλον;

14 Γενικά, ποιες είναι οι σημαντικές «επιτυχίες» και «αποτυχίες» της γλωσσικής πολιτικής, κατά τα τελευταία τριάντα πέντε χρόνια;

15 Υπάρχει κάτι άλλο που θα επιθυμούσατε να σχολιάσετε, το οποίο δεν έχει αναφερθεί παραπάνω;

APPENDIX SEVEN

AUSTRALIAN INFORMANTS CHARACTERISTICS

Informant H is Professor of French in an Australian University. During the 1970s she was a teacher of French in Victoria. In the early 1980s, as the initial president of the French Teachers' Association she was involved in the establishment of the community languages' study and teaching. In the mid-1980s, she was involved in the Modern Teachers Association and lectured at the University of Melbourne in teacher education. She was a member of government committees such as the Ministerial Advisory Council for bilingual schools programs. In the 1990s, her focus was the promotion of the 1994 language strategy plan. Also she was heavily involved in the 'Languages for Victoria's Future' project (2002).

Informant I is a Professor of Spanish in an Australian University. In the 1970s, she was a teacher for blind students. She then became involved as a teacher of English and Spanish. In the 1980s she became a LOTE coordinator for French, German and Spanish in a secondary school. In the 1990s, for many years she was a committee member of the Modern Language Teachers Association of Victoria and the Spanish Ministerial Joint Standing Committee. Through her published research, conference presentations and advice to government bodies she has contributed to the development of second language education policy.

Informant J was a teacher of English as a second language (ESL), teacher coordinator and assistant principal in schools with large ESL populations from the 1970s to the mid-1990s. In terms of policy relating to ESL, between early 1994 and early until 2006 she was managing ESL in the Victorian Department of Education and Training. As a methodology specialist she has applied ESL methodology across the curriculum in training trainers for participatory ESL management, educational video and project management.

Informant K was a Professor in an Australian University. He was a teacher of Greek as a second or foreign language over the last 30 years at both post primary and tertiary level. He has contributed in the establishment of the three day Greek Orthodox schools and served the role of the chairman of the Department of Learning and Studies from 1992 to 1997. Since 1997 to the present he founded and operated the National Centre for Greek Studies and Research. He heavily involved in writing material for Modern Greek as a second and as a foreign language.

Informant L was/is a member of a committee to introduce the teaching of community languages in government schools since the 1970s. At the present time he is also impact the implementation of second languages in government schools in Australia and more specifically in Victoria.

Informant M is an Associate Professor of Second Language Education in an Australian University. In the mid-70s he was a teacher of German in state government primary schools, in Saturday schools and in some of the early English-German bi-lingual programs, in Victoria. Since the early 1980s he has been a

university lecturer and he has been focused on researching for gifted children. He was involved in the development of the curriculum frameworks for languages and the definitions of the prerequisites to qualify as LOTE teachers. In the 1990s, he was engaged in preparing national reports for LOTE teacher supply and demand. In the same period in the Department of Education Victoria he was involved in the development of pre-service and in-service training programs for primary and secondary LOTE teachers. In the 1990s, he was a consultant at the Department of Education and the Victorian Curriculum and Assessment Authority and the Board of Studies, on their curriculum frameworks for languages, including ESL.

Informant N in the 1980s and 1990s was as an ESL teacher in Government and Catholic schools and was head of ESL and Multicultural education for the Catholic schooling system. She was involved in developing material and framework(s) as well as projects for Languages other than English (LOTE) and multicultural education. She was worked for the Victorian teachers' union, participating in and maintaining an interest in the formulation and implementation for language education.

Informant O was a teacher of French, Geography and English. Since the mid-1970s he was a Consultant for English as a second language, adult, children and Aboriginal education at the Victorian Department of Education. Since 1976 onwards he was a member of a committee coining the term community languages. In 1983, under the auspices of the Minister of Education, he was a member of a committee writing policy on community languages and multiculturalism. Mid-1980s he was a member of a committee in the first National Policy on Languages (1987). He also was a member of the prerequisites to qualify as LOTE teachers.

APPENDIX EIGHT

GREEK INFORMANTS CHARACTERISTICS

Informant A is Professor of Sociology of Language and Foreign Language Education in a Department of Language and Linguistics in a faculty of English studies. In 1983, she participated as a member of a committee to reform the teaching of English and French with the communication approach and to write a Year 4 - Year 9 (six years) framework or analytical program. In 1997, she was a member of a committee when the first curriculum for languages was written. After 1997, as a member of various committees on languages, she helped Greece to adapt its language planning and policy to the common European framework. From 2003, based in the implementation of the New Greek language policy she has been a member of a committee designing a system to assess and certify second language proficiencies for the Government (English, French, German, Spanish and Italian).

Informant B has been a teacher of English in secondary education since the 1970s. In the period 1980-2000 he has actively been involved in writing books on English. In the late 1990s he was appointed to the position of Director of the English Language Study and Teaching at the Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs, developing new analytical programs and material on English. He has engaged for the implementation of the European Language Portfolio, and with the work related to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR).

Informant C is linguistic researcher in a Greek University. She became deeply involved in Applied Linguistics for foreign language teaching and she is as a member of a team developing material for the study and teaching of Greek as a foreign language. Her research interests include instructional technology and language acquisition and development as well as in the area of literacy development. She worked with both pre-service and in-service teachers of Greek as a second or foreign language.

Informant D has taught English at primary and secondary schools in Greece since the 1970s. She has a Master and a Doctorate in Education from the University of Athens. She has held several positions within the Primary and secondary education as well as Advisor for teachers teaching English. She had participated in the development/implementation of secondary schools materials for English provision in a national context.

Informant E is lecturer in a faculty of French in a Greek University. She has been actively involved in organizing and reforming analytical programs of French for secondary education. She also teaches pre-service and in-service teachers in Training projects. She has participated in the development and publishing of secondary school language courses.

Informant F has been a teacher of French in secondary schools for almost twenty years. Since 2000 she was appointed Consultant of French in the Pedagogical Institute of the Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs. She was centrally involved for the implementation of the foreign language programs and the European Language Portfolio and the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) in the schooling system. She has been intensively engaged in pre-service and in-service training programs for foreign language teachers.

Informant G has been a teacher of English in primary education in the public and private sector since the 1970s. She is attached to the Greek Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religious Affairs since 2000. She has been involved developing new analytical programs and material on English as well as for the implementation of the European Language Portfolio, and the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR).

APPENDIX NINE

CHRONOLOGY OF COMMONWEALTH GOVERNMENT DOCUMENTS SUPPORTIVE OF LANGUAGE EDUCATION 1970-2005

Please Note: Titles represented in bold are key Commonwealth of Australia Government documents.

- 1970 Nichols, O., (1970), *The Language Problems of Migrant Children*, background paper for the Australian Citizenship Convention 1970, Australia, Department of Immigration, Canberra.
- 1971 Commonwealth Advisory Committee on the Teaching of Asian Languages and Cultures in Australia, (1970), Report (“Auchmuty Report”): AGPS, Canberra.**
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APPENDIX TEN

CHRONOLOGY OF GOVERNMENT DOCUMENTS OF STATE OF VICTORIA SUPPORTIVE OF LANGUAGES EDUCATION 1970-2005

Please Note: Titles represented in bold are key Victorian Government documents.

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- 2002** ***Languages for Victoria's Future*, (2002), Department of Education and Training Victoria, Melbourne.**
- 2004 *Multicultural Victoria Act 2004-Implication to Schools*, Department of Education and Training Victoria, Melbourne.
- 2004** ***Promoting Language Learning and Linguistic Diversity: An Action Plan 2004-2006*.**
- 2004** **Department of Education and Training Victoria, (2004), *English as a Second Language in Victorian Government Schools*, Melbourne.**

APPENDIX ELEVEN

CHRONOLOGY OF ARCHIVAL GOVERNMENT DOCUMENTS OF GREECE, SUPPORTIVE OF LANGUAGE EDUCATION 1970- 2005

001-348	Code No
APS	Curriculum Document for teaching a foreign language as a separate subject
Classical Lyceum (CL)	Type of Upper High School
DEPPS	Curriculum Document for teaching a foreign language through other subjects
Eniaio Eppaggelmatiko Lykeio (EEL)	Type of Upper High School
Eniaio Lyceum (EL)	Type of Upper High School
Eniaio Polykladiko Lykeio (EPL)	Type of Upper High School
Evening Lyceum (NL)	Type of Upper High School
Frontistiria	Foreign Languages Centres
General Lyceum (GL)	Type of Upper High School
Gymnasium	Years 7, 8 and 9-Low High School
KEME	Centre for Educational Projects and Professional Developments
Lyceum	Years 10, 11 and 12-Upper High School
N	Praxis No of Document Held in Archives of the Greek Department of Education
OEDB	Press for Textbook Publication-The Government Agency within the Greek Department of Education Responsible for the Publication of all School Textbooks
Optional Textbooks	Elective Institutionalised Foreign Languages' Textbooks
PD	Presidential Decree
Panel for English	English Language Teachers attached to the PI writing materials for English curricula
Panel for French	French Language Teachers attached to the PI writing materials for French curricula
Panel for German	German Language Teachers attached to the PI writing materials for German Curricula
PEKADE	Pan-Hellenic Teachers' Association for English
PI	Pedagogical Institute
Technical Lyceum (TL)	Type of Upper High School
Textbooks	Compulsory Institutionalised Foreign Languages' Textbooks
Title	Title of Relevant Language Education Thematic Document found in each Praxis
Unified Lyceum (UL)	Type of Upper High School
Y	Year of Praxis Document
YPEPTH	National Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs

Code No	No	Year	Title of Relevant Language Education Thematic Document Found in Each Praxis
001	94	1978	Theme 1: Teaching Hours for Foreign Languages in the Night Lyceum
002	131	1978	Theme 2: Curriculum Programs and Teaching Hours for English and French in the United Lyceum (General Direction)
003	21	1979	Theme 1: Transitional Curriculum Program for German in the Classical Lyceum
004	22	1979	Theme 1: Years 12 and 13 Transitional Curriculum Program for Foreign Languages in the Evening Lyceum
005	33	1979	Theme 1: Curriculum Programs Year 11 for English and French
006	35	1979	Theme 1: English Curriculum Program and Teaching Hours
007	2	1980	Theme 1: Minimum Qualifications for Teaching Languages in Frontistiria
008	5	1980	Theme 1: Proposal for Short Term Training for English and French Teachers

009	9	1980	Theme 1: Optional Textbooks for English and French 1980-81
010	10	1980	Theme 2: Final Decision for Minimum Qualifications Teaching Foreign Languages (English, French, German, Italian, Romanian, Russian and Arabic) in Frontistiria
011	18	1980	Theme 1: Proposal for Year 11 Curriculum Program in the Day General Lyceum and Years 11 and 12 in the Evening Lyceum
012	22	1980	Theme 3: Professional Development for French and English Teachers
013	28	1980	Theme 2: Professional Development for French Teachers
014	29	1980	Theme 3: Memorandum from Tocatlidou B. on Foreign Languages' Textbooks
015	32	1980	Theme 1: Directives for Teaching Foreign Languages in Gymnasia and Lyceums
016	35	1980	Theme 3: Consultation on the Book "Mastering English Grammar for Greek students" Theme 4: The Teaching of Italian as an Optional Language in Gymnasia
017	45	1980	Theme 1: A Selection of Textbooks for German 1980-81
018	4	1981	Theme 2: Proposal for Professional Development for English Teachers
019	5	1981	Theme 2: Proposal for Professional Development for French and English Teachers
020	6	1981	Theme 1: Professional Development for English and French Teachers Theme 2: Textbooks for English
021	19	1981	Theme 1: Foreign Language Examination in the Lyceums Theme 2: Optional Textbooks for French and English 1981-82
022	21	1981	Theme 2: Optional Textbooks for German
023	27	1981	Theme 1: The Reduction of Foreign Language Teaching Hours in the Gymnasium and the Lyceum
024	33	1981	Theme 3: Professional Development for French and English Teachers
025	3	1982	Theme 1: Reform of the Committee for Selecting Optional English Textbooks (Special Category)
026	7	1982	Theme 1: Professional Development for English and French Teachers 1982-83
027	12	1982	Theme 2: Approval of the Committee's Complementary Praxis for Selecting Optional Textbooks for English
028	13	1982	Theme 2: Optional Textbooks for English, French and German
029	17	1982	Theme 1: Professional Development for English and French Teachers Theme 2: Optional Textbooks for Teaching the German Language (Complementary Process)
030	18	1982	Theme 1: Organisation of Professional Development for English and French Teachers from KEME
031	23	1982	Theme 3: Optional Textbooks for German in the Classical Lyceum
032	30	1982	Theme 1: Memorandum from the British Council for Teachers Re-training (English) Theme 2: Application from the 'Verlag Fur Deutsch' Publishing House for a Textbook Series' Approval for Teaching German
033	42	1982	Theme 1: Proposal for a Committee's Reform for the Selection of Optional Textbooks for German in the Classical Lyceums
034	47	1982	Theme 1: Approval of the Committee's Approved List for Optional Textbooks for French
035	50	1982	Theme 1: Approval of the Committee's Approved List for Optional Textbooks for English
036	59	1982	Theme 6: An Appraisal of the Greek-English Dictionary (Eyaggelos Skatzakis) as Optional Textbook

037	63	1982	Theme 3: Send out (from KEME to Education Department) of the Records of the Committee's Selection Optional Textbooks for German Theme 4: A Selection of a German Optional Grammar Textbook
038	93	1982	Theme 1: Teaching Foreign Languages in the Lyceum (Teaching Hours, Curriculum Program, Textbooks)
039	61	1983	Theme 2: Optional Textbooks for Foreign Languages (Cluster E)
040	71	1983	Theme 1: Representatives from the Division in Professional Development for English and French Teachers Theme 2: Reappraisal of an Optional Textbook for English
041	84	1983	Theme 2: Directives on the Teaching of Foreign Languages
042	95	1983	Theme 1: Professional Development for French Teachers
043	14	1984	Theme 3: Professional Development for French Teachers
044	16	1984	Theme 2: Curriculum Programs for Foreign languages (Cluster E)
045	26	1984	Theme 3: Examination in Foreign Languages (Cluster E)
046	27	1984	Theme 2: Curriculum Programs for Foreign Languages Theme 3 Examination in Foreign Languages (Cluster E)
047	28	1984	Theme 3: Professional Development for English Teachers
048	34	1984	Theme 9: Directives on the Examiners for Foreign Language General Examination
049	43	1984	Theme 2: Memorandum from the French Teachers' Association of Thessalonica
050	68	1984	Theme 4: Issues on the Teaching of Foreign Languages Theme 5: KEME Representatives in Professional Development for Teaching Foreign Languages
051	87	1984	Theme 2: Problems in Textbooks Teaching English
052	97	1984	Theme 2: New Method of Examination in Foreign Languages
053	103	1984	Theme 4: Buy of Cassette-Tapes for the Needs of the Work Team for English Theme 5: Design of a Textbook Teaching French
054	107	1984	Theme 3: Exclusion of the "Threshold" English Textbook
055	4	1985	Theme 3: Method of Examination in Foreign Languages 1984-85
056	11	1985	Theme 4: Pilot Application Year 7 Instruction Material for French at a National Level
057	27	1985	Theme 2: Professional Development for French Teachers Theme 3: Cypriot Publications for Teaching French
058	33	1985	Theme 5: Optional Textbooks for English and French Theme 8: KEME Representatives in Professional Development for Foreign Languages
059	42	1985	Theme 1: Approval of the Committee's Records for the English Optional Textbooks' Appraisal
060	44	1985	Theme 1: Approval of the Committee's Records for the English Optional Textbooks' Appraisal Theme 4: The Inclusion of B. Dendrinou and S. Marmaridou in the Work Team for English
061	46	1985	Theme 2: Teacher's Handbook Teaching English
062	48	1985	Theme 3: Employment of a British English Teacher in the Work Team for English
063	53	1985	Theme 1: Attachment of Six Teachers Teaching English at KEME 1985-86 Theme 2: Allocation for Typing Teachers' Handbook (Year 7-9) for English Theme 3: Renewal of the Experimental Material for English
064	62	1985	Theme 1: The sending off the Department by the PI Praxis of the Optional

			Textbooks for English Theme 2: Variation from the Program of Foreign Schools (Leontium Lyceum, Greek-French Saint Joseph, Greek-French Saint Paul, Greek-French School of Ursoulines and the Italian Faculty of Athens) Theme 4: Issues in the Working Team for English
065	66	1985	Theme 2: Printing of the Experimental Teacher Volume Year 7 for French (200 copies)
066	69	1985	Theme 2: Attachment of Six Teachers for English
067	74	1985	Theme 2: Proposal Introducing Latin as a Foreign Language
068	80	1985	Theme 2: Selection of Optional Textbooks for Italian and Russian
069	85	1985	Theme 7: Model of Year 7 Material for French (Volume B)
070	10	1986	Theme 3: The Introduction of German in Primary and Secondary Education Theme 4: Consultation on Teaching Programs and Textbooks for Italian and German
071	12	1986	Theme 1: Consultation on Textbooks and Teaching Programs for Italian Theme 2: Model of Year 7 Instruction Material for French (Volume C) Theme 3: Tenders on the Design Year 8 Material for French
072	16	1986	Theme 5: Printing of Teacher Handbook (Volume C) for English (Year 7 – 9) Theme 6: Teaching Needs for English, 1986-87
073	19	1986	Theme 2: Formation of a Committee for German Textbooks' Appraisal in the Post Lyceum Centres Theme 6: Tenders for the Design of Year 8 Material for French
074	25	1986	Theme 3: Visits in Experimental Classrooms Teaching French Theme 4: Optional Textbooks for French Theme 5: Professional Development (Material) for French Teachers
075	26	1986	Theme 1: Printing of Year 7 Greek-French Material
076	31	1986	Theme 5: Approval of a Textbooks' List Teaching German to Repatriated Students
077	33	1986	Theme 2: Method of Examination in Foreign Languages in the Lyceum, 1985-86
078	39	1986	Theme 1: Awareness of Foreign Languages Issues, 1985-86 Theme 4: PI Awareness on Issues Teaching French, 1986-87 Theme 5: Reprinting of the Year 7 Instruction Material (Volume A) for French in a Pan-Hellenic Level and a Pilot Application in 140 Gymnasias 1986-87 Theme 6: Reprinting of the Year 8 Instruction Material (Volume A) for French at a Pan-Hellenic Level and a Pilot Application in 140 Gymnasias 1986-87
079	40	1986	Theme 3: Letter from French Publishing Houses for Cooperation with YPEPTH Designing a Foreign Language Teaching Method
080	42	1986	Theme 1: Formation of Committees for Selecting Optional Textbooks Year 10-12 for French and English Theme 2: Formation of Committees for Selecting Optional Textbooks for French and English Year 12 in E.P.L.
081	51	1986	Theme 4: Design of Year 7-9 Textbooks for English
082	54	1986	Theme 1: Approval of the Committee's Records for Selecting Optional Textbooks for English and French
083	56	1986	Theme 4: Dispatch of a Letter from the Working Team for French
084	66	1986	Theme 2: Utilize German
085	76	1986	Theme 1: Teaching Foreign Languages

			Theme 2: Optional Textbooks for Russian and Italian in E.P.L Theme 3: Variation from the Program by the Italian Faculty in Athens
086	88	1986	Theme 1: Approval of the Teacher Companion Book Year 8 for French
087	92	1986	Theme 4: Committee for Selecting English Textbooks Theme 9: Teacher Companion Book (French Language) Year 8
088	2	1987	Theme 1: Committee for Selecting Textbooks for English
089	9	1987	Theme 5: Textbooks for Teaching English in the Gymnasium
090	22	1987	Theme 1: Division's Awareness of the New Method's Course for English and French
091	38	1987	Theme 1: Reprinting of Textbooks Year 7-9. Reporters at speciality??? (English in the Gymnasium) Theme 4: Students and Teachers' Material for French Theme 5: Renewal of Service at PI for the Working Teams for English and French in the Gymnasium's Material
092	43	1987	Theme 2: Typing Teacher's Handbook Year 8 for English
093	50	1987	Theme 2: Commissioning and Appraisal of Textbooks for French
094	51	1987	Theme 4: Appraisal of Year 8 Textbook for English Theme 5: Consultation on Optional Textbooks for English in the Lyceum
095	52	1987	Theme 1: Consultation on Optional Textbooks for French
096	54	1987	Theme 4: Consultation for Re-approval of Optional Textbooks for English in the Lyceum
097	55	1987	Theme 3: Consultation on Re-approval of Optional Textbooks for English in the Lyceum
098	57	1987	Theme 4: Reprinting of Student and Teacher Instruction Material for French (Year 8) Theme 5: Professional Development for English Teachers Theme 6: Approval of the 'OFFSET' Teacher's Textbook (Year 8) for English
099	76	1987	Theme 6: Selection of Instruction Textbook for English and French in E.P.L
100	84	1987	Theme 1: Selection of Textbooks for the Foreign Language Discipline for English and French in E.P.L
101	88	1987	Theme 3: Commissioning of Design Year 9 Instruction Material for French Theme 4: Reprinting the Textbook "Methodological Awareness of the Teacher for French Language" in the Gymnasium and the Lyceum
102	89	1987	Theme 3: Commissioning of Design Year 9 Instruction Material for French in the Gymnasium
103	96	1987	Theme 4: Reprinting of Year 7 and 8 Teaching Textbooks for French
104	4	1988	Theme 6: Memorandum from the English Teachers' Association of the Northern Greece Theme 8: Commissioning of Design Year 9 Material for French
105	11	1988	Theme 4: Process of Appraisal Year 7 'Task Way 2' Textbook for English
106	15	1988	Theme 1: Year 9 Instruction Material for French Theme 2: Consultation on Cassette-Tapes' Records for English in the Gymnasium Theme 3: Consultation on Assiduity's ???Commissioning of Teacher Textbook for English in the Gymnasium
107	17	1988	Theme 3: Optional Textbooks for French and English 1988-89
108	18	1988	Theme 1: Optional Textbooks for French and English
109	19	1988	Theme 4: Completion on the Division's Praxes for English Issues
110	22	1988	Theme 1: Completion on the Division's Praxes of Optional Textbooks for French

111	29	1988	Theme 1: Formation of a Committee for Selecting Optional Textbooks for French
112	44	1988	Theme2: UNESCO Proposal Publishing Aristotle Study Volume B in French
113	49	1988	Theme 5: Textbooks for Foreign Languages
114	50	1988	Theme 1: Appraisal of Year 9 Textbook (Volume C) for English Theme 2: Request from Textbooks' Writers (English)
115	51	1988	Theme 1: Appraisal's Process of Year 9 Textbook (Volume C) for English Theme 2: Request from Writers for English Textbooks Theme 4: Appraisal's Records for Optional Textbooks for French in E.P.L.
116	53	1988	Theme 1: Optional English Textbooks in the G.L and the E.P.L. Theme 2: Extension of the Service for the Working Panel for English Theme 3: Reproduction of Cassette Tapes for English
117	54	1988	Theme 1: Send off (at the Department of Education) of the Committee's Textbooks' Appraisal for French Theme 4: Teachers' Textbooks for French (Cluster PE5)
118	55	1988	Theme 5: Teachers' Textbook for English Number 2
119	56	1988	Theme 2: Printing of Students' and Teachers' Instruction Material for French
120	64	1988	Theme 2: Issues on Teaching English
121	69	1988	Theme 2: Instructions Teaching English at Year 9
122	74	1988	Theme 2: Instruction Material French
123	3	1989	Theme 3: Reprinting of Textbooks for English
124	4	1989	Theme 4: Selection of Optional Textbooks for English in the Lyceum Theme 5: Selection of Optional Textbooks for French in the Lyceum
125	6	1989	Theme 1: Teaching English and German at Variation from the Law in Two Private Primary Schools
126	10	1989	Theme 1: Selection of Optional Textbooks for English
127	11	1989	Theme 3: Year 9 Curriculum Program for French
128	17	1989	Theme 2: Selection of Optional Textbooks for French Theme 4: Selection of Optional Textbooks for French
129	19	1989	Theme 2: Pilot Introduction of the German Language in the Greek Educational system.
130	21	1989	Theme 3: Re-production of Cassette Tapes for English Year 7-9 Theme 4: Renewal of the Working Team's Service at PI for English
131	6	1989	Theme 3: Variation from the Law Teaching English Theme 5: Variation from the Law Teaching German
132	9	1989	Theme 1: Team Writing Textbooks in French for Primary School
133	15	1989	Theme 1: Reform of the Team Writing Year 4 Textbooks for English
134	27	1989	Theme 1: Formation of a Team Writing Year 4 Textbooks for French
135	28	1989	Theme 1: Formation of a Team Writing Year 4 Textbooks for French
136	29	1989	Theme 1: Terms of References for the Team Writing Year 4 Textbooks for French
137	30	1989	Theme 1: Terms of References of the Team Writing Year 4 Textbooks for French
138	32	1989	Theme 1: Submission by the French Faculty of the University of Thessalonica
139	40	1989	Theme 1: Design of Year 4 Textbook for French
140	44	1989	Theme 4: Textbooks for German and their Pilot Application in Year 4 Theme 5: Educational Program Between Greece and Yugoslavia
141	45	1989	Theme 1: Year 4, 5 and 6 Curriculum Program for German Theme 2: Textbooks for German and their Pilot Application in Year 4

			Theme 3: Proposal for the Pilot Application Teaching German in Primary Schools (First Phase)
142	54	1989	Theme 4: Formation of a Team Writing Year 4 Instruction Material for English
143	6	1990	Theme 1: Invitation of Interest of Optional Textbooks for French and English 1990-91
144	18	1990	Theme 1: Selection of Optional Textbooks for French in the Lyceum
145	19	1990	Theme 3: Optional Textbooks for French and English in the Lyceum
146	30	1990	Theme 1: Document from International Organisation for Illiteracy (UNESCO) Theme 2: Request from the French Embassy in Athens for Educational Information
147	35	1990	Theme 1: The Teaching of French Theme 2: The Teaching of the Hebrew Language and Religion
148	44	1990	Theme 2: Reprinting Instruction Textbooks for French Theme 3: Variation from the Law by Foreign Schools
149	2	1990	Theme 2: Attachments of Teachers at the PI for English
150	4	1990	Theme 2: Recommendation for a Panel's Formation Assessing Textbooks from the Department of Education of Cyprus for English
151	8	1990	Theme 1: Proposal for a President Decree Teaching Foreign Languages in Primary Schools
152	11	1990	Theme 2: Request by Mr Koltoukis Assessing his 'collection d' exercises' Textbook
153	12	1990	Theme 5: Appointment of Assessors Year 4 Textbook for French Theme 7: YPEPTH Document for Assessing Georgantas Textbook for French
154	20	1990	Theme 7: LINGUA Program
155	23	1990	Theme 5: Appropriateness of Textbooks for English from the Department of Education of Cyprus
156	24	1990	Theme 1: Suitability of Textbooks for English from the Department of Education of Cyprus
157	3	1991	Theme 2: Optional Textbooks for French and English
158	15	1991	Theme 5: Optional Textbooks for French
159	17	1991	Theme 1: Optional Textbooks for English
160	18	1991	Theme 9: Teacher Attachment at the PI Writing Textbooks for English in the Gymnasium
161	21	1991	Theme 7: Supply of English Textbooks for the Specialities in T.E.L. and the Disciplines in E.P.L.
162	35	1991	Theme 1: Reform of Programs and Committees
163	1	1991	Theme 1: Use French in the Private Kindergarten E. Kokkoni
164	4	1991	Theme 4: Year 4 Working Team for French
165	3	1992	Theme 2: Optional Textbooks for French and English Language 1992-93 Theme 3: Variation from the Law by Foreign and Private schools Theme 5: Renewal of the Educational Program Between Greece and Ireland- Bulletin from UNESCO
166	19	1992	Theme 4: Variation from the Law for the Teaching Hours and Curriculum Program by the Private School "Korais" Theme 5: Consultation on the Committee's Appraisal's Records of the Optional Textbooks for English 1992-93 Theme 6: Support Material's Submission for TASK WAY English for the Gymnasium by the Teacher Tsitsiklis Theme 7: Application from Lithuania for the Curriculum Program for

			English Theme 9: New Regulations According to the New Curriculum Programs Teaching Foreign Languages in the Gymnasium and the Lyceum
167	21	1992	Theme 1: Variation from the Study Program by the Private School "ZOH" Theme 2: Optional Textbooks for French 1992-93
168	22	1992	Theme 5: Letter by Mr Francis Moureau, Representative of a French Publishing House
169	33	1992	Theme 2: Variation from the Law Teaching Foreign Languages (Private Schools)
170	35	1992	Theme 4: Variation from the Law Teaching Foreign Languages
171	36	1992	Theme 6: Formation of a Work Committee for the Introduction of German in the Gymnasium
172	4	1992	Theme 7: Request by the IONIO Faculty for Variation from the Curriculum Program and the Teaching Hours Teaching English Theme 8: Teaching English?? in the Private School "TAXIARCHIS" Theme 11: Division's Brief on the Working Team for French
173	11	1992	Theme 1: Formation of a Panel for Selecting Textbooks for English in Primary Schools
174	13	1992	Theme 2: Printing of Year 4 Experimental Material for English (First Volume)
175	15	1992	Theme 15: Commissioning of Design and Illustration of Year 4 First Volume for English
176	16	1992	Theme 1: Consultation on the Panel Appraisal's Records of the Optional Textbooks for English
177	18	1992	Theme 9: Request for Authorisation Teaching German and English from the Private School 'Greek-German Education' Theme 10: Request from the Private School 'Ekpeideytiria G. ZWH A.E.' for Authorisation Teaching German and English Language from Variation of the Curriculum Program
178	20	1992	Theme 2: Reproduction of the 'Chatterbox' Textbooks for English in Primary School Theme 3: Designers' Payment for the First Volume's Design for English
179	21	1992	Theme 1: Printing by OEDB of the "CHATTERBOX" Series for English in Primary School (YPEPTH Document G1/876/21-9-92)
180	22	1992	Theme 2: Consultation on the Reproduction of Cassette Tapes of the Experimental Instruction Material Volumes A and B for English Theme 3: Formation of a Team for Producing Experimental Instruction Material for English in Primary Schools
181	24	1992	Theme 3: Approval of the Experimental Year 4 Instruction Material for English
182	25	1992	Theme 2: Instruction Material for English and its Outcome in the Running School Year
183	3	1993	Theme 3: Textbooks for French Theme 5: Teaching Foreign Languages-Reform of a Panel for the Introduction of the German Language
184	5	1993	Theme 3: Textbooks for the French Language Theme 4: Optional Textbooks' Selection for German
185	7	1993	Theme 6: Textbooks for French in the Gymnasium
186	8	1993	Theme 3: Textbooks for French in the Gymnasium
187	16	1993	Theme 1: Textbooks for French in the Gymnasium
188	21	1993	Theme 4: Selection of Optional Textbooks for French
189	28	1993	Theme 6: Optional Textbooks for English

			Theme 7: Answer to G2/3501/25-6-93 YPEPTH Document (Variation from the Curriculum Program for French by the Private Gymnasium “AETEION”
190	37	1993	Theme 3: Textbooks for the Anglophone Units for Repatriated Greek Students in the Gymnasium Theme 4: Variation from the Teaching Hours and Curriculum Program by Private Schools Theme 5: Teaching Textbooks-Reprinting 1994-95
191	4	1993	Theme 3: a) Reprinting of the Experimental Year 4 Instruction Material for English; b) Printing of the FUN WAY, Volume B and Printing of Cassette Tapes 1993-94; c) Timetable of the FUN WAY Production-Writing (Pilot Form) Theme 4: Professional Development for English Teachers in the Primary Education and the Course of the Experimental Material of the PI
192	9	1993	Theme 19: Timeline for the Production-Writing of the Experimental Material for English Theme 20: Reprinting of the ‘CHATTERBOX’ Textbooks 1993-94 Theme 21: Pilot Application of the Experimental Year 4 Instruction Material for English in 100 Schools from 1993-94
193	13	1993	Theme 4: Submission for Appraisal of a Textbook by Mrs Soura for English Theme 5: Approval of a Grammar Textbook for English
194	15	1993	Theme 2: Timetable Production of Instruction Material for English Theme 8: Curriculum Program for the English Language Theme 11: Writing Multiple Textbook for English
195	20	1993	Theme 1: Formation of a Team for Producing Instruction Material for English in the Primary School Theme 2: Appraisal of the Experimental Year 4 Instruction Material for English
196	2	1994	Theme 2: Renewal of the Educational Program Between Greece and Italy
197	3	1994	Theme 2: Renewal of the Educational Program Between Greece and Egypt
198	5	1994	Theme 2: Optional Textbooks for English and French
199	6	1994	Theme 3: Teaching the German Language in Gymnasia Theme 7: Letter from Mr Xatzis. Invasion of English Words in the Greek Language
200	7	1994	Theme 1: Letter from Mr Xatzis. Invasion of English Words in the Greek Language Theme 4: Renewal of the Educational Agreement Between Greece and Rumania Theme 6: Request from the Greek-French Faculty Saint Paul for the Maintenance of the French Language as a First Language in the Schools of the Catholic Church
201	11	1994	Theme 3: Request for the Introduction of the Italian Language in Education (Documents from Interested parties such as the Senate of the Aristotelian University of Thessalonica, Teachers’ Unions) Theme 4: Objections by Interested parties for the Optional Textbooks for English in the Lyceum
202	16	1994	Theme 2: Study Program for the English Language in the Gymnasium Theme 3: Optional Textbooks for English in the Lyceum Theme 4: Optional Textbooks for French in the Lyceum
203	22	1994	Decision on the Introduction of Italian in Year 7-9
204	1	1994	Theme 2: Commissioning Re-designing the Textbook Volume A for English in Mrs Mantzourani

			Theme 3: Printing of Teacher's Handbook Volume A and B in One Volume for English and Reproduction of Cassette Tape for Volume A
205	2	1994	Theme 1: Artistic Reformation of the Year 4 Volume A for English
206	4	1994	Theme 4: Artistic Allocation of Textbooks for English Theme 5: Division's Brief for the Laboratory of the Council of Europe Teaching Languages in Primary Education
207	14	1994	Theme 6: Printing of Year 4 Student's Textbook for English
208	16	1994	Theme 6: Design's The receiving of Year 4 Volume A for English
209	21	1994	Theme 4: Commissioning for Appraisal of the Year 5 Volume A for English
210	24	1994	Theme 3: Directives Teaching English in Year 4 in Primary Education Theme 4: Recommendation of Photographic Material's Buy for Year 4 Volume B for English Theme 6: Modification of the Division's Praxis 21 in 1994
211	25	1994	Theme 1: Appraisal of the Year 5 Experimental Instruction Material for English
212	27	1994	Theme 2: Design's Commissioning of Year 5 Volume A for English Theme 9: Approval of an Evaluation's Questionnaire of the Experimental Instruction Material for English FUN WAY ENGLISH Theme 9: Reprinting of the Year 4 Experimental Instruction Material Volume A for English
213	28	1994	Theme 1: Evaluation's Questionnaire of the Experimental Instruction Material for English FUN WAY ENGLISH Theme 2: The receiving of the Year 4 Photographic Film Material Volume B for English
214	31	1994	Theme 2: Instruction Material for English for the 1995-96 School Year Theme 6: Allocation of the Year 5 Textbook FUN WAY ENGLISH Book Volume A (Textbook for Student, Teacher and Workbook)
215	3	1995	Theme 8: Teaching of a Second Foreign Language (G2/6040/17-11-94). Remarks and Problems Theme 9: P.D. 375/FEK 15977/93-Article 32-Teaching Foreign Languages in Levels Theme 10: Optional Textbooks for German in Classical Lyceums (G2/6084/21-11-94) Theme 12: European Languages Centre in Grants-Relevant Initiatives Theme 13: The Use of Optional English Textbooks in 'KALAMARIA' Lyceum theme 14: Memorandum from the Students of the Italian Faculty of the Aristotelian University of Thessalonica
216	5	1995	Theme 3: Optional Textbooks for the German Language in the Classical Lyceums Theme 12: Variation from the Law Teaching the French Language (Request by the 'LEONTEIO' Lyceum of New Smyrna) Theme 17: Instruction English Textbooks in the Gymnasium Theme 18: Optional Textbooks for English and French in the Lyceum 1995-96 (Invitation of Interest-Appraisal Committee)
217	6	1995	Theme 8: Variation from the Program for the Teaching of the French Language (LEONTEIO Lyceum of New Smyrna) Theme 13: Instruction Textbooks for English in the Gymnasium
218	16	1995	Theme 2: Program from the European Union for Languages' Assistants Theme 3: Materials' Needs?? Solution for English in the Gymnasium 1995-96
219	19	1995	Theme 2: Committee's Records' Appraisal of the Optional Textbooks for

			English and French Theme 5: Protocol of Cooperation Between Cyprus and Greece: Recommendations by the Department of Education and Civilisation of the Cypriot Democratic State
220	23	1995	Theme 3: Various Themes Concerning the Teaching of English
221	29	1995	Theme 3: Curriculum Program for the French Language in the Gymnasium Theme 4: Instruction Textbooks for the French Language Theme 6: Proposal of a Curriculum Program Teaching the German Language in the Lyceums in Germany Theme 7: Teaching English in Kopanaki Kyparrissias Theme 9: Protests by the French Teachers' Association of Northern Greece Theme 10: Memoranda by English Teachers' Associations: a) PEKADE b) Aitwloakarnania
222	30	1995	Theme 4: Teaching English in Kopanaki Kyparrissias Theme 6: Protest by the French Teachers' Association of Southern Greece Theme 7: Protests by English Teachers' Associations: a) PEKADE b) English Teachers' Association of Aitwloakarnania
223	35	1995	Theme 7: Application of Teaching Languages in Levels [Document by the Head of the 4 Office B Division of Secondary Education (4080/2.10.95)] Theme 8: Optional Textbooks for English, French and German in the Gymnasium and the Lyceum Theme 10: Deposit?? of the Curriculum Program for the German Language in the Lyceum and Awareness of the Division for the Completion of the Work by the Committee
224	1	1995	Theme 1: Request by the Turkish Embassy in Athens of Turkish Textbooks' Approval for the Minority Schools in Thrace Theme 2: The receiving of the Year 4 Virtue Volume B for English
225	4	1995	Theme 4: Reprinting of Year 4 Textbook Volume B for English Theme 7: Publications Against Instruction Material for English "ELT NEWS"
226	12	1995	Theme 1: Year 5 Instruction Material Volume B for English Theme 2: Letter by the French Embassy for the Introduction of the French Language in the Primary Education Theme 6: Letter of the German Faculty in the Aristotelian University of Thessalonica
227	13	1995	Theme 2: Instruction Material Year 6 for English 1995-96
228	17	1995	Theme 4: Answer for the Correction of Greece's Map in FUN WAY 1, Volume B Theme 5: Problems Teaching English in Primary Education Theme 6: Teachers' Opinions on the Experimental Material FUN WAY (Memoranda-Reports)
229	19	1995	Theme 3: The receiving of Year 5 Textbook's Design Volume A for English Theme 6: Expenses for the Recording of Year 5 Cassette Tapes for English
230	20	1995	Theme 1: Approval of Reproduction Cassette Tapes FUN WAY 2 for English Theme 2: Expenses for Recording Cassette Tapes, Volumes A and B FUN WAY 2 for English Theme 3: Answers in Letters?? Relevant to the Correction of the Year 4 Greece's Map FUN WAY 1, Volume B
231	21	1995	Theme 2: Allocation Design Year 5 Textbook, Volume B for English
232	26	1995	Theme 6: Problem with the Design of Year 5 Textbook, Volume A for English

233	28	1995	Theme 7: Formation of Panel Producing Material for English in Primary-Work Planning Theme 8: The receiving of Year 5 Transparencies by the APEIRON E.P.E. Company for English Theme 9: Directives Teaching English in Year 6 for the 1995-96 School Year
234	34	1995	Theme 1: Year 6 Instruction Material for English 1996-97 Theme 2: Answer on PEKADE Memorandum Theme 3: Request by the World Movement of Greek-Speaking Women for Consultation on the Book "The Phonetic System of the English Language" Theme 4: Formation of a Committee for Selecting Supporting Material (transcripts, songs ect.) Teaching English in Primary Education Theme English Year 5 Book Design's The receiving (Volume B, Student Book, Work Book) Theme 5: The receiving of Year 5 Textbook's Design Volume A for English (Student Textbook, Teacher Textbook, Workbook) Theme: 6: Allocation for Design Year 6 FUN WAY 3 (Volume A) Theme 7: Appointment of Assessors of Year 6, FUN WAY 3, Volume A for English
235	1	1996	Theme 4: Awareness of the Division for a Protest by the Association of the French Graduates' Association of the University of Southern Greece Theme 6: Letter by the English Graduates of the District of Ioannina (Through the Study Programs Division G2/8189/3-11-1995) Theme 7: School Failure Due to Teaching Two Foreign Languages (Letter by the Teachers of Foreign Languages of the District of Faliro) Theme 8: Teaching Foreign Languages (Conference's Records for French Teachers) Theme 9: Teaching Foreign Languages (Document by the Study Programs Division G2/8890-URGENT and other Documents with Similar Inquires)
236	2	1996	Theme 2: Teaching Foreign Languages (Document by the Study Programs Division G2/8890-URGENT and other Documents with Similar Inquires) Theme 3: School Failure Due to Teaching Two Foreign Languages (Letter by the Teachers of the District of Faliro)
237	4	1996	Theme 4: Teaching Foreign Languages in the Lyceum
238	10	1996	Theme 3: Instruction Textbooks for German in the Gymnasium and the Lyceum 1996-97 School Year
239	11	1996	Theme 7: Subjects Teaching English (Document by PEKADE 31.1.96) Theme 8: Memorandum by the English Teachers Union of Kozani and Grevena Theme 9: Foreign Languages' Tuition Centres (Frontistiria)??
240	12	1996	Theme 7: Subjects Teaching English (Document by PEKADE 31.1.96) Theme 8: Bilingual Schools in Europe (Document 1432/28.2.960) Theme 9: Memorandum by the English Teachers' Union of Kozani and Grevena Theme 10: Association of the Householders of Foreign Languages' Tuition Centres (Frontistiria)
241	14	1996	Theme 7: Curriculum Program for German
242	17	1996	Theme 7: Specifications for the Instruction Textbooks for German in Gymnasium and the Lyceum 1996-97
243	18	1996	Theme 7: Specifications for the Instruction Textbooks for German in Gymnasium and the Lyceum 1996-97
244	1	1996	Theme 4: Reprinting of Year 5, Volume A for English (Student-Teacher Textbook, Workbook)

			Theme 5: Commissioning of the Design Year 6 English FUNWAY 3, Volume A and B for English Theme 6: Recommendation for Photographic Materials' Buy English for Year 6: FUNWAY 3 Volume A for English by the APEIRON E.P.E Company
245	2	1996	Theme 7: Informative Booklet for Anglophone Students by the Ministry of Press
246	3	1996	Theme 3: Appraisal of the Year 6 Textbook, Volume A for English (Student- Teacher Textbook, Workbook)
247	8	1996	Theme 5: Reprinting of Year 4 Textbook for English (Workbook)
248	9	1996	Theme 10: Reprinting of the Year 5 Textbook Volume B for English (Teacher- Student Textbook, Workbook)
249	16	1996	Theme 3: Appraisal of the Year 6 Textbook Volume B for English (Teacher- Student Textbook, Workbook) Theme 4: Recommendation for Transparencies' Buy of the Year 6 Volume B for English by the 'APEIRON E.P.E' Company Theme 5: The receiving of the Design Year 6 Textbook Volume A for English (Student Textbook, Workbook) Theme 6: The receiving of Transparencies of the Year 6 Textbook Volume A for English by the 'APEIRON E.P.E' Company
250	19	1996	Theme 2: Directives for Year 6 Textbook for English Theme 3: Re-appraisal of the Prices for Artists' Payment of the Year 6 Textbook for English
251	21	1996	Theme 5: (P. I.) Recommendation for the Transparencies' Buy of Year 6 Textbook Volume B by the 'APEIRON E.P.E' Company
252	4	1997	Theme 2: Application of the Teaching of English in Levels in the Gymnasium. Clarifications-Recommendations. Theme 3: Modification of Article 32 of the P.D. 376/93 in E.E.L. (Teaching in Levels ect.)-Answers (by the PI) in Relevant Issues Theme 4: Review of the English Timetable in the Gymnasium
253	5	1997	Theme 1: Modification of the Article 32 of the P.D. 376/93 in E.E.L. (Teaching in Levels ect.)-Answers (by the P. I.) in Relevant Issues
254	6	1997	Theme 7: Bilateral Educational Program Between Greece and France
255	7	1997	Theme 5: Awareness and Explanation (of the PI) for the Protocol of the 14 th Gathering of the Permanent Joint Committee between Greece and Germany Theme 6: Printing of the United Curriculum Program for Dimotiko and Gymnasium for English (Completion of the 18/94 Praxis –Cover's Approval) Theme 7: Problems Teaching the German Language
256	20	1997	Theme 3: Approval of the Optional Textbooks for English and French for the Lyceum Theme 5: Teaching Foreign Languages in Year 10 (Answer to the G2/3531/9.6.97 YPEPTH Document) Theme 6:Request for the Introduction of the Slavic Languages in Education (Answer to the G2/22.5.96 YPEPTH Document) Theme 7: Increase of the Teaching Hours for English in Year 8 and 9 Theme 8: Reform in the Curriculum Program for English and French language Theme 9: Answer in Mrs Zehring Letter (Writer of German Textbooks)
257	27	1997	Theme5: Curriculum Program for Foreign Languages (English and French) in the Lyceum
258	33	1997	Theme 6: Reform of the Scientific Council for the Design of a General

			Study Program for the Under the Foundation European Languages Centres (KEG/POKEG)
259	35	1997	Theme 11: Appraisal of the Records for the Selected Optional Textbooks for German in the Lyceum 1997-98 Theme 12: Textbooks in the Gymnasium and the Lyceum English, French and German 1998-99 (Reform of Committees)
	38	1997	Theme 4: Instruction Textbooks Year 9 and 10 in the United Lyceum (for German)
260	2	1997	Theme 6: Appraisal of the Last Two Units of the Year 6 Instruction Material for English (Student-Teacher Textbook and Workbook) Theme 7: The receiving of the Design and Transparencies of the Year 6 Textbook Volume B for English from the 'APEIRON E.P.E' Company Theme 9: Reprinting of the Year 6 Textbook Volume B for English (Student Textbook-Work Book)
252	4	1997	Theme 5: Recommendation for Transparencies' Buy of the Year Textbook Volume B for English from the 'APEIRON E.P.E' Company
253	7	1997	Theme 8: Reprinting of the Year 6 Textbook for English
254	10	1997	Theme 7: Teaching the English Language in Year 3 Theme 8: Answer in Letter Concerning the Instruction Material for English Theme 9: The Receiving of the Design and Transparencies of the Year 6 Textbook Units 9 and 10 for English
255	11	1997	Theme 1: Formation of a Working Team for the English Language Theme 2: Recommendation for Modification of the Ministerial Decision G1/157/23-9-96 Concerning Design's Commissioning of the Year 6 Textbook Volume A-B for English Theme 3: Expenses' Approval for Year 6 Material's Recording for English
256	12	1997	Theme 5: Corrections' Approval of the Year 6 Textbooks for English
257	14	1997	Theme 3: Appraisal of the Reforming Year 4 Instruction Material for English (Student-Teacher Textbook and Workbook) Theme 4: Reproduction of Cassette Tape of the Year 6 Textbooks Volume A and B for English Theme 5: Design's Commissioning for the Reform Year 4 Textbooks Volume A-B for English Theme 6: Recommendation for Transparencies' Buy of the Year 4 Instruction Material (Volume A) for English
258	8	1998	Theme 14: Memo from the Public Pan-Hellenic Teachers' Union for German
259	18	1998	Theme 11: Approval of the "Speaker" CD-ROM for Foreign Languages
260	19	1998	Theme 3: Approval of the "Speaker" CD-ROM for Foreign Language Theme 8: Approval of the Committees' Records for the Optional Textbooks' List for English, French and German Languages
261	20	1998	Theme 2: Approval of the Committees' Records for the Optional Textbooks' List for English, French and German Language
262	24	1998	Theme 14: Reform of Committees Writing Year 11 New Study Programs for English and French` Theme 16: The Teaching of the Foreign Languages in the United Lyceums in the Region of Stuttgart (686/30.6.98 Document from the Consulate General of Greece in Stuttgart) Theme 18: Request from the Italian Faculty for the Teaching of a Second Foreign Language (YPEPTH, Z2/223/8.7.1998) Theme 19: Reform of Committees for Selecting Optional Textbooks for English, French and German in the Gymnasium and the E.L. 1999-2000

263	26	1998	Theme 9: Study Programs for English, French and German Year 10-12 in the United Lyceum 1999-2000 School Year
264	28	1998	Theme 15: Variation from the Curriculum Program Teaching German in the Lyceums of Nuremberg and Bavaria (Germany)
265	35	1998	Theme 13: The Teaching of a Foreign Language in the Country of Reception
266	36	1998	Theme 12: Answers in Teachers' Unions of Foreign Languages
s	7	1998	Theme 1: Appraisal of the Second Part of the Year 4 Revised Instruction Material FUN WAY English 1 (Student-Teacher Textbook and Workbook) Theme 2: Revival of the Instruction Material Year 5 (FUN WAY English 2) 1999-2000
268	12	1998	Theme5: Remaining Subjects: a) The receiving of the Model of the Revised FUN WAY English 1 Student Textbook Volume A
269	14	1998	Theme 5: The receiving of the Model of the Revised FUN WAY English 1 Student Textbook Volume A
270	2	1999	Theme 19: Modification of the Decisions for the Panels' Reform of Curriculum Programs for French and English in the United Lyceum
271	3	1999	Theme18: Reinforcing Teaching in the Mother Tongue Classes Theme 23: Modification on the Recommendation of Committees' Reform for Selecting Instruction Material for French and English Language in the Lyceum Theme 24: Addition of Missed out Criteria for the Selection of Textbooks for French and English Languages in the Gymnasium and the Lyceum
272	9	1999	Theme 2: Instruction Textbooks in the Gymnasium and the Lyceum 1999-2000 Theme 15: Answer to 1146/10-3-99 YPEPTH Document: Teaching the Arabic Language in the Averofeio Gymnasium and Lyceum in Cairo
273	10	1999	Theme 22: Selection of Foreign Software for Adaptation in the Greek Educational System in the Context of the "Kirki" European Program Theme 25: Formulation of Criteria and Reform of Committees Selecting Instruction Textbooks for English, French and German Language
274	14	1999	Theme 3: Approval of the Committees' Records Selecting Optional Textbooks for English, French and German in the Lyceum, 1999-2000
275	18	1999	Theme 4: Approval of the Study Program for English in the United Lyceum Theme 5: Approval (by the Department of Education) of the (PI) Committees' Optional Textbooks' List for English, French and German for the Gymnasium 1999-2000
276	20	1999	Theme 5: Integration of the Arabic Language in the Subjects of General Education in the United Lyceum
277	25	1999	Theme 6: Renewal of the Authorisation Operating Preparatory Units for the German language 1999-2000 Theme 7: The Teaching of the German Language in the Gymnasium
278	29	1999	Theme 5: Reprinting of the 'ALLO FRANCE 2' Year 8 Book, 1999-2000
279	35	1999	Theme 4: Reform of Committees Selecting Optional Textbooks for English, French and German in the Gymnasium and in the United Lyceum, 2000-2001
280	1	1999	Theme 1: Approval of the Design in the Revised Student English FUN WAY 1 Texbook Volume B
281	2	1999	Theme 2: Approval of the Design FUN WAY English 1 Textbook Volume B
282	4	2000	Theme 3: Approval of a New Curriculum Program for French in the United

			Lyceum Theme 6: The Introduction of the Teaching of the Spanish Language
283	7	2000	Theme 3: Teaching and Evaluation of Foreign Languages in the United Lyceum
284	8	2000	Theme 3: Study Programs for the French Language
285	10	2000	Theme 5: Method of Examination for the German Language Theme 6: Curriculum for the German Language as an Elective Subject Theme 7: Teaching the English Language in Levels Theme 8: Marks in English Language Theme 13: Study Programs for the German Language in the Gymnasium
286	11	2000	Theme 3: Regulation of the Used Textbooks Teaching Foreign Languages in the Gymnasium
287	12	2000	Theme 5: Approval of the Committees' List for the Optional Textbooks for Foreign Languages
288	15	2000	Theme 4: Approval of the Committee's List for the Optional Textbooks for German in the United Lyceum, 2000-2001 Theme 5: Approval of the Committee's List for the Optional Textbooks for English in the United Lyceum, 2000-2001
289	19	2000	Theme 6: Reply to the G2/2501/5-7-00 Division Study Programs' Document of the YPEPTH for Foreign Languages' Textbooks in Gymnasium
290	20	2000	Theme 2: Examined and Taught Content Year 11 and 12 for Foreign Languages as a Subject of General Education in the United Lyceum, 2000-2001 Theme 6: Supply and Distribution of Foreign Languages Instruction Textbooks in the Gymnasium
291	23	2000	Theme 5: Foreign Textbooks in the Gymnasium
292	24	2000	Theme 4: Observations on the Education Program's Formulating Between Greece and Albania Theme 5: Directives on the Year 10 Examination's Content for German Language in the United Lyceum
293	25	2000	Theme 8: Addition Thematic Issues in the Taught and Examined Content for English in the United Lyceum
294	5	2001	Theme 3: Approval of the Suitability of the ENGLISH DISCOVERIES Educational Software of the Program "Kirki" Use in Secondary Schools Theme 7: Remaining Issues: a) Reform of the Praxis 31/2000 for the Reform of a Committee Selecting Textbooks for German Language in the United Lyceum 2001-2002
295	7	2001	Theme 10: Remaining Issues: a) Approval of the Program for the Italian Language
296	12	2001	Theme 7: Request for Variations from the French-Greek Faculty Theme 11: Remaining Issues: a) Regulation on the Textbooks Teaching Foreign Languages in the Gymnasium
297	17	2001	Theme 11: Remaining Issues: a) Modification of the Presidential Decree for the Examination in Foreign Languages
298	7	2001	Theme 3: Reform of a Committee for Selection of Supporting Materials (types, songs ect.) Teaching English in Primary Education (Renewal of the Previous Division's Decision, Praxis 34/95) Theme 4: The Teaching of the English Language in Year 3 (Renewal of the Division's Decision, Praxis 10/97)
299	10	2001	Theme 1: Approval of the New Study Programs in Primary Education: Foreign Languages (English)

300	11	2001	Theme 4: Introduction of the English Language in Year 3 – Study Program for English
301	2	2002	Theme 3: Presentation of the Greek Portfolio on Languages
302	7	2002	Theme 2: Application of the Teaching Method ‘SPEAKER’ for Foreign Languages in Secondary Education
303	9	2002	Theme 8: Approval of the Committees’ List for Optional Textbooks for Foreign Languages Theme 9: Remaining Issues: Regulation for the Used Textbooks Teaching Foreign Languages in the Gymnasium
304	20	2002	Theme 9: Reform of Committees for Selecting Optional Textbooks in the Gymnasium and the Lyceum 2003-2004
305	22	2002	Theme 4: Remaining Issues: a) Modification of the President Decree on the Examination in Foreign Languages
306	7	2002	Theme 1: The Integrated Curriculum in Primary Education for English
307	3	2003	Theme 5: Necessity for the Writing of Two Series of the English Language
308	7	2003	Theme 2: Approval of the Committees’ List for Optional Textbooks for Foreign Languages in the Gymnasium and the United Lyceum 2003-2004 Theme 9: Remaining Issues: a) Regulation for the Used Textbooks Teaching Foreign Languages in the Gymnasium
309	14	2003	Theme 5: Pilot Introduction of the Italian Language in Some Gymnasias of the County
310	20	2003	Theme 1: Evaluation of the Writing Models of the Educational Material in the Following Subjects: English Language (Beginners-Advanced), German Language Year 7, French Language Year 9
311	25	2003	Theme 12: Remaining Subjects a) Reform of Committees Selecting Optional Textbooks for Foreign Languages in the Gymnasium and the Lyceum 2004-2005
312	28	2003	Theme 7: Remaining Issues: a) Pilot Application of the Italian Language in the Gymnasium 2004-2005
313	4	2003	Theme 1: a) Year 3 Study Programs for English; b) Criteria for the Evaluation-Selection of Optional Textbooks and Support Material, Teaching English in Year 3; c) Formation of a Committee for Selecting Optional Textbooks and Support Material Teaching English in Year 3; d) Additional Directives for Teaching English in the Whole Day School; e) Professional Development for English Teachers Teaching English in Year 3 Theme 5: Remaining Themes : Recommendation Writing Year 3 Material for English
314	6	2003	Theme 1: a) Ratification of the Assessors’ List for the Writing Material for English in Primary Education; b) Formation of Assessors of the Writing Textbooks and the Support Material for English in Primary Education
315	13	2003	Theme 1: Formation of a Committee for Producing Year 3 Educational Material-Activities Teaching English, 2003-2004 (First Semester) Theme 2: Approval of Directives and Production of Year 3 Material-Activities for English 2003-2004 (First Semester) Theme 3: Formation of a Three-Member Committee for Selecting Models Writing Year Material for English
316	15	2003	Theme 3: A Three-Member Committee for Selecting Year 3 Material for English
317	18	2003	Theme 2: Comments for Improvement of the Revised Year 3 Model for English
318	2	2004	Theme 2: Commissioning Writing Turkish Books for the Gymnasium

			Theme 5: Recommendation Changing the Timeline Program in the Gymnasium in order for Italian to be Included as a Second Foreign Language Theme 6: Remaining Issues: Approval of the Study Programs for Italian in the Italian Faculty of Athens
319	3	2004	Theme 6: Remaining Issues: a) Approval of the Study Programs for Teaching the Italian Language in the Gymnasium (7873/G2/26-1-04 Document from the Study Programs Division of the Secondary Education of YPEPTH
320	4	2004	Theme 7: Approval of the Committee's List for Optional Textbooks for Foreign Languages in the Gymnasium and the United Lyceum 2004-2005
321	10	2004	Theme 8: Evaluation of the Year 9 Writing Model for German in the Gymnasium
322	19	2004	Theme 3: Approval of the Supporting CD-ROM Material for English (Beginners and Advanced) Theme 7: Approval of the Study Programs for Italian Theme 9: Renewal of the Authorisation Operating Preparatory Units of the German language in the German Faculty of Thessalonica 1999-2000
323	20	2004	Theme 2: Approval of the Year 7 Supporting Material for German
324	22	2004	Theme 2: Conference Conduct from the PI entitled: "Foreign Languages in Primary Education and in the Gymnasium"
325	24	2004	Theme 7: Remaining Issues: Replacement of Person in Charge of the Sub-projects "Writing Year 7 Instruction Material for English Beginners" and "Writing Year 8 Instruction Material for English Beginners"
326	25	2004	Theme 5: Evaluation of the Year 9 Model for English
327	27	2004	Theme 10: Evaluation of the Year 8 Model for French
328	29	2004	Theme 2: Approval of Textbooks and Supporting CD-ROM Material for English in the Gymnasium for Beginners and Advanced
329	30	2004	Theme 4: Reform of Committees Selecting Textbooks for Foreign Languages in the Gymnasium and the Lyceum 2004-2005
330	33	2004	Theme 3: Approval of Textbooks and Year 7 Supporting Material for German
331	4	2004	Theme 3: Assessor's Replacement of the Sub-Work (Year 3 Textbook for English) Theme 5: Answer in YPEPTH Document for the Year 3 Suggested Textbooks for English and their Supply Process Theme 8: Reproduction of Year 3-Year 6 AUDIO-CD for English, 2004-2005 (Supplementary Material)
332	16	2004	Theme 2: Congress Conduct by the P. I. Entitled: Foreign Languages in Obligatory Education (Primary-Gymnasium)
333	20	2004	Theme 5: Re-attachment of Members Writing Material for English (Year 5) - Member's Replacement Writing Material for English (Year 6)
334	21	2004	Theme 3: Year 5 Grammar Book for English
335	27	2004	Theme 4: Answer to the Teachers Association of Kozani Teaching English in Primary Education
336	3	2005	Theme 4: Circular-Guidance Teaching English in the Whole Day School Theme 5: Answer to 2781/4-1-2005 YPEPTH Document Requesting Pasxalidis Textbooks for English
337	7	2005	Theme: Introduction of a Second Foreign Language in Primary Education
338	10	2005	Theme 6: Answer to Greek Editors Union for Foreign Textbooks
339	14	2005	Theme 3: Approval of the Year 1 and 2 Curriculum for English in the Whole Day School

			Theme 4: Approval of Framework Learning Foreign Languages in the Whole Day School
340	17	2005	Theme 1: Approval of the Committee's Year 3 Textbooks' Selection for English 2005-2006 Theme 2: Bulletin's Creation for Year 3-6 (4 Audio CD) for English
341	20	2005	Theme 2: a) Curriculum Program for French and German (Year 5-6) b) Criteria for Textbook Selection and Optional Textbook Teaching French and German (Year 5-6)-Formation of Committees for Textbooks' Selection and Optional Textbooks for French and German 2005-2006
342	26	2005	Theme 4: Cartoonist's Replacement in the Sub-works "English for Year 3" and "English for Year 6"
343	28	2005	Theme 4: Approval of the Pilot Program for the Introduction a Second Foreign Language in Primary Education
344	36	2005	Theme 4: Teaching English from Kindergarten
345	38	2005	Theme 3: Pilot Application Teaching French and German as a Second Foreign Language (210 Primary Schools)
346	40	2005	Theme 3: Answer to F/7/900/133510/G1/28-11-2005 for Year 3 Textbooks' Supply for English 2006-07-Formaton of an Evaluation Committee Theme 4: Approval of the Committees' Records for Selecting Textbooks for French and German for the 210 Primary Schools

APPENDIX TWELVE

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL LANGUAGE AGREEMENTS

A.A	International Educational Language Agreements (Government to Government)	YEAR
1	Memorandum of Understanding on Educational Cooperation between the Government of Victoria, Australia and the Government of the Hellenic Republic	1979
2	Agreement between the Victorian Directorate of School Education and the Hellenic Republic on the Appointment of a Greek Language Adviser	1987
3	Establishment of a Joint Standing Committee of Education between the Government of Spain and Victoria, Australia and Agreement of the Participation of Spanish Teachers in the Ministry of Education in the State of Victoria	1988
4	Agreement of Cultural, Educational and Scientific Co-operation between Australia and Spain	1991
5	Memorandum of Cooperation in Education between the Department of Education in the State of Victoria and the Department of Education and Culture in the Republic of Indonesia	1992
6	Memorandum of Understanding on Cooperation in Language Teaching between the Foreign Affairs Department, State Education Commission, People's Republic of China and Directorate of School Education, State of Victoria Australia	1995
7	Memorandum of Cooperation in Education and Training between the Government of Victoria, Australia and the Ministry of Education, Thailand	1995
8	Memorandum of Understanding of Educational Cooperation between the Government of Victoria, Australia and the Government of Greece	2000
9	Memorandum of Understanding on Educational Cooperation between the Department of Education, Employment and Training, Victoria, Australia and the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport, the Ministry of Vocational and Teaching Education, the Ministry of Culture and Higher Education, Republic of Lebanon	2000
10	Memorandum of Understanding of Educational Cooperation between the Department of Education, Employment and Training of Victoria, Australia and the Ministry of Education and Culture of the Republic of Cyprus	2000
11	Memorandum of Understanding in the Field of Education and Training between Ministry of Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and Ministry of Education in Victoria State, Australia	2001
12	Agreement between the Department of Education and Training and the Japan Foundation on the Appointment of a Japanese Language Adviser	2002
13	Memorandum of Understanding of Education and Training between the Government	2002

	of Victoria, Australia and the Ministry of Education, Thailand	
14	Memorandum of Understanding of Education and Training between the Government of Victoria, Australia and the Ministry of Education and Training of the Socialist Republic of Vietnam	2003
15	Memorandum of Understanding of Education and Training between the Government of Victoria, Australia and the Ministry of Education, Lao People's Democratic Republic	2003
16	Memorandum of Understanding on Education, Ministry of Education and Youth, United Arab Emirates and Ministry of Education and Training, State of Victoria, Australia	2004
17	Memorandum of Understanding on Higher Education between Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research, United Arab Emirates and Department of Education and Training, State of Victoria, Australia	2004

APPENDIX THIRTEEN

AN ILLUSTRATIVE CASE OF THE ECO-SYSTEM MODEL (AUSTRALIA)

Note: Based on Kaplan and Baldauf (1997, 313)

Language eco-system	Australia
National Language	English (defacto).
Language of Wider Communication	English.
Minority Languages	Perhaps 150 Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander languages (e.g. Warlpiri, Kala Lagaw Ya, Aranda, Tiwi), Indigenous creoles (e.g. Kriol, Torres Strait Broken), and 150 immigrant languages (e.g. Arabic, Chinese, German, Greek, Italian, Spanish, Vietnamese).
Dying Language	As many as 120 Aboriginal languages have fewer than 10 speakers.
Non-Standard Variety	Aboriginal English, ethnolects of English, Australian sociolects, Torres Strait Broken.
Religious Language	Primarily English, but Church Greek, Classical Arabic, Hebrew, Old Church Slavonic, Coptic, and Latin. The spiritual use of indigenous languages.
Language Death Language Survival	100 or more Aboriginal languages have ceased to be used. Australian English, 10-15 Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander languages and creoles (e.g. Kriol, Warlpiri, Tiwi, Kalaw Kawaw Ya); most immigrant languages survive through continuing immigration, but some learning and intergenerational maintenance occurs.
Language Change	Australian English has borrowed many Aboriginal words. Community languages (e.g. Italian) have borrowed from English as have Aboriginal languages. Grammatical simplification is occurring in community languages more quickly than in their national environment. Australian English is being influenced by other varieties of English (esp. American English).
Language Revival	There are a number of Aboriginal language projects aimed at language reclamation, renewal or revitalisation (e.g. Gumbaynggir, Numbulwar, Warra Kurna, Djabugay, Jilkminggan).
Language Shift	There is a general shift from Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander and immigrant languages to English with some languages (e.g. Dutch) shifting more rapidly than others (e.g. Greek and Italian).

Language Amalgamation	Kriol, Torres Strait Broken.
Language Contact	Mainly internally between English and Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander languages or immigrant languages. Influences of American English (e.g. pop music, movies, television) and British English (e.g. residual status in judiciary, Anglican Church, media).
Literacy Development	ESL programmes such as the Australian Migrant Education Program (AMEP), national policies such as the 1987 National Policy on Languages started work in adult literacy on a federal level, Australian Language and Literacy Policy with adult and child emphases; National Literacy Policy being considered in 1996. Community and Aboriginal languages are being used for literacy development in some school curricula.
Government Agencies	Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission (Federation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Languages), SBS radio and television.
Education Agencies	Each of the eight States and Territories has its own Department of School Education setting language policies and programmes; the Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs provides supplemental funding and funds demonstration programmes. Ethnic community organisations provide “Saturday” school programmes in some States.
Non-Gov't Agencies	Language Australia (National Languages and Literacy Institute of Australia), Applied Linguistics Association of Australia, Australian Linguistics Society, ATESOL, Australian Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations, Goethe Institute, Alliance Française.
Communities of Speakers	Some Aboriginal and immigrant groups live in communities where their languages can be spoken on a daily basis.
Other Bodies	Federation of Ethnic Community Councils of Australia, hundreds of ethnic specific organisations.

APPENDIX FOURTEEN

CHRONOLOGY OF SELECTED KEY EVENTS AFFECTED THE GREEK LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN VICTORIA

1902	Establishment of the first Greek Ethnic School
1959-1960	Commonwealth Immigration Advisory Council (CIAC)
1968	Establishment of the University of Melbourne Greek Students' Club
Late 1960's	Introduction of Modern Greek at the University of New England
1970s	Establishment of Commonwealth Schools Commission
1970	Establishment of the Australian Greek Welfare Society
1971	Introduction of Modern Greek into the Saturday School of Modern Languages
1971	Foundation of the Modern Greek Teachers' Association of Victoria
1972	Acceptance of Modern Greek as a matriculation subject by the Victorian University and Schools Examination Board (VUSEB)
1974	Introduction of Modern Greek at the University of Melbourne
1974	Formation of the Greek Education Committee
1975	Introduction of Modern Greek at the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology
1975	Report on the Inquiry into Schools of High Migrant Density: 1974 Study Based on Schools in New South Wales and Victoria
1976	Report for the 1976-1978 Triennium suggesting that migrant children should have access to education in their early years in their own language
1977	Introduction of Modern Greek at the Prahran College of Advanced Education
1977	Establishment of an Education Office with consular status- appointment of a Consul for Educational Affairs
1978	Galbally Report-establishment of the Commonwealth Migrant Education Program
1978	Formation of the Australian Greek Welfare's Education Liaison Team
1978	Establishment of the Committee on the Teaching of Migrant Languages in Schools
1978	Review of Post-Arrival Programs and Services to Migrants
1978	Establishment of the first Greek bilingual program in Victoria
1979	Establishment of St John's the first Greek full-time school in Victoria
1979	First Educational Agreement between Greece and Victoria
1979	Submission by the Greek Orthodox Community of Melbourne and Victoria to State Education Department Authorities for the introduction of bilingual programs in schools and establishment of a Joint Steering Committee
1982	"Supernumerary LOTE allocation" to Schools on a submission basis
1982-1986	Establishment of another three Greek full-time schools
1983	Fifty community language teachers allocated to schools
1984	Review of the Commonwealth Multicultural Education Program
1984	Greek Curriculum Project published
1985	Publication of "The place of Language Other Than English in Victorian Schools"
1985	Move from the term "Community Languages" to "Languages Other Than English"
1987	Release of the National Languages Policy (NLP)
1987	Inclusion of Modern Greek in the eight priority or key languages of the state of Victoria by the National Languages Policy (NLP)
1987	Establishment of a Ministerial Joint Standing Committee on Education, between Victoria and Greece
1988	Release of the "Curriculum Frameworks" Victoria
1988	Common VCE LOTE Model developed (Board of Studies)
1989	Publication of the Languages Action Plan (LAP) Victoria
1989	Higher Education Plan for Victoria (1989-1991) leads to amalgamation of tertiary programs

1990	Release of a Green Paper (Commonwealth), outlining a national policy for language and literacy
1991	Release of a White Paper “Australia’s Language: The Australia Language and Literacy Policy (ALLP)
1991	Designation of fourteen priority Languages one of which is Modern Greek
1993	Publication of the LOTE Strategy Plan
1994	Publication of a new report on Asian Languages and Australia’s Economic Future
1996	Enactment by the Greek government of Educational legislation dealing with Greek Education Abroad
1998	Formation of the Council of Greeks Abroad (SAE)
2001	Languages for Victoria’s Future
2003	Review of the Commonwealth Other Than English Program