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ABSTRACT

Current trends and issues in second language education are summarized to provide background data for discussion in these areas: language use patterns in Canada and in the world; language education in Canada, with a focus on Alberta's situation (federal and provincial roles in multicultural education and second language study throughout Canada, and language enrollments and program designs in Alberta); international perspectives on language education, in particular in Europe, the United States, and Australia; languages and economic development in Alberta; post-secondary level language programming and enrollment in Alberta; availability of and research on technology-assisted language learning; and research on language acquisition, particularly learning processes, subject matter instruction in a second language, age of acquisition, and time required to develop proficiency. Contains 100 references. (MSE)

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OR

For more information, or print copies, contact: John Sokolowski
Program Manager
International Languages
Curriculum Standards Branch
Alberta Education
11160 Jasper Avenue
Edmonton, Alberta, Canada, T5K 0L2
Telephone: 403–427–2984
Fax: 403–422–3745

Call Toll Free 310–0000

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

Figures

LIST OF TABLES

Tables

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY: TRENDS AND ISSUES IN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

Language Use in Canada and the World

- Close to 10 per cent of the world uses English as a language of habitual use, and English is the second most commonly used language in the world.
- The ten most commonly spoken languages are Mandarin, English, Russian, Spanish, Hindi, Arabic, Portuguese, Bengali, German and Japanese.

Highlights of Canada's linguistic profile:

- One in five Canadians can speak a language other than English or French.
- Immigration is affecting Canada's linguistic makeup.
- The percentage of Canadians with English as a mother tongue has remained relatively constant over the past 40 years. The percentage of Canadians with French as their mother tongue is declining.

Language Education in Canada with a Focus on Alberta

Language education differs significantly from one province to another. The federal government delegates authority for education to provinces and generally does not involve itself with education in languages other than English or French.

Federal and Provincial Roles

Federal government involvement in international language education is minimal.

- Federal commitment to multiculturalism creates a legislative context for the support of international language programming.
- Federal financial support of international language programs is almost non-existent.
- The federal government financially has supported a few initiatives that promote the learning of Asian languages and cultures as well as an English as a Second Language program for newcomers to Canada.

All Canadian provinces show some degree of commitment to second language study.

- International languages are available as in-school subjects of study in virtually all provinces. Most provinces offer legislative or policy support for international languages as subjects of study.
- Most provinces offer legislative or policy support for bilingual or immersion programs.
- Second language study is a required part of the regular school program in most provinces. French is obligatory in Ontario and most of the Atlantic provinces. English is obligatory in Quebec. An international language or French is obligatory in British Columbia.

Focus on Alberta

Second language programs are part of Alberta's history.

- Languages other than English or French have enjoyed legal status as languages of instruction in schools since 1901.
- Alberta pioneered bilingual programs in international languages. Other provinces have since established such programs. These programs are now a successful component of Alberta's school system.

International language enrollments are growing.

- About one in three Alberta high school students enrolls in a second language course.
- In 1995–1996 about 25 per cent of course completions were in a language other than French.
- Enrollments in international language programs have been growing steadily over the last five years.

Attrition in second language programs is significant.

- Attrition in some Alberta high school language courses between grades 10 and 12 is very high, sometimes exceeding 90 per cent.
- High attrition rates mean that some Alberta students do not study a language long enough to develop "survival skills" in the language of study.

Bilingual and immersion programs offer more hours of exposure to the target language.

- Research suggests that time spent studying a language is related to competency developed.
- In certain languages, three years of high school study will not give most students "survival skills" in a language.
- Bilingual and immersion programs give students a magnitude of exposure that is closer to the amount needed to develop second language proficiency.

International Perspectives on Language Education

Europe

Europeans make a significant commitment to language study.

- The study of foreign languages is generally obligatory.
- Foreign languages are usually introduced in mid-primary school.
- A significant number of years are devoted to second language study.
- Course sequencing and continuity of curricula allow smooth transitions between school levels.
- Teachers receive a significant amount of language training.

European governments provide a supportive and encouraging climate for language study.

- The European Commission supports a number of initiatives to improve linguistic competency, both within and outside the school system.
- In various countries, national targets have been set to increase numbers of students studying languages.

Europeans study languages before university.

- Less than 1 per cent of European university students enroll in a beginning level language course, whereas the percentage of North American university students beginning language study at the university level tends to be much higher.

The United States

Decentralized education results in divergent programming.

- Education in the United States is largely left to state control.
- None of the states makes language study a requirement for a general high school diploma.
- Because of state control, and in many cases further decentralization to community or regional levels, language learning opportunities are largely determined by place of residency.
- Only four states make language learning mandatory at the elementary/middle school level.

Americans are currently talking about shortcomings in their system of language education. The challenges in language education include:

- a lack of coordination and an absence of national standards
- a lack of a clear statement of purpose
- a system that fails to address vertical and horizontal discontinuities and articulation between levels
- high levels of attrition
- misunderstandings about the amount of time required for language study.

The United States federal and state governments are showing leadership in system development. Projects to address challenges include:

- developing national standards of assessment
- creating foreign language coordinating bodies (in several states)
- pursuing inter-institutional projects and initiatives such as "The New American—Project 2017."

Australia

Australia articulates language learning policies at the national level.

- Curriculum and program development documents guide and support language education programs.

Australia views languages as a national resource.

- Australia recognizes the value of language learning for economic and political success in the international sphere. This view has resulted in extensive multilingual programming in schools.

Selected Trends and Issues

Languages and Economic Development

International languages play a key role in Alberta's global business strategy.

- Alberta's economy is strongly linked to the economies of other countries.
- Eight of Alberta's ten largest trading partners do not speak English as their primary language of communication.

Communication needs differ by industry sector, company size and geographic area of trade.

- Companies in the service sector show a greater need for foreign language capabilities than those in the goods sector. Increasing service sector exports such as financial services, health and education are components of the Alberta International Export Strategy. The tourist industry increasingly requires second language capabilities to provide a competitive level of service.
- Small business is more likely to rely on the second language capabilities of employees in trading with small business overseas.
- Some emergent markets have very few skilled English speakers.

Other jurisdictions are presenting increasing levels of competition.

- Other jurisdictions are increasingly developing foreign language capabilities.
- If Albertans cannot speak the language of their customers, they may lose business to those who can.

Language Learning at the Post-Secondary Level: Programming and Enrollment

Language learning is becoming decompartmentalized.

Language learning is no longer the sole domain of the linguist. Many post-secondary institutions are combining language study with other programs. Examples include business and hospitality programs.

Interest in international languages is increasing.

- Language/literature program enrollments at the post-secondary level have steadily increased over the past 15 years.
- Trends at the University of Alberta show a decline in French enrollments and an increase in enrollments in other international languages: particularly Spanish, Japanese and Mandarin.
- In 1994–1995, over two-thirds of all second language/literature enrollments at the University of Alberta were in languages other than French.

Technology-Assisted Language Learning

A wide range of technologies is available to assist students with language learning.

- Available computer and video programs range from drill and practice programs to multimedia language programs.

Research supports computers as an effective tool for acquiring languages.

- Computers can encourage students to become self-directed, autonomous learners, and multimedia programs may make language acquisition more efficient, improve learning retention and motivate students.

Rapid technological advancement points to an exciting future for technology-assisted language learning.

- Emerging "intelligent" systems show a promising future for language learning. Such systems will be able to converse with students, recall errors and exhibit a "personality" approaching a "virtual reality" language lab. Prototypes of such a system are currently under development.

Research on Language Acquisition

How do people acquire languages?

- Stephen Krashen suggests languages are acquired, not learned. Language pedagogy should therefore attempt to create a setting where the student will acquire a language much like an infant would. This is accomplished by providing input a little beyond the learner's ability.
- Theodore Higgs suggests learners have different needs at a given level of proficiency. Language novices need a high emphasis on vocabulary and pronunciation. As learners become more proficient, a greater emphasis on grammar is needed.

Research supports learning languages through learning subject matter in the target language.

Generally, languages are acquired most effectively at the middle school level.

Time required to develop a given level of linguistic fluency varies by language and by ability.

- For the average learner, Group I languages (Spanish, French, Italian, etc.) require the least amount of time to learn, while Group IV languages (Arabic, Japanese, Mandarin, Korean) require significantly more time to learn.
- An average learner can achieve survival proficiency in a Group I language after about 240 hours of study. Learners of Group IV languages require at least twice that amount of time (480 hours) to reach this level of proficiency.

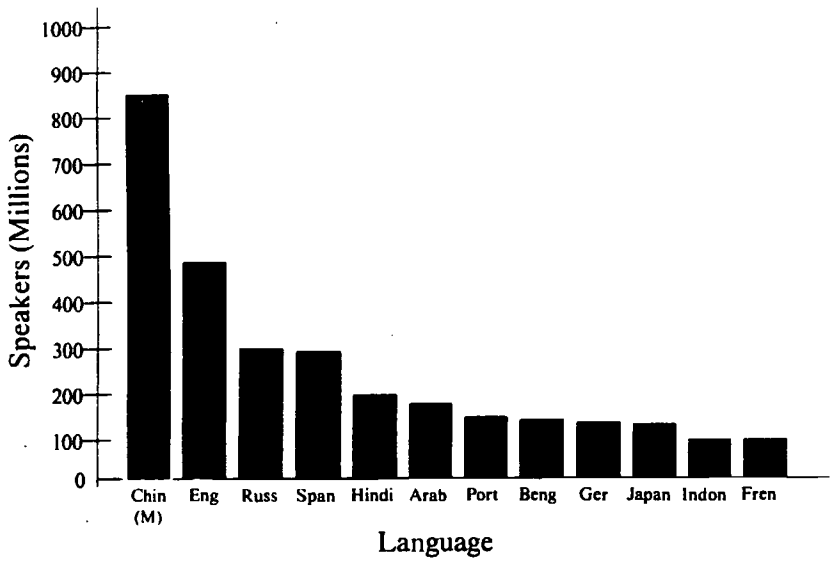
LANGUAGE USE IN CANADA AND THE WORLD

THE WORLD'S MOST COMMONLY USED LANGUAGES

In the past half-century, nations in all corners of the world have attained an unprecedented degree of economic and political interaction. This fact has significant implications for both language use and language education.

- Mandarin is the most commonly used language in the world: over 850 million speakers.
- English is the second most commonly used language: approximately 500 million speakers.
- Russian and Spanish each have just under 300 million speakers.
- Japanese and German languages each have about 150 million speakers.
- Hindi and Arabic each have just under 200 million speakers.
- French is among the top 12 most commonly used languages: approximately 100 million speakers.
- About 9 per cent of the world's current population of about 5.6 billion uses English as a "language of habitual use" (see Figure 1).
- About 2 per cent of the world's current population uses French as a language of habitual use.
- About 45 per cent of the world's population (2.5 billion) does not speak one of the world's top 12 languages of habitual use.

Figure 1
Distribution of the World's 12 Most Common "Languages of Habitual Use" (1991)



Source: *International Perspectives on Foreign Language Teaching*, ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series (Chicago: National Textbook Company, 1991).

CANADA'S CULTURAL AND LINGUISTIC DIVERSITY

Demographic and language use data help us to appreciate the degree of diversity that exists in Alberta and Canada today.

Cultural Diversity: Basic Demographic Facts[1]

- About 42 per cent of Canadians report origins other than French or British.
- Of Canada's current population, 16 per cent were born elsewhere.
- Visible minorities make up roughly 10 per cent of all Canadians nationally, and close to 20 per cent in Canada's three largest cities.
- Canadians of Aboriginal ancestry now account for over 3 per cent of the population.

Language Use in Canada: Changing Realities[2]

During the period 1951–1991, immigration patterns, changing language policies and other socio-economic developments have affected the language use of Canadians. Some of the major trends are highlighted here.

One in five Canadians can speak a non-official language.	• Canadians show a high level of linguistic diversity in that 18 per cent of Canadians (about 5.0 million) are able to speak a language other than English or French.
The largest groupings of non-official language mother tongues are changing.	• Canadians who have a non-official language as their mother tongue have changed considerably over the 40-year period. Ukrainian and German have been replaced by Italian and Chinese as the most frequently reported mother tongues.
Immigration is affecting the linguistic makeup of Canada.	• Immigration has increased the number of Canadians with a non-official language as their mother tongue in the short term and led to growth in the Anglophone population in the longer term.
English as a mother tongue is remaining relatively constant.	• The percentage of Canadians with English as their mother tongue changed very little between 1951 and 1991 (staying at about 60 per cent). However, in Quebec, Anglophones declined from 14 per cent to 9 per cent of the population.

[1]Canadian Heritage, *Annual Report on the Operation of the Canadian Multiculturalism Act, 1993–1994*, 1 (Ottawa: Minister of Supply and Services Canada, 1995).

[2]See Brian Harrison, *Languages in Canada* (Ottawa: Minister of Industry, Science and Technology [responsible for Statistics Canada], 1994).

French as a mother tongue is declining outside Quebec.	• Canadians with French as their mother tongue declined from 29 per cent to 24 per cent of the population between 1951 and 1991. In Quebec, their proportion remained fairly stable at just over 80 per cent of the population, while outside Quebec they declined from 7 per cent to 5 per cent.
The percentage of Canadians who can speak French is remaining stable.	• The percentage of Canadians who can speak French remained at about 32 per cent between 1951 and 1991, while those able to speak English rose slightly, reaching 83 per cent by 1991.
European languages and Chinese are among the most commonly spoken non-official languages.	• Among the non-official languages that Canadians can speak, Italian, German, Chinese and Spanish are by far the most common.
English-French bilingualism is increasing.	• English-French bilingualism rose markedly in Canada between 1951 and 1991. The number of French-English bilingual Canadians more than doubled during the period, rising from 1.7 million to 4.4 million, while the proportion rose from 12 per cent to 16 per cent.

Non-Official Language Capabilities

About one in five Canadians can speak a language other than English or French.

- Over 500,000 Albertans—20 per cent of the population—can speak a language other than English or French.
- Saskatchewan, Ontario and Manitoba exhibit linguistic diversity at levels higher than the national average: in these provinces one in four people speaks a language other than English or French.
- The eastern provinces of Newfoundland, Prince Edward Island, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick exhibit the least amount of linguistic diversity: less than 5 per cent of the population speaks a non-official language.

Table 1
Knowledge of Non-Official Languages in Canada (1991)

	Number ('000)	Per Cent
Canada	**4,981.6**	**18.5**
Newfoundland	8.1	1.4
Prince Edward Island	2.5	1.9
Nova Scotia	31.2	3.5
New Brunswick	15.1	2.1
Quebec	815.8	12.0
Ontario	2,401.2	24.1
Manitoba	277.1	25.7
Saskatchewan	277.1	28.4
Alberta	494.6	19.6
British Columbia	740.6	22.8
Yukon	3.1	11.2
Northwest Territories	27.0	47.1
Canada less Quebec	4,165.8	20.6

Source: Brian Harrison, *Languages in Canada* (Ottawa: Minister of Industry, Science and Technology [responsible for Statistics Canada], 1994).

Mother Tongues

The first language that a person acquires at home during childhood is known as his/her mother tongue. Over the period 1951–1991, there was:

- a noticeable change in the relative numbers of mother-tongue groups and rankings (see Table 2)
- an increase in the numbers reporting Italian as their mother tongue (mainly from 1951 to 1971, when large numbers of people immigrated to Canada from Italy)
- an increase in the numbers reporting German as a mother tongue, but a reduction in the percentage of Canadians with German as their mother tongue
- a reduction in those reporting Ukrainian as a mother tongue
- an increase in those reporting non-European languages as mother tongues (e.g., Chinese, Punjabi).

Table 2
Main Mother Tongues Other than English or French
(Canada, 1951, 1971 and 1991)

Rank	1951		1971		1991	
		Number ('000)		Number ('000)		Number ('000)
1	Ukrainian	352.3	German	561.1	Italian	538.7
2	German	329.3	Italian	538.4	Chinese	516.9
3	Polish	129.2	Ukrainian	309.9	German	490.6
4	Yiddish	103.6	Dutch	144.9	Portuguese	220.6
5	Italian	92.2	Polish	134.8	Ukrainian	201.3
6	Dutch	87.9	Greek	104.5	Polish	200.4
7	Czech & Slovak	45.5	Chinese	94.9	Spanish	187.6
8	Norwegian	43.8	Portuguese	86.9	Punjabi	147.3
9	Magyar (Hungarian)	42.4	Magyar (Hungarian)	86.8	Dutch	146.4
10	Russian	39.2	Croatian, Serbian, etc.	74.2	Greek	133.0

Note: In 1951 and 1971, "Dutch" includes some respondents who reported Flemish and Frisian.

Sources: Statistics Canada, *Mother Tongue*. 1971 Census of Canada, Catalogue No. 92-725, Table 17.
Statistics Canada, *Mother Tongue: 20% Sample Data*. 1991 Census of Canada, Catalogue No. 93-333, Table 2.

Table 3
Population with Mother Tongue Other than English or French
(Canada, 1981 and 1991)

	1981		1991	
	Number ('000)	%	Number ('000)	%
Canada	**3,120.9**	**13.0**	**4,120.8**	**15.3**
Newfoundland	4.1	0.7	5.1	0.9
Prince Edward Island	1.3	1.1	1.6	1.2
Nova Scotia	17.7	2.1	21.8	2.5
New Brunswick	8.5	1.2	9.9	1.4
Quebec	421.3	6.6	598.5	8.8
Ontario	1,456.9	17.1	2,030.2	20.3
Manitoba	230.6	22.7	235.3	21.8
Saskatchewan	164.2	17.2	141.6	14.5
Alberta	352.2	15.9	416.6	16.5
British Columbia	442.0	16.3	633.7	19.5
Yukon	2.4	10.2	2.2	8.0
Northwest Territories	19.7	43.2	24.3	42.3
Canada less Quebec	2,699.6	15.2	3,522.3	17.5

Source: Brian Harrison, *Languages in Canada* (Ottawa: Minister of Industry, Science and Technology [responsible for Statistics Canada], 1994).

Alberta's Population by Mother Tongue Versus Home Language

The number of Albertans who are using English as the language of communication in the home is greater than the number who have reported English as their mother tongue. This seems to indicate that other languages are not being spoken at home, in favour of English.

Mother Tongue

- 83 per cent of Albertans list English as their mother tongue
- 2 per cent of Albertans list French as their mother tongue
- 14 per cent of Albertans list a non-official language as their mother tongue.

Home Language

- 92 per cent of Albertans list English as their home language
- Less than 1 per cent of Albertans list French as their home language
- 7 per cent of Albertans list a non-official language as their home language.

Table 4
Population Characteristics by Mother Tongue
(Alberta, 1991 Census)

Total	**2,545,555**
Single responses	2,478,480
English	2,068,650
French	51,100
Non-official languages	358,735
German	72,790
Chinese	52,635
Ukrainian	38,690
Dutch	18,405
Polish	18,250
Other languages	157,970
Multiple responses	67,070
English and French	11,505
English and non-official language(s)	49,950
French and non-official language(s)	1,025
English, French and non-official language(s)	1,125
Non-official languages	3,465

Source: Statistics Canada, *Selected Characteristics for Census Divisions and Census Subdivisions*. 1991 Census of Canada.

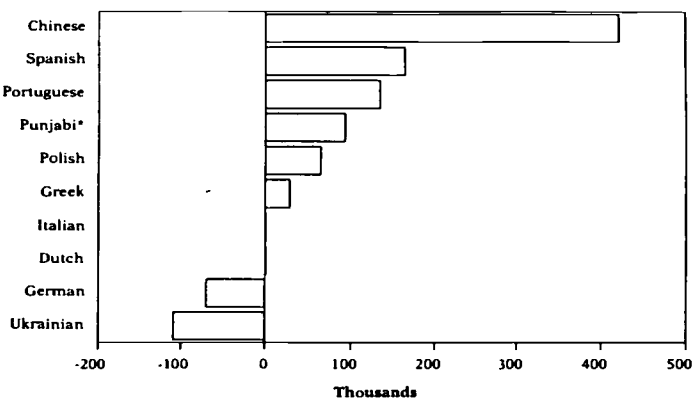
Table 5
Population by Home Language
(Alberta, 1991 Census)

Single responses	2,478,530
English	2,285,525
French	17,805
Non-official languages	175,200
Multiple responses	40,650
English and French	4,445
English and non-official language	34,740
French and non-official language	145
English, French and non-official language	245
Non-official languages	1,075

Source: Statistics Canada, *Selected Characteristics for Census Divisions and Census Subdivisions*. 1991 Census of Canada.

The Changing Linguistic Landscape

Figure 2
Change in Size of the 10 Largest Non-Official Language Groups
(Canada, 1971–1991)



* No data available for Punjabi in 1971. Data from the 1981 Census were used for this language.

Sources: Statistics Canada, *Mother Tongue*. 1971 Census of Canada, Catalogue No. 92-725, Table 7.
Statistics Canada, *Mother Tongue: 20% Sample Data*. 1991 Census of Canada, Catalogue No. 93-333, Table 2.

Highlights of Figure 2:

- Of the ten largest non-official language groups in Canada, Chinese, Spanish and Portuguese have shown the largest growth.
- Punjabi, Polish and Greek language groups have also increased in size.
- Italian and Dutch language groups have remained proportionately about the same size.
- German and Ukrainian language groups have decreased in size.

Table 6
Twenty Most Common Non-Official Languages
(Canada, 1991)

	Ability to Speak		Mother Tongue		Second Language	
Language	**Number ('000)**	**%**	**Number ('000)**	**%**	**Number ('000)**	**%**
Italian	702	2.6	539	2.0	163	0.6
German	685	2.5	491	1.8	194	0.7
Chinese	557	2.1	517	1.9	40	0.1
Spanish	402	1.5	188	0.7	214	0.8
Portuguese	254	0.9	221	0.8	33	0.1
Ukrainian	250	0.9	201	0.7	49	0.2
Polish	240	0.9	200	0.7	40	0.1
Dutch	173	0.6	146	0.5	27	0.1
Punjabi	168	0.6	147	0.5	21	0.1
Arabic	164	0.6	119	0.4	45	0.2
Greek	161	0.6	133	0.5	28	0.1
Tagalog	137	0.5	116	0.4	21	0.1
Vietnamese	113	0.4	84	0.3	29	0.1
Hindi	112	0.4	41	0.2	71	0.3
Hungarian	97	0.4	84	0.3	13	0.0
Cree	94	0.3	82	0.3	12	0.0
Russian	84	0.3	38	0.1	46	0.2
Gujarati	54	0.2	42	0.2	12	0.0
Yiddish	53	0.2	28	0.1	25	0.1
Hebrew	52	0.2	13	0.0	39	0.1

Note: The figures for second language are estimated by subtracting the number with a given mother tongue from the number able to speak the language.

Sources: Statistics Canada, *Knowledge of Languages*. 1991 Census of Canada, Catalogue No. 93-318, Table 6A. Statistics Canada, *Mother Tongue: 20% Sample Data*. 1991 Census of Canada, Catalogue No. 93-333, Table 2.

LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN CANADA

THE FEDERAL ROLE

Legislation and Policy

In Canada, the federal government delegates authority for education to provinces and territorial governments. Each jurisdiction has authority to administer its system of education subject to federal legislation. As a result, systems of education across the country exhibit different and distinct characteristics.

Despite the legislated decentralization of education, a federal role in education exists indirectly through federal legislation that has educational implications at the provincial level. For example, federal legislation governs official languages, guarantees the minority education rights of official language minorities and commits Canada to multiculturalism.

1969 Royal Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism suggests that languages other than English and French be incorporated into the public elementary school curricula.

1971 Pronouncement of a national policy of "multiculturalism within a bilingual framework" provides a legal framework for the support of language programs, materials development and conferences.

1982 The *Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms*, Section 23, guarantees rights of official language minorities to receive primary and secondary school instruction in the minority language.

1988 The *Multiculturalism Act of Canada* states that it is the policy of the government of Canada to "facilitate the acquisition, retention and use of all languages that contribute to the multicultural heritage of Canada."

1989 Draft legislation supports the creation of a *Canadian Heritage Languages Institute*. The Institute, to be located in Edmonton, will focus on language teacher training, program development and research. (To date, the legislation has not been implemented.)

Federal Financial Support for International Language Programs

Official language programs (English and French) receive supplementary federal funding under the terms of the *Protocol for Agreements between the Government of Canada and the Provincial Governments for Minority-Language Education and Second-Language Instruction*. However, federal operational funding for out-of-school international language programs has ceased, and federal funding for in-school international language programs has never been provided. The Department of Canadian Heritage provides a small amount of financial assistance to selected innovative projects and other initiatives supporting the improvement of international language teaching and resources.[3]

The federal government also funds and administers ad hoc educational initiatives and provides funding to special programs such as the Asia Pacific Foundation and its associated programs, and LINC (Language Instruction for Newcomers to Canada), an initiative focused on ESL training.

[3]Canadian Heritage, *Heritage Culture and Languages Program: Guide for Applicants 1991*. Speros Vlassopoulos, Program Officer with Canadian Heritage, described the program as "extremely small" and suggested it is uncertain at this time whether it will survive the federal government's program review.

Involvement of the Asia Pacific Foundation of Canada in Language Programs

Programs of the Asia Pacific Foundation of Canada include business, educational, language and cultural components. The Foundation administers the Pacific 2000 program, which includes an Asian Language and Awareness Fund (ALAF) that supports Asian language initiatives for secondary and post-secondary students. This fund, $2.5 million in 1993–1994, has provided seed money for program development as well as for teacher study tours and Japanese teacher training. The fund has also provided support to the David Lam Centre for International Communication (Simon Fraser University), the Asian Business Studies Program (York University), and other conference and research initiatives.

THE PROVINCIAL ROLE

Legislation and Policy

Table 7, which provides an overview of legislation governing school language and instruction in Canadian provinces, was developed on the basis of statements included in the *School Act* or *Education Act* for each province.

Highlights of Table 7:

- Most provinces have legislative provisions supporting international languages as subjects of study. The exceptions are Newfoundland and Prince Edward Island.

- Six of the ten provinces also have provisions in legislation (or subordinate regulations) that support international language immersion or partial immersion programs. The exceptions are the eastern provinces and Ontario. The absence of international language programs in eastern provinces is likely related to a lack of demand.[4] Although the legislation in New Brunswick allows for international language education, no such language courses are offered, ostensibly because of low demand.

[4]Canadian Education Association, *Heritage Language Programs in Canadian School Boards* (Toronto: Canadian Education Association, 1991), 6.

Table 7
Overview of Legislative Provisions for In-School Language Education by Province

Province	English guaranteed as a language of instruction	English/French minority language education rights guaranteed (S.23 Charter rights)	International languages may be taught as a subject	International languages may be used in an immersion or partial-immersion setting
British Columbia	✓	✓	✓	✓
Alberta	✓	✓	✓	✓
Saskatchewan	✓	✓	✓	✓
Manitoba	✓	✓	✓	✓
Ontario	✓	✓	✓***	
Quebec	*	✓	✓	✓**
New Brunswick	✓	✓	✓	✓
Nova Scotia	✓	✓	✓	
Prince Edward Island	✓	✓		
Newfoundland	✓	✓	✓‡	

* Provisions restricting English as a language of instruction.
** Private ethnic schools receive up to 80 per cent government subsidy.
*** Outside the regular school day at elementary and middle school levels. Part of the regular secondary school program.
‡ International languages are taught at the high school level, although legislation is silent on this.

Highlights of Table 8:

- Second-language study is a mandatory component of school programming in all regions of Canada except for the prairie provinces.

- The study of French is mandatory for a period of time in Ontario and the Atlantic provinces. Generally, French is mandatory from about grades 3/4 through junior high school. Ontario requires that students—in addition to taking French at the upper elementary and junior high school level—take at least one credit of French at the high school level. In Newfoundland, the study of French is not required by provincial regulation, but most school boards require it.

- In Quebec, the study of English is a mandatory component of the regular school program (grades 4 to 11). Students must pass an English proficiency exam to receive a high school diploma. For students enrolled in English schools, the study of French is mandatory (grades 1 through 11).

- British Columbia requires students to study a second language from grade 5 through grade 8. The language studied may be an international language or French.

Table 8
Overview of Mandatory Second Language Study by Province

	BC	AB	SK	MB	ON	PQ	NB	PEI	NS	NFLD
Mandatory study of a second language as a component of the regular program	‡				✓	*	*	✓	✓	✓

✓ French as a second language in grades 3/4 through junior high school.
* English as a second language, or French as a second language where applicable.
‡ French or another language in grades 5 through 8.

Sources: British Columbia Ministry of Education, *Language Education Policy* (Victoria, 1994).
Jody Wilson. *A Brief on Minority Language Education in Canada: Infrastructure, Government Support and Enrollment* (Edmonton: Canadian Institute of Ukrainian Studies, 1993).

As shown in the following chart, provinces that offer international language courses supplement their language legislation with policies that further delineate and clarify the practice and implementation of these programs.

British Columbia	• *Language Education Policy* (British Columbia Ministry of Education, 1994) states: The Government of British Columbia will ensure all students have the opportunity to learn languages that are significant within our communities.
Alberta	• *Language Education Policy for Alberta* (Alberta Education, 1988) states: Alberta Education supports the provision of opportunities for students who wish to acquire or maintain languages other than English or French so that they may have access to a partial immersion (bilingual) program or second language courses in languages other than English or French.
Saskatchewan	• *Heritage Language Education: A Policy Document* (Government of Saskatchewan, 1994) states: Saskatchewan Education, Training and Employment supports the provision of opportunities for students to acquire, maintain, or regain languages, through in-school or out-of-school programming.
Manitoba	• A document entitled *Policy for Heritage Language Instruction* (Manitoba Education and Training, 1993) outlines government responsibilities for and commitments to language education.
Ontario	• *International Languages Curriculum Guideline: Part A: Policy and Program Considerations, Intermediate and Senior Divisions 1990* (Ontario Ministry of Education and Training, 1990) states: . . . the Ministry of Education encourages the teaching of any modern language in which students are interested.

Synopsis of International Language Programs by Province

This section provides an overview of the administration and key features of international language programming in several provinces, and information on funding arrangements and curriculum documents.

British Columbia	In-School Programming	Out-of-School Programming
Program administration	• British Columbia Ministry of Education • Local school divisions	• Multiculturalism BC.
Key features of programming	• School districts develop programs based on need. Implementation is subject to the authorization of the Minister. Programming is divided into three categories: – Grades K–4: programs and curriculum are locally developed and administered. – Grades 5–8: A second language is a required part of the curriculum. If a heritage or international second language is not offered by a school district, then French language is taught. Curriculum must be approved by the Ministry. – Grades 9–12: Curriculum must be provincially approved.	• Varies by community.
Teacher certification requirements	• Normal teacher certification requirements as established by British Columbia Ministry of Education.	• No certification required.
Other program considerations • articulation of curriculum content • evaluative mechanisms	• Curriculum content is articulated by the school division and left to the Ministry for approval (except in K–4, where approval is not required). • For languages taught in the secondary school system with provincially approved curriculum, student language proficiency is determined by provincial examinations. • Currently, Japanese 12 and Mandarin 12 have provincial examinations. A provincial examination for Punjabi is forthcoming. • Students may challenge any language courses taught in school for credit when they are ready to do so.	• Curriculum locally developed. Credit may be granted for these courses, but British Columbia universities do not accept all second languages to fulfill second language entrance requirements (where applicable).[5]
Other features	• A bilingual program is offered in Russian in the Castlegar School District. • A four-year Mandarin immersion program is available in one Vancouver elementary school.	

Source: British Columbia Ministry of Education, *Language Education Policy* (Victoria, 1994).

[5]Jody Wilson, "A Brief on Minority Language Education in Canada: Infrastructure, Government Support and Enrollment." Unpublished essay (Edmonton: Canadian Institute of Ukrainian Studies, November 1993), 29.

Alberta	In-School Programming	Out-of-School Programming
Program administration	• Alberta Education • School boards	• Alberta Community Development.
Key features of programming	• International languages may be taught in a bilingual setting or as a course of study. • Bilingual programs offer 25–50 per cent instruction in the second language and 50–75 per cent instruction in English. • Provisions exist for introducing French into a bilingual program, where English instruction time may be reduced to 35 per cent.	• Varies by community.
Teacher certification requirements	• Teacher certification administered by Alberta Education.	• No certification required. Heritage language teacher certification program offered at Grant MacEwan Community College.
Other program considerations • articulation of curriculum content • evaluative mechanisms	• Provincial curricula are available at the junior high level (grades 7– 9) for German and Ukrainian and at the senior high level (grades 10–12) for Latin, German, Italian, Spanish, Japanese and Ukrainian. Provincial curricula, available for ECS–12, include Ukrainian language arts, Cree and Blackfoot. • Documents to guide local development are available: e.g., *Framework for a Locally Developed Language Arts Curriculum for a Language Other than English or French (ECS–Grade 12).* • Assessment standards are locally developed. Students completing the German bilingual program are able to take the "Deutsches Sprachdiplom" examination, an international achievement test.	• Programs locally developed. No provincially prescribed curriculum or assessment mechanisms.

Saskatchewan	In-School Programming	Out-of-School Programming
Program administration	• Saskatchewan Education, Training and Employment • School divisions	• Saskatchewan Education, Training and Employment.
Key features of programming	• Heritage languages may be taught in a partial immersion (bilingual) setting or as a course of study. At the kindergarten level, the second language may be taught in a full immersion setting. • Programs in languages other than French offer 50 per cent instruction in the second language and 50 per cent instruction in English.	• School divisions are required to provide access to facilities and equipment for programs funded by Saskatchewan Education, Training and Employment.
Teacher certification requirements	• Teachers are certified by Saskatchewan Education, Training and Employment. A heritage language instructor certificate program is offered at both provincial universities for out-of-school teachers or as a supplement for in-school teachers.	
Other program considerations • articulation of curriculum content • evaluative mechanisms	• Provincial curriculum resources are available for the German program and the Ukrainian bilingual program. Other programs are locally developed. • The *Saskatchewan Curriculum Guide for Heritage Languages* provides a framework for community-based, out-of-school programs. • Evaluation of student achievement is done at the local level.	• High school credit is available for out-of-school language courses employing Ministry-approved curriculum.

Sources: Saskatchewan Education, Training and Employment, *Multicultural Education and Heritage Language Education Policies* (Regina, 1994).

Jim Cummins and Marcel Danesi, *Heritage Languages: The Development and Denial of Canada's Linguistic Resources* (Montreal: Our Schools/Our Selves Education Foundation, 1990).

Manitoba	In-School Programming	Out-of-School Programming
Program administration	• Manitoba Education and Training • School divisions	• Manitoba Culture, Heritage and Citizenship.
Key features of programming	Heritage language education is categorized into three areas: 1. Basic heritage language courses. The target language is taught as a subject of study. 2. Bilingual heritage language programs. The target language is used as the language of instruction for not more than 50 per cent of the school day (up to 100 per cent of the time in Kindergarten). 3. Enhanced heritage language courses. These courses are offered to students in middle and senior years who have completed six or more years of a bilingual program; the heritage language is the language of instruction in two or more content areas.	• Varies by community.
Teacher certification requirements	• Teacher certification is administered by Manitoba Education and Training. • Individuals with language expertise can be granted certification to teach specific courses. • A specialized certificate is required to teach French.	
Other program considerations • articulation of curriculum content • evaluative mechanisms	• With regard to curriculum content, Manitoba Education and Training commits to: – identify goals and objectives for particular grade levels – develop curricula and provide program supports – identify and list approved/recommended textbooks and other suitable materials – provide the necessary resources (1) to support curricula development and implementation, and (2) to develop and/or purchase textbooks and materials where necessary. • Evaluation of student achievement is performed at the local level.	• Schools may grant credits for demonstrated language competency.

Source: Manitoba Education and Training, *Funding Policy for Language Programs* (Winnipeg, 1993).

Ontario	In-School Programming	Out-of-School Programming
Program administration	• Ontario Ministry of Education, Continuing Education • School boards	• Ontario Ministry of Education, Continuing Education • Community organizations
Key features of programming	• At the primary and middle school levels: – Ontario International Languages Program, Elementary, (OILPE) does not allow for the teaching of international languages in the regular school day. Language classes may be held on weekends, or after the five-hour school day, or be integrated into a school day extended by a half-hour. – Language classes are limited to a maximum of 2.5 hours per week. – Regulations require implementation of the program by a school board if twenty-five or more parents with children in the board make such a request. • At the secondary school level: – Students are eligible to take international language courses as a subject of study for secondary school credit. – To recognize different entry abilities, language courses are divided into three streams: basic, general and advanced. • Each stream is subject to different assessment standards.	• If offered under the auspices of the OILPE, key features are the same as those on the left.
Teacher certification requirements	• Under the OILPE, instructors are not required to have Ontario certification. • Estimates of the numbers of international language instructors holding provincial certification range from 5 to 13 per cent.[6]	• No provincially prescribed requirements.
Other program considerations • articulation of curriculum content • evaluative mechanisms	• The Ontario Ministry of Education states general curriculum guidelines and content requirements for international language courses. • Standards for evaluating student achievement are presented in policy.[7] • Course-specific curricula and assessment is a local responsibility: school boards and teachers must plan curricula and assessment to suit the circumstances.	

Source: Ontario Ministry of Education and Training, *International Languages Program (Elementary) Resource Guide* (Toronto, 1995).

[6]Canadian Education Association, 29.

[7]Ontario Ministry of Education and Training, *International Languages Curriculum Guideline: Part A: Policy and Program Considerations, Intermediate and Senior Divisions 1990* (Toronto, 1990).

Funding Patterns

Generally, provinces fund international language programs through basic instructional grants and—in at least two provinces—with further supplements. Many provinces also have other provisions, such as transportation grants, to support these programs.

As outlined in the following chart:

- Alberta and British Columbia are the only Western provinces that limit funding of language courses to the basic instruction grant.
- Saskatchewan and Manitoba provide funding for language courses and bilingual programs over and above the basic instruction grant.
- Ontario funds language courses at the primary and middle school level on a formula basis, outside of normal instructional costs.

Note: French language programs in Alberta are supported by basic instruction grants and supplementary federal government funding.[8] For some years, Alberta Education provided further supplements to this funding; however, since 1995–1996, provincial funding is limited to the basic instruction grant.

Funding for In-School International Language Programs

Province	Language Course	Bilingual (Partial Immersion) Language Program	Other Funding Provisions
British Columbia	• basic instruction grant	• basic instruction grant	
Alberta	• basic instruction grant	• until 1995–1996, $123 per student (plus basic instruction grant) where instruction is 25–50 per cent of the day • beginning in 1995–1996, basic instruction grant only	• transportation grant – regular rural transportation grant – $345.00 per urban student • board may charge fees for non-instructional costs of language programs
Saskatchewan[9]	• $215 per student in cases where instruction is 0–24 per cent of the day	• $395 per student where instruction is 50–100 per cent of the day • $303 per student where instruction is 25–49 per cent of the day	• transportation grant of $416 per student per year • one-time grant per student for implementation of a new program, ranging from $47 to $191 per student, depending on instructional time

[8]In 1994–1995, French immersion programs received a combined amount of $332 per student above the basic instruction grant. This represented both the provincial and federal contribution. The 1995–1996 figure will reflect solely the federal contribution.

[9]Wilson, 68.

Manitoba[10]	• $100 per full-time equivalent student for a minimum of 150 minutes per six-day cycle for gr. 4 to sr. 4 • $50 per full-time equivalent student for heritage language instruction in grades 1 to 3	• $250 per full-time equivalent student for 50 per cent of instructional time in the heritage language for grades 1 to 6 (may include French language instruction) • $250 per full-time equivalent kindergarten student for 50 to 100 per cent of instructional time in the heritage language • basic funding only if heritage language is less than 38 per cent of instructional time • $100 per full-time equivalent student for each "enhanced" course offered from gr. 7 to sr. 4, where the heritage language is used as the language of instruction for one or more content areas	
Ontario[11]	• OILPE funding available for extended school day language courses • funding provided for 2.5 hours of language instruction per week • $41 per instructional hour for programs with 25 students or more • grant diminished by $1 per instructional hour for each student less than 25 • boards cover the cost of an extra 30 minutes of instruction; instructor salaries are paid from the grant received • courses offered at the secondary level covered by the basic instruction grant	N/A	N/A

[10]Manitoba Education and Training, *Funding Policy for Language Programs* (Winnipeg, 1993), 2.
[11]Wilson, 111.

International Language Curricula: A Summary by Province

Table 9 indicates the types of international language curricular documents that various provincial ministries of education have developed, as of 1993.

Table 9
International Language Curricular Documents by Province[12]

	British Columbia	Alberta	Saskatchewan	Manitoba	Ontario
General	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Chinese	✓			✓	
German	✓	✓		✓	
Filipino				✓	
Hebrew				✓	
Italian		✓		✓	
Japanese	✓	✓			
Latin		✓			
Portuguese				✓	
Spanish	✓	✓		✓	
Ukrainian		✓	✓	✓	

Western Canadian Protocol for Collaboration in Basic Education (Kindergarten to Grade 12)

On December 10, 1993, Ministers of Education in Western Canada formally agreed to collaborate on matters relating to basic education. One goal of this Western Canadian Protocol is to make optimal use of educational resources. The provinces are consequently cooperating in the development of curriculum in many areas, including languages other than English or French.

FOCUS ON ALBERTA: HISTORY OF SECOND LANGUAGE EDUCATION, ENROLLMENTS AND PROGRAMMING

The Formative Years: Language Education before 1901

Before Alberta became a province in 1905, several historical developments—including immigration, legislation, demographics and the policies of neighbouring Manitoba—laid the foundation for Alberta's approach to language education.

When Manitoba became a province in 1870, its 6,000 French Métis citizens constituted about 50 per cent of the population. Therefore, official status was granted to the French language in Manitoba. The status granted to French, along with other Manitoba provisions for bilingual education enacted in 1897, became the basis for other developments in the Northwest Territories. Alberta was part of the Northwest Territories from 1870 to 1905.

The *North-West Territories Act* (1875) allowed for the election of council members to assist the appointed council members and lieutenant-governor in administering the area. Native people were excluded from the franchise.

[12]Wally Lazaruk, "Heritage Language Curricular Documents and Contact Persons at the Provincial Level," *Mosaic* (Welland, ON: Éditions Soleil Publishing Inc., Spring 1993), 16.

Although exact figures are impossible to determine, the entire population of the Territories in 1881 was probably in the range of 56,000 people.[13] Of these, 1,500 were Caucasian, about 5,500 Métis and the rest Natives.[14] Since the French Métis were more numerous than the English and Scottish Métis,[15] Francophones may have constituted a majority of the enfranchised population before 1881.

The *North-West Territories Act* also made provisions for Catholic schools. Pursuant to these provisions, the Board of Education in 1885 was composed of a predominantly French-speaking Catholic section and an English-speaking Protestant section. The dual composition of the Board initially allowed for considerable flexibility in school programming and the use of French as a language of instruction. However, with increased immigration, the population of the Northwest Territories grew rapidly and French speakers became a small minority. The 1901 Census of Canada shows that districts in the area soon to become the province of Alberta showed a population of 73,000 of which approximately 34,000 (48 per cent) were of British origin, 4,500 (6 per cent) of French origin, 13,400 (18 per cent) of Native origin and 20,000 (27 per cent) of other origins.[16]

In the face of this dramatic influx of English speakers, legislation in 1892 made English the language of instruction in all schools, although a "primary course" in French could still be offered at the elementary level. [17]

The Early 1900s

Legislation in 1901 made provisions for teaching in languages other than English. Boards were given the power to hire individuals to provide such education in circumstances where parents or guardians indicated a willingness. [18] This legislation, however, was tempered with a number of caveats. For example, if other languages were to be taught, they were not to interfere with the normal instructional requirements, and when any extra costs were incurred, parents whose children took advantage of these programs would be charged an extra levy.[19] Further regulations explained that such instruction could take place only between the hours of 3:00 P.M. and 4:00 P.M., and the teacher was required to ensure that students who did not partake in the courses were "profitably employed."[20] Ukrainians and Germans, and perhaps other groups, took advantage of this legislation to have their language taught in schools.

At the turn of the century, second languages had a certain degree of prominence in education. For example, students at the upper secondary levels could substitute a language course for another core course leading to a certificate. One source states, "French and German might now be substituted in the case of the second class certificate for English grammar and rhetoric and chemistry, and for the first class certificate might replace geometry and trigonometry."[21] The University of Alberta (founded in 1908) required Latin for admission to its arts baccalaureate program; this policy later changed to include other languages to fill this requirement.[22]

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[13]Roberto Perin, *Rome in Canada* (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1990), 31.

[14]Manoly Lupul, *The Roman Catholic Church and the North-West School Question* (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1974), 3.

[15]*Ibid.*, 5.

[16]Government of Canada, *Fourth Census of Canada* (Ottawa, 1901), 2–3.

[17]*Ordinance to Amend and Consolidate as Amended the Ordinances Respecting Schools*, No. 22 of 1892, Section 83(1).

[18]*An Ordinance Respecting Schools*, 1901, Chapter 29, Section 136.

[19]*Ibid.*, S. 136(3).

[20]*Ibid.*

[21]Douglas Parker, *Into the Nineties: Heritage Language Education for the Next Decade* (Edmonton: Alberta Education, Language Services Branch, 1990), 5 (quoting from *Modern Language Instruction in Canada*, Vol. II, 1928).

[22]*Ibid.*, 5.

In 1897, as a result of a compromise on French Catholic educational rights, Manitoba enacted legislation allowing for bilingual instruction in any language where ten of the students in a school spoke French or any other language. Although there was no legislative provision for bilingual education in Alberta, the Manitoba model and the 1901 provision for "other language" instruction inspired a movement in Alberta to establish bilingual schools.

This movement was firmly resisted by the Department of Education. For instance, in 1913 the Department of Education cancelled the permits of several Ukrainian teachers on charges that they lacked the required command of English and had been recruited by organizations promoting the use of Ukrainian in Ukrainian school districts.[23] The campaign against bilingualism extended to other language groups also. The department closed a German-Lutheran school because it did not offer "efficient instruction."[24] There was opposition to bilingualism among elected officials as well; on March 30, 1915, the Alberta Legislature passed a motion denouncing bilingualism in schools:

> That this House place itself on record as being opposed to bilingualism in any form in the school system of Alberta, and as [English] being the only language permitted to be used as the medium of instruction in the schools of Alberta . . .

1920–1960

From 1920 to 1960, the linguistic and cultural assimilation of minorities became one of the main goals of schooling in Western Canada. However, mother tongue instruction in languages other than French continued under the 1901 provisions. The government and the ruling class responded to such instruction with benign indifference at best, and focused and effective opposition at worst. Throughout most of this century, Alberta has had a large majority of English speakers, a small Francophone minority and a large minority of speakers of other languages. This demo-linguistic make-up has remained relatively constant over time.

A Prelude to Change: The 1960s

A shift in social attitudes toward language and ethnicity brought change to language education in Alberta in the 1950s and 1960s. In the 1950s, courses in Ukrainian as a second language were introduced in Alberta schools. An amendment to the *School Act* in 1964 authorized French as the language of instruction for Francophones in grades 1–9. Amendments in 1969 and 1970 enabled a board to provide French instruction in any or all of its schools, to a maximum of 50 per cent of the instructional time in each school day.

The Advent of Bilingual Programs and Other Second Language Programs, French Immersion Programs and Francophone Schooling

These amendments, combined with the results of the Royal Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism, created an atmosphere that was favourable to the linguistic aspirations of non-French minority groups. In 1971, provisions for "other" language instruction were accorded to all linguistic groups. School boards could now offer up to 50 per cent of instruction in languages other than English.[25] Alberta was the first province in Canada to enact such legislation, but Manitoba and Saskatchewan soon followed.

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[23]John Sokołowski, "Ukrainian Bilingual Education," in *Encyclopedia of Ukraine*, Vol. 5, Ed. Danylo Husar Struk (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1993).

[24]*Ibid.*

[25]Manfred Prokop, "A Historical View of Legislation Governing Second Languages in Alberta Schools," *Alberta Modern Language Journal*, 27:1 (September 1990).

Pursuant to this legislation, a pilot Ukrainian Bilingual Program was initiated in 1974. Subsequently, there have been bilingual programs established with instruction in the Hebrew, German, Arabic, Mandarin and Polish languages.[26] In the 1970s and 1980s, provincially developed second language programs in Ukrainian, Spanish (1982) and Italian (1985) were added to the existing provincially developed language programs (French, German and Latin). Locally developed courses in other languages were also implemented at the junior and senior high school levels.

The Language Services Branch of Alberta Education was set up in 1978 to support all second language programs. As of 1997, this branch continues to support French language programming, and the Curriculum Standards Branch is responsible for languages other than French.

Until 1976, French language programs could probably best be described as "partial immersion" programs. In 1976, the regulation restricting French instruction to 50 per cent or less of all instruction was superseded by a new regulation that set minimum requirements for English language instruction and allowed French to be the language of instruction for the greater percentage of classroom time.

The adoption of the *Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms (1982)* accorded rights to members of minority official language communities with respect to official language instruction in schools. In Alberta, the Francophone community is eligible under Section 23 of the *Charter* to have access to French language programs where numbers warrant.[27] This provision has allowed for the creation of French language schools that operate predominantly in French, with only a minimal requirement for the teaching of English language arts. The first French language schools based on Section 23 criteria opened in 1983 in Edmonton (École Maurice Lavallée) and Calgary (École St. Antoine)[28]. Francophone school authorities (boards), based on Section 23 criteria, were in place by 1994.

Native Language Education[29]

The attitude of Alberta educators toward Native languages and cultures has changed gradually through the years. Before 1950, the federal government was responsible for the education of status Indians, and they usually contracted with various religious institutions to educate Native children in residential schools. In this milieu, the speaking or teaching of Native languages was forbidden, and Native cultures were largely ignored. The number of residential schools gradually declined, and provincial school boards were encouraged to assume a greater role in educating Native children in provincial schools. In the 1970s, the federal government, in response to Native demands, developed a policy of Native control over the education of their children. Today, schooling in Native communities can range from federally supported schools (on reserves and in remote areas) to provincially supported schools with varying degrees of local control.

After extensive discussions with Native people, Alberta Education adopted a Native Education Policy (1987), which, among other things, committed the province to assist school boards and Native peoples in developing programs for the teaching of Native languages. Cree and Blackfoot language and culture programs were developed and approved for use in Alberta schools in 1989 and 1991, respectively. The Native Education Project helps local boards to develop learning resources for Native languages.

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[26]Hebrew in 1975, German in 1978, Arabic and Mandarin in 1982, Polish in 1984.

[27]Alberta Education, *Language Education Policy for Alberta* (Edmonton, 1988).

[28]Angeline Martel, *Official Language Minority Education Rights in Canada: From Instruction to Management* (Ottawa: Office of the Commissioner of Official Languages, 1991), 96.

[29]See John Sokolowski and Mitsuko Oishi, "Native Language and Culture Programs in Alberta Provincial Schools: A Brief Overview," *Alberta Modern Language Journal*, 30 (1993); also Alberta Education, *Policy Statement on Native Education in Alberta* (Edmonton, 1987).

Language Education Policy

A document entitled *Language Education Policy for Alberta* (1988) provides the framework for the development of language programs in the school system. This policy statement commits Alberta Education to:

- ensure that all Alberta students have the opportunity to achieve a high level of proficiency in the English language
- develop and make available programs to fulfill the rights of Francophone Albertans who qualify under Section 23 of the *Charter of Rights and Freedoms* to have their children educated in French
- provide opportunities for English-speaking students to learn French
- provide opportunities for students to learn a range of languages in addition to English or French.

ENROLLMENT PATTERNS IN LANGUAGE EDUCATION PROGRAMS*

French Language Programs

The Francophone program provides Albertans whose mother tongue is French with instruction in their own language. The program is intended for children of eligible families under Section 23 of the *Charter of Rights and Freedoms*. Enrollment in this program has increased from 2,665 in 1990/91 to 3,063 in 1995/96. Francophone language program enrollments account for only 1.7 per cent of all French language program enrollments.

French Immersion programs enable English-speaking students to learn and become proficient in French. Enrollment in French Immersion was fairly constant in the early 1990s (about 28,000–29,000 per year), but fell from 28,802 in 1994/95 to 27,226 in 1995/96. French Immersion accounted for 15.1 per cent of all language program enrollments in 1995/96.

French as a Second Language (FSL) programs enable students to study French as a "subject," similar to other academic courses. This is the most widely accessed French language program in Alberta, with enrollment of 150,221 in 1995/96. FSL accounted for 83.2 per cent of all French language program enrollments in 1995/96, and about 85 per cent of all second language programs at the high school level.

Table 10
Enrollments in French Language Programs
(Alberta, 1990/91–1995/96)

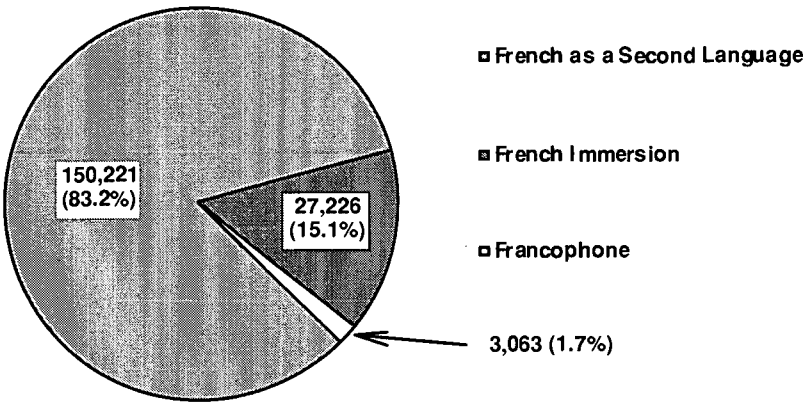
Year	French as a Second Language	French Immersion	Francophone	Total
1990/91	167,751	27,815	2,665	198,231
1991/92	169,995	28,768	2,696	201,459
1992/93	172,378	28,168	3,042	203,588
1993/94	174,457	28,307	2,855	205,619
1994/95	159,698	28,802	2,764	191,264
1995/96	150,221	27,226	3,063	180,510

Total enrollments in French language programs increased steadily from 1990/91 to 1993/94, and have since fallen by 12.2 per cent (from 205,619 in 1993/94 to 180,510 in 1995/96).

Sources: Language Services Branch and Curriculum Standards Branch, Alberta Education

*Adapted from *Education in Alberta: Facts and Figures, 1996* (Alberta Education).

Figure 3
Enrollments in French Language Programs
(Alberta, 1995/96)



Source: Language Services Branch, Alberta Education.

ESL, International and Native Language Programs

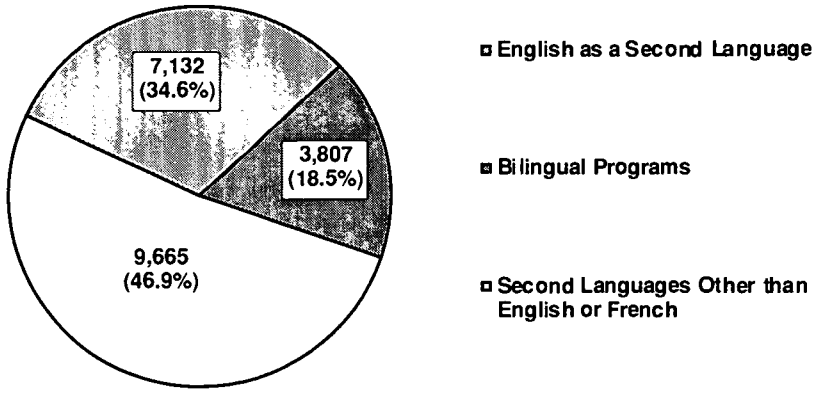
In addition to ensuring that all students have the opportunity to achieve a high level of proficiency in either or both official languages, Alberta's *Language Education Policy* (1988) ensures that students have access to programs for languages other than English or French.

ESL programs offer English language instruction to recent immigrants who are non-English speaking. Bilingual programs (partial immersion) provide instruction in particular languages for at least one subject in addition to the language arts program in the specified language. Programs are available for Arabic, Chinese, German, Hebrew/Yiddish, Polish and Ukrainian. Other second language programs offered in Alberta include Arabic, Blackfoot, Chinese, Cree, German, Hebrew/Yiddish, Japanese, Polish and Ukrainian.

Total enrollments in ESL, international and Native language programs in 1995/96 was 20,604, an increase of 15 per cent since 1990/91.

Figure 4 shows enrollments in ESL, international and Native language programs for 1995/96 and Table 11 shows enrollment trends for these programs since 1990/91.

Figure 4
Enrollments in ESL, International and Native Language Programs
(Alberta, 1995/96)



Sources: Language Services Branch and Curriculum Standards Branch, Alberta Education.

Table 11
Enrollments in ESL, International and Native Language Programs
(Alberta, 1990/91–1995/96)

Year	English as a Second Language[1]	Bilingual Programs[1]	Second Languages Other than French[2]	Total
1990/91	7,944	3,245	6,679	17,868
1991/92	8,544	3,360	6,752	18,656
1992/93	7,921	3,148	7,789	18,858
1993/94	7,207	3,112	8,696	19,015
1994/95	6,984	3,747	9,051	19,782
1995/96	7,132	3,807	9,665	20,604

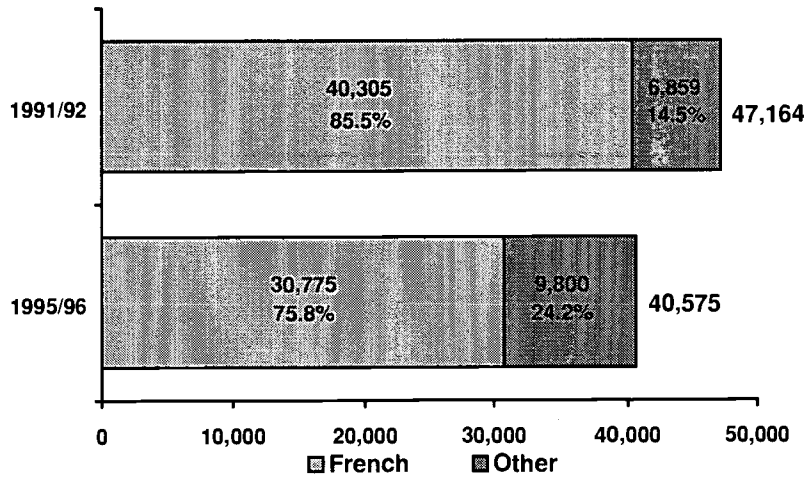
From 1990/91 to 1995/96, enrollments in bilingual programs and other second language programs have increased, while enrollments in ESL programs have fallen.

Notes: 1. Includes enrollments at all levels (elementary, junior and senior high).
2. Includes only course completions at the high school level.

Source: Language Services Branch, Alberta Education.

Trends in language course completions at the high school level are consistent with overall directions for language programs in the K–12 school system. As illustrated by Figure 5, French language high school course completions between 1991/92 and 1995/96 fell from 40,305 to 30,775, a decrease of about 24 per cent. Over this same period, high school course completions in other languages increased from 6,859 to 9,800, an increase of about 43 per cent.

Figure 5
High School Course Completions, French and Other Languages
(Alberta, 1991/92 and 1995/96)



In recent years, high school course completions in the French language have decreased, while course completions in other languages have increased.

Source: Language Services Branch, Alberta Education.

Tables 12 and 13 provide detailed information on high school course completions in French and other languages in recent years.

Table 12
French Language Course Completions
(Alberta, 1991/92 and 1995/96)

Courses	1991/92	1995/96
Français 10–20–30	420	453
Français 13–23–33	---	68
French 10–20–30	9,792	1,770
French 10–20–30 (New)	15	22,271
French 10N–20N–30N (9 Year)	7,266	749
French 10S–20S–30S (6 Year)	6,819	182
French 13	---	786
French 31A–B–C	---	1,559
French Language Arts 10–20–30	2,274	2,937
Total	**40,305**	**30,775**

Total course completions for high school level French language courses dropped from 40,305 in 1991/92 to 30,775 in 1995/96.

Source: Language Services Branch, Alberta Education.

Table 13
High School Course Completions for Selected Language Courses
(Alberta, 1991/92–1995/96)

Course Group	1991/92	1992/93	1993/94	1994/95	1995/96
Arabic [1]	24	40	70	68	58
Blackfoot [2]	97	124	190	238	239
Chinese [3]	895	1,002	1,087	1,167	1,260
Cree [4]	272	294	472	542	409
German [5]	2,984	3,099	3,230	3,303	3,130
Greek 15–25–35	39	60	95	71	80
Hebrew 15–25–35	11	25	42	33	31
Italian 10–20–30	443	520	499	493	482
Japanese [6]	452	543	584	726	877
Latin 10–20–30	233	208	266	80	238
Native Studies 25	---	---	---	14	7
Polish 15–25–35	107	74	133	230	142
Portuguese 15–25–35	78	61	58	47	50
Spanish 10–20–30	870	1,463	1,681	1,751	2,422
Swedish 15–25–35	15	13	13	15	14
Ukrainian [7]	200	234	271	270	271
Total	**6,752**	**7,789**	**8,696**	**9,051**	**9,665**

High school course completions for languages other than English or French increased by 43 per cent from 1991/92 to 1995/96. The most frequently accessed languages are German, Spanish, Chinese and Japanese. Of these, Spanish and Japanese have shown the most rapid growth in recent years.

Notes: 1. Includes Arabic 15–25–35 and Arabic Language Arts 15–25–35.
2. Includes Blackfoot 25, Blackfoot Language and Culture 10–20–30 and Blackfoot Studies 15–25–35.
3. Includes Chinese (Mandarin) Language Arts 15–25–35, Chinese 15–25–35 and Chinese Studies 15–25–35, and Chinese (Cantonese) 15–25–35.
4. Includes Cree 15–25–35 and Cree Language and Culture 10–20–30.
5. Includes German 10–20–30, German 31 and German Language and Literature 15–25–35.
6. Includes Japanese 10–20–30 and Japanese 15–25–35.
7. Includes Ukrainian 10–20–30 and Ukrainian 10S–20S–30S (Six-Year).

Source: Language Services Branch, Alberta Education.

Provincial Support for Language Programming

Table 14 outlines curriculum development, teaching resource development, resource authorization, exchanges and other aspects of Alberta Education's involvement with and support for language programming.

Highlights of Table 14:

- Provincial curriculum has been developed for Blackfoot, Cree, German, Italian, Japanese, Latin, Spanish and Ukrainian as a Second Language, and Ukrainian Language Arts.
- Generic guidelines have been prepared for several language programs that do not have a provincial curriculum.
- Alberta Education supports learning/teaching resource development for the Ukrainian, Japanese, German, Blackfoot and Cree language programs.
- Agreements are in place for German and Japanese exchange programs.
- Alberta Education authorizes resources for language programs that have a provincial curriculum and, through the services of a German consultant provided by the German government, for locally developed German bilingual programs.

Table 14
Alberta Education's Support for Language Programming (1997)

Program	Provincial Curriculum (with Year of Development)	Provincial Generic Guidelines	Support for Learning/ Teaching Resource Development	Resource Selection/ Authorization	Exchanges	Inter-national Agreements
Arabic		*				
Arabic Bilingual		*				
Blackfoot	1992		*	*		
Cree	1992		*	*		
Chinese		*				
German	1984		*	*	*	*
German Bilingual		*	*	*	*	*
Hebrew Bilingual		*				
Italian	1985			*		
Japanese	1995		*	*	*	*
Latin	1985			*		
Mandarin Bilingual		*				
Polish		*				
Polish Bilingual		*				
Portuguese		*				
Spanish	1982			*		
Ukrainian	1981			*		*
Ukrainian Bilingual	1991		*	*		*

Source: Curriculum Standards Branch, Alberta Education.

Hours of Language Study

Research studies have indicated that time spent studying a language correlates with the level of linguistic competence achieved. Alberta students who enroll in a high school language course for three years are exposed to the target language for approximately 375 hours, which is enough time to achieve basic survival skills in some European languages (Asian languages require more time), but clearly not enough time to develop limited or professional working proficiency. Bilingual, immersion and extended language programs provide for more time, as indicated below:

Program Type	Approximate Contact Hours
Three-year high school program	375
Bilingual program (K–12)	2,500–4,800
Immersion program (K–12)	10,000+
Six-year language program (7–12)	750

The relationship between time spent studying a language and resulting proficiency levels is discussed further in the final section of this report.

Attrition

In many international language courses, attrition rates are high between grades 10 and 12. Table 15 tracks students who completed a 10/15-level second language course in the 1993/94 school year and then completed the 20/25 and 30/35-level by the end of the 1995/96 school year. High attrition means that, in some courses, students do not stay long enough to develop survival skills in the language.

Table 15
Attrition in Selected Second Language Course Completions
(Alberta, 1993/94–1995/96)

	Number of Students			
Course Name	**1993/94 Level 10/15**	**1993/94 to 1995/96 Level 20/25**	**1993/94 to 1995/96 Level 30/35**	**Attrition Rate**
Arabic (15–25–35)	19	13	8	**58%**
Blackfoot Language & Culture (10–20–30)	112	24	7	**94%**
Chinese (Mandarin) LA (15–25–35)	21	18	17	**19%**
Chinese (15–25–35)	428	307	244	**43%**
Cree Language & Culture (10–20–30)	245	55	7	**97%**
German (10–20–30)	1,751	849	548	**69%**
Greek (15–25–35)	34	33	30	**12%**
Hebrew (15–25–35)	22	18	16	**27%**
Italian (10–20–30)	253	144	108	**57%**
Japanese (15–25–35)	323	132	76	**76%**
Japanese (10–20–30)	29	17	11	**62%**
Latin (10–20–30)	214	24	9	**96%**
Polish (15–25–35)	33	32	30	**9%**
Portuguese (15–25–35)	23	19	18	**22%**
Spanish (10–20–30)	898	396	248	**72%**
Ukrainian (10–20–30)	120	75	57	**52%**
Ukrainian (10S–20S–30S)	13	10	8	**38%**

Note: Students have been counted only once for completing a specific course, even if they completed that course more than once.

Source: Educational Information Services, Alberta Education.

INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVES ON LANGUAGE EDUCATION

EUROPE

Many European countries successfully develop the linguistic competency of a significant portion of their population. Many Europeans can effectively communicate in two, three or even four languages. This success is not, as some might suggest, the accidental by-product of geographical proximity to other languages and cultures. In large part, it is the result of a highly developed and well articulated system of language education.

Europeans widely accept the need to know one or more foreign languages. They are committed to second language programming in schools and other language-related initiatives. The goal of multilingualism is supported by most policy-makers in almost all European countries.

Key Features of Foreign Language Study in European Primary and Secondary Schools

Obligatory Study of a Foreign Language

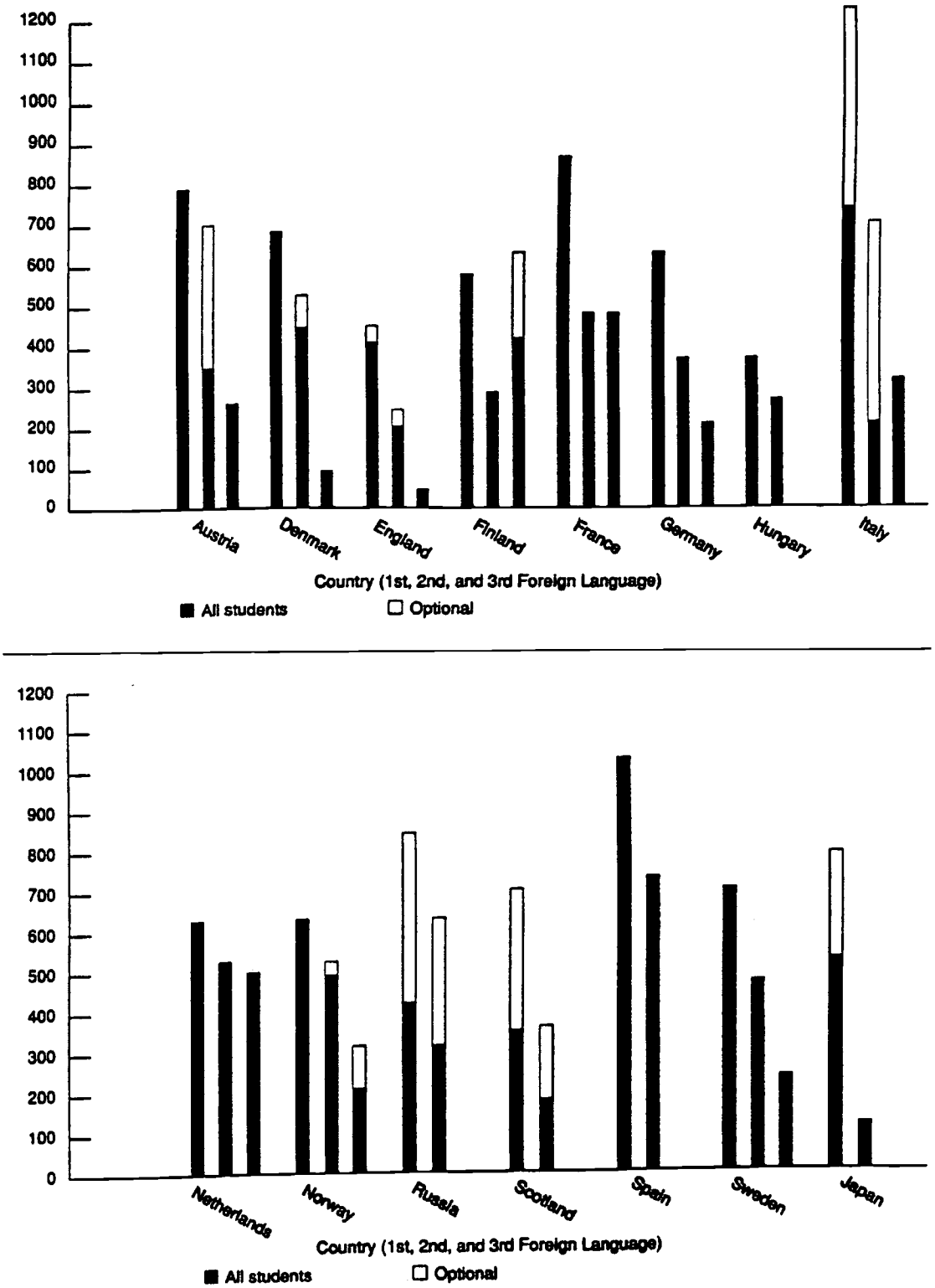
The study of at least one foreign language in the primary or secondary school system is obligatory in virtually all European countries. Policies differ regarding the age at which foreign languages are introduced, but the norm is between 8 and 10 years of age.[30]

Several countries require a knowledge of two foreign languages for entry to the upper secondary school; in the Netherlands, the requirement is for three foreign languages. Currently, there is a debate going on about whether the study of a second foreign language should be made obligatory.

Figure 6 shows the extent of foreign language study in the primary and secondary school systems of Europe. The language most commonly studied is English. However, students in France typically learn German, and students in Spain frequently study French.

[30]European Commission, *Education Across the European Union—Statistics and Indicators* (Luxembourg: Office des publications officielles des Communautés européennes, 1995).

Figure 6
Europe: Total Hours of First, Second and Third Foreign Language Teaching (1994)



Source: Rune Bergentoft, "Foreign Language Instruction: A Comparative Perspective," *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 540 (1994), 16–17.

Figure 7
Europe: Ages When First Foreign Language Studied (1994)

COUNTRY	AGE														COMMENT
	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	
Austria	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨									Some experimental schools offer English from the age of 6 but the general start of FL teaching is expected to remain at age 8. In March 1993, the Minister of Ed. took initiative to intensify FL learning on all levels.
Denmark					▨	▨					▨	▨	▨		Plans to start at 10.
England						▨	▨		▨	▨					One FL compulsory for all students aged 11–14 from 1992. The requirement will be extended to 16 from 1995. (In 1993 about 2/3 students take an FL for 5 years.)
Finland				▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨		Starting age will probably be subject to local decisions.
France				▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	Will start at the age of 9 from 1999.
Germany					▨	▨									Several experiments with earlier start are going on. Minimum age is 5–6 years.
Hungary				▨	▨	▨					▨	▨	▨	▨	Starting normally 9 or 10 but earlier start possible. Duration of studies of the FL is 5–12 years.
Italy			▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨			▨	▨	▨		The start from age 8 was introduced in 1992–93. In some types of school FL teaching continues after age 15.
Netherlands					▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨			For minimum 3 years and maximum 8 years. By and large, the schools are free to choose the number of weekly hours.
Norway		▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨		Starting age 7, 8 or 9, depending on decision taken on local level.
Russia				▨	▨	▨					▨				Starting age 9 or 10 (10 to 12 in 1991), 7 at specialized schools. Taught 10 years at specialized schools.
Scotland					▨	▨									There are pilot projects to introduce the teaching of an FL from age 10.
Spain			▨	▨	▨							▨			The Spanish educational system is being restructured as a consequence of the Education Reform Act of 1990.
Sweden		▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨		Proposal expected to make start at 7, 8 or 9, depending on local decision.
Japan							▨	▨			▨	▨			Optional for six years or more. Earlier start being discussed.

Note: ▨ Indicates experiments, plans or recent decisions for change.

Source: Rune Bergentoft, "Foreign Language Instruction: A Comparative Perspective," *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 532 (1994), 13.

A Significant Number of Years Devoted to Foreign Language Study

In a majority of European countries, the first foreign language is studied for eight to ten years. The second foreign language is usually studied for a shorter period of time than the first, usually one to four years. Table 16 shows the cumulative number of hours of foreign language study, from the first year of study to the highest grade before university.

Highlights of Table 16:

- Countries with English as a mother tongue tend to devote less time to foreign language teaching.
- Countries like Spain, Germany and Russia normally concentrate on two foreign languages. France is an exception. Smaller countries often cover three languages.
- Some countries—France, Spain and the Netherlands—have a fixed number of foreign language study periods common to all students of a particular major or concentration, while others—the majority of the countries concerned—give students individual options when it comes to the amount of study time they will take.

Table 16
Europe: Total Hours for First, Second and Third Foreign Language Teaching (1994)

	First Language		Second Language		Third Language	
Country	Required	Optional	Required	Optional	Required	Optional
Austria	787		350	700	262	
Denmark	682		446	525	94	
England	408	449	204	245	41	
Finland	577		288		420	630
France	866		481		481	
Germany	630		368		210	
Hungary	368		268		—	
Italy	735	1,225	210	700	315	
Netherlands	629		527		500	
Norway	630		491	525	210	315
Russia	420	840	315	630	—	
Scotland	350	700	180	360	—	
Spain	1,021		729		—	
Sweden	700		470		235	

Note: "First Language" refers to the first foreign language.

Source: Rune Bergentoft, "Foreign Language Instruction: A Comparative Perspective," *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 540 (1994), 18.

Teacher Certification Requirements, Curriculum and Assessment

Generally, foreign language teachers in Europe have taken two to five years of university studies in the language they teach. Some countries—such as the United Kingdom and Scotland—include a year's sojourn abroad as a requirement for becoming a certified foreign language teacher. Continuity in curricula across levels prevents students who have already studied the language from starting again at the beginning. Attempts are being made to create a common scale of language proficiency. It is reported that within a few years this developmental work will lead to increased transparency and coherence in objectives, assessment and certification.

Developing Linguistic Competence Outside the Primary and Secondary School System

ERASMUS, LINGUA and TEMPUS [31]

Through the efforts of the European Commission, a number of initiatives have been developed to help individuals outside the school system learn another language. Three of these initiatives include: ERASMUS (European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students), LINGUA (the Latin word for language) and TEMPUS (Trans-European Mobility Program for University Studies).

ERASMUS is designed to promote student mobility and cooperation in higher education through student and teacher exchanges. Grants and funding are available for students to study abroad for credit as well as for teachers to do internships and make study visits abroad. The ultimate goal of ERASMUS is to ensure that all European Community students in post-secondary education—not just those studying language—are able to pursue their degree in another member state for at least three months.

LINGUA was created for those who do not have the linguistic skills to take part in the ERASMUS program. The program seeks to promote in-service training courses for foreign language teachers and improve the training of prospective foreign language teachers. Grants are also awarded for foreign language students to do a portion of their study abroad.

TEMPUS targets the linguistic needs of the countries of Central and Eastern Europe. It supports training projects and offers mobility grants for teachers, students, administrative staff and industry personnel.

European University Language Enrollments

Europeans tend to concentrate their study of languages before the university level, while Americans tend to place more emphasis on language study at the post-secondary level. Data available on France, Germany and the Netherlands indicate that in those countries no more than 1 per cent of students at the university level study a foreign language.[32] Statistics for the United States show that the proportion of American post-secondary students enrolled in language courses at the undergraduate level ranges from a relative high of 16.5 per cent in the late 1960s to about 8.5 per cent today.[33] (Between 15 and 20 per cent of students at the University of Alberta enroll in second language and literature courses.)

National Goals

As part of the ERASMUS program, the European Commission set an objective of raising the percentage of students studying abroad from 2–3 per cent in 1989 to 10 per cent or more by 1992.[34]

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[31]Mary Ellen McGoey, "EC 1992: Assumption and Realities," *International Perspectives on Foreign Language Teaching*, ed. Gerard L. Ervin (Chicago: National Textbook Company, 1991), 15.

[32]*Ibid.*, 25.

[33]S. Frederick Starr, "Foreign Languages on the Campus: Room for Improvement," *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 532 (March 1994), 138–148.

[34]McGoey, 15.

THE UNITED STATES

From a policy and planning standpoint, education systems in the United States and Canada are similar: both feature a high level of decentralization and lack a national curriculum. The United States Constitution leaves education policy to state authority. Unlike Canada, however, a U.S. federal Department of Education and federal legislation articulate national educational goals. Within this broad legislative context, state boards of education assume direct responsibility for designating the subject matter to be offered in schools.[35] Local boards then determine how these subjects are implemented in schools.[36]

State Planning and Policy-Making in Language Education

No Language Requirements for Graduation

State boards of education mandate what subjects will be taught and what the requirements are for graduation. Of the 50 states, none requires a foreign language for a general high school diploma. Other types of diplomas, such as honours or other merit-type diplomas may require a foreign language.[37]

Local Curriculum Planning[38]

State departments of education are responsible for issuing curriculum frameworks in each subject area. These frameworks lay out the general outcomes—and thereby the content—of courses. School districts interpret these outcomes in their locally developed curriculum documents. Seventeen states have no set curriculum and, in another ten, local districts are not required to follow their state's curriculum. Thus in over half the states, decisions about foreign language curriculum and instruction are made at the local level.

Language Learning Opportunities Largely Determined by Residency

State curriculum frameworks are interpreted differently. In some states, the curriculum is seen as an absolute mandate; in others, it is merely a set of guidelines. Local boards of education may have a great deal of freedom and flexibility in implementing policies, or they may have firm parameters.[39] In many cases, then, opportunities to develop foreign language competencies will depend on where one happens to live.[40]

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[35]June K. Phillips, "State and Local Policy on the Study of World Languages," *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 540 (March 1994), 89.

[36]Miriam Met, "Foreign Language Policy in U.S. Secondary Schools: Who Decides?", *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 540 (March 1994), 153.

[37]*Ibid.*, 152.

[38]*Ibid.*, 157.

[39]Phillips, 92.

[40]*Ibid.*, 93.

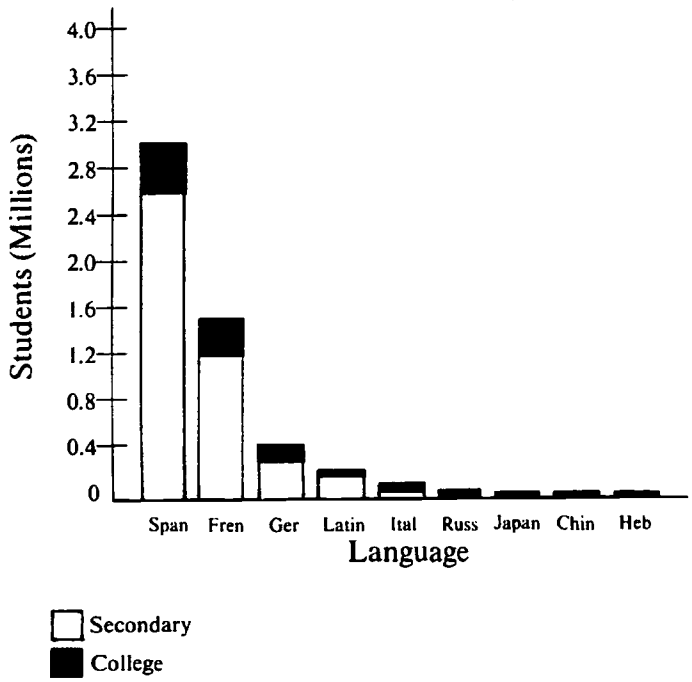
Enrollments in Foreign Language Courses

Enrollments in language courses are often indicative of a heightened interest in a foreign language or culture. There may also be a temptation to equate enrollments with a general improvement in the multilingualism of a nation. However, only 38 per cent of American high school students study any foreign language at all, and only 8 per cent of high school graduates have studied any foreign language for more than two years. Of the 50 per cent of American college students who take any foreign language courses at all, nearly half take only one year and 80 per cent take two years or less. A mere 15 per cent of all foreign language enrollments are at third-year levels or higher.[42]

> "Gross enrollments say nothing about the actual acquisition of competence."
> – S. Frederick Starr[41]

As shown in Figure 8, the most common language studied in the U.S. is Spanish, followed by French. Enrollments in Slavic and Asian language courses are extremely low.

Figure 8
College and Secondary School Foreign Language Enrollments in the United States (1991)



Source: *International Perspectives on Foreign Language Teaching*, ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series (Chicago: National Textbook Company, 1991).

[41]Starr, 141.

[42]*Ibid.*, 143.

General Features and Program Patterns by State

Examples of State Foreign Language Program Requirements at the Primary and Middle-School Levels[43]

PRIMARY SCHOOL LEVEL Some jurisdictions require the teaching of foreign languages at the elementary (primary) level. These jurisdictions include Arizona, Kentucky, Louisiana, Michigan, New York, North Carolina, Texas and Wisconsin.[44]	
North Carolina	• mandates that students in grades K–5 experience foreign language, and that schools make available to students a K–12 sequence in a single second language • funds summer institutes to improve teachers' proficiency in the languages they teach
Oklahoma	• requires foreign language study in grades 4–8 and ties assessment to proficiency levels
Arizona	• introduced a gradual mandatory program in grades 1–8
Louisiana	• requires "academically able" students to take a second language in grades 4–8
MIDDLE SCHOOL LEVEL[45]	
New York Louisiana Oklahoma Kentucky	• require foreign language study in the middle grades; in New York State, all students must complete at least two years of foreign language study before grade 9
Wisconsin Montana	• require all middle-level schools to offer foreign languages but do not require all students to take them

Special Programs[46]

Some districts provide sequential courses beginning in the primary grades and continuing through to high school. One such program is known as FLES (Foreign Language in the Elementary School).

Immersion programs based on Canadian models are used in fewer than 5 per cent of U.S. schools. Some states with large populations of language minority students, such as New York and California, have dual language immersion programs where all students are schooled together in the target language with English being gradually introduced to the non-native speakers. In such settings, students can become linguistic resources for their peers.

The United States has also experienced a "magnet school" movement, and some of the most successful of these are offering foreign language instruction.[47]

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[43]Phillips, 95.

[44]Christine L. Brown, "Elementary School Foreign Language Programs in the United States," *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 540 (1994), 170.

[45]Met, 152.

[46]Brown, 170.

[47]Met, 153.

Teaching Credentials[48]

Teaching Credentials Granted through State Agencies

State agencies approve college and university programs that allow an individual to become eligible for teacher certification. Teachers are usually certified as generalists and rarely as second language specialists. In recent years, states have adopted standards for the certification of foreign language teachers that address a higher level of language proficiency and pedagogical competencies. In practice, however, many programs are approved in spite of a failure to provide evidence that their graduates are indeed attaining these levels.

Alternative Certification Procedures

There has been a move to permit foreign language native speakers to serve as second language teachers through alternative certification programs. Such programs develop knowledge in second-language acquisition simultaneously with an internship or supervised teaching in schools.

Innovations in Language Education System Development: The Tennessee Foreign Language Institute[49]

The Tennessee General Assembly, spearheaded by elected officials advocating the improved economic opportunities afforded to a multilingual populace, launched the Tennessee Foreign Language Institute. The spirit of this initiative was to work toward improving language teaching, learning and system coordination. The purposes of the institute were established by law to include but not be limited to:

- coordination and provision of foreign language skills needed by state government for purposes of industrial recruitment, tourist development or any other state purpose
- original research into the most effective methods of foreign language instruction and the dissemination of such knowledge
- improvement of the language skills and teaching methods of foreign language instructors at all levels in the schools, colleges and universities of Tennessee
- coordination and provision of foreign language instruction to the citizens of Tennessee.

The initiative is quite innovative in establishing coordination as part of its purpose. It currently reports instruction in an impressive number of languages; however, some functions are currently hampered by systemic barriers. For example, the mission of the institute originally included improving instruction in the schools, but it held no authority in either the public schools or in higher education. All participation was voluntary. Other jurisdictions that seek to emulate this model should therefore ensure that policy is closely tied to support services.

Shortcomings and Criticisms of Language Education

Various authorities have voiced concern about the system of language education in the United States. Not all of the same concerns exist in Canada, but the American context does offer some insight for Canadians.

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[48]Phillips, 92.

[49]*Ibid.*, 94.

Lack of Coordination and Absence of National Standards

The absence of a federal system of education contributes to highly diverse and inconsistent curricular efforts in the states.[50]

Lack of a Clear Statement of Purpose

Noted language policy theorist Richard Lambert writes:[51]

> In the United States, there is no national policy to suggest what students should learn in a foreign language course and why . . . One difficulty facing foreign language educators is the lack of a clear-cut purpose for language study. If foreign language is a life skill to be used on the job or in one's community, course content might emphasize certain aspects of language; on the other hand, if language study is an integral part of every well-educated person's schooling or serves to enrich experiences in the arts—for example, opera, literary appreciation et cetera—or prepares students for college requirements, then the course content might be quite different. What is the ultimate purpose? What are the social goals that foreign language learning is serving?

The Need to Improve System Architecture

> "Too often, the various levels of the language-learning system march to different drummers, and the nature and purpose of language instruction reflects very clearly the differences in organization and purpose between levels."
>
> – Richard Lambert[52]

Some suggest that system development should focus on the architecture of the system: what the building blocks are and how they can better be assembled. Richard Lambert explains this architectural problem in terms of vertical and horizontal discontinuities and identifies the following systemic challenges.[53]

- *VERTICAL DISCONTINUITIES.* If one looks at the system vertically, students and teachers are clustered in two largely unconnected pyramids, one in high school and the other in college. A third unconnected pyramid is being created by language learning in primary schools.
- *HORIZONTAL DISCONTINUITIES.* Language instruction takes place in schools and is also conducted by various branches of the government. There is an extensive array of community and private schools as well.
- *ARTICULATION* is very weak at the point where the high school and college pyramids touch—the transfer of students from high school to college. In extreme cases, the collegiate level of language instruction declares language instruction at the secondary level irrelevant.
- *THE RULE OF 50 PER CENT.* In each of the high school and college pyramids, students and teachers are heavily concentrated in the first year or two of language instruction, and enrollments decline sharply beyond that point. Attrition levels are often in the range of 50 per cent from one year to another.
- *LANGUAGE EDUCATION DEPARTMENTS* are not yet well attuned to serving the need for occupational language training, even in their own institutions.

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[50] *Ibid.*, 89.

[51] Richard D. Lambert, "Problems and Processes in U.S. Foreign Language Planning," *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 540 (1994), 55.

[52] Richard D. Lambert, "Some Issues in Language Policy for Higher Education," *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 540 (1994), 128.

[53] Lambert, "Problems and Processes . . . ," 49, 50, 52, 94.

- *THE WRONG ACADEMIC PARADIGM.* Is it healthy to have colleges and universities bear so much of the burden of elementary language education? Should more or all of it be put at the secondary level, as it is throughout most of the rest of the world? Statistics give this question salience.

  In 1990, there were nearly 4.1 million students enrolled in foreign language classes in public high schools in the United States: 548,389 in public elementary schools and nearly 1.2 million in colleges and universities. In short, about one of every five language students enrolled in language classes is studying at the college or university level.[54]

- *MISUNDERSTANDINGS ABOUT THE DEGREE OF LINGUISTIC COMPETENCY THAT TWO OR THREE YEARS OF STUDY PRODUCES.* Policymakers continue to believe that two years of high school language study will provide enough linguistic ability to advance the nation's competitiveness. This is a myth that must be debunked.

Current Developments in Foreign Language Education

More Elementary Language Programs

The U.S. currently is experiencing a trend toward more elementary language programs. For this trend to take root on a larger scale, educators must address issues such as articulation between schools, funding for appropriate teacher preparation programs and policy development to delineate expectations.

Goals 2000: Educate America Act

The *Goals 2000: Educate America Act* in the U.S. is federal legislation that is intended to promote systemic education reform and improve the quality of learning and teaching in the classroom and the workplace. Foreign languages have been added to the list of core subjects included in the national education goals. Practically, this means that standards and assessment mechanisms that are developed in other disciplines will now stand alongside national standards for foreign languages. The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), working in collaboration with three other foreign language professional associations, has received a major grant from the U.S. Department of Education to develop standards for students in grades 4, 8 and 12.[55]

A Call for National Standards

Many educational experts are calling for a system of national standards as a method of addressing inadequacies in the current system, particularly in curriculum and instruction.

Myriam Met, a strong advocate of national standards, articulates the utility of such measures as a means of improving course curricula and instructional practices:[56]

> National Standards will address what students should learn (content standards) and what opportunities to master content should be made available to students at the classroom and system levels (delivery standards). National Standards may accomplish what other recent attempts at reform have been unable to do—change current practices and policies . . . National Standards may also become a *de facto* national policy that determines course curricula and instructional practices.

[54]Lambert, "Some Issues in Language Policy . . . ," 128, 130.

[55]Met, 161.

[56]*Ibid.*, 162.

National Assessment of Educational Programs (NAEP) testing may begin in 1996 at grades 4, 8 and 12. Some suggest that the new national standards and assessments will lead schools to recognize that their current short-sequence programs are no longer satisfactory and set them on the path to improvement.

The New American—Project 2017[57]

The ACTFL and the National Foreign Language Center are jointly sponsoring "The New American—Project 2017." Its goal is to shape a vision for extended language sequences and to develop new models for language learning that will be:

- prompted by national need
- fuelled by an informed public
- devised by enlightened educators
- implemented by a well trained and up-to-date teaching force
- assessed on the basis of what learners know about and can do with the language.

A task force will listen to and work with elected officials, foundations, text and test developers, and governmental agencies to begin to build the necessary support for extended language sequences. As a result of the 2017 project, the participants hope a national policy will be developed to legitimize early language learning and provide funding for such programs.

AUSTRALIA

In Australia, there are federal and state educational bodies, each of which provides policy statements on curriculum. Generally, government provides statements about ideals and general frameworks and leaves specific curriculum decisions to local jurisdictions.[58]

Australia's national curriculum on language learning represents a significant commitment to the development of second language teaching and learning. An extensive set of documents provides a framework for the development, delivery, assessment and evaluation of language programs. This curriculum, developed under the auspices of the Australian Language Levels (ALL) project in the late 1980s, attempts to "bring a semblance of national-level coherence" to the field of language learning.[59]

The Purpose of Language Education—A Government Policy Perspective

A national curriculum document entitled *Language Learning in Australia* articulates a rationale and content for the teaching and learning of languages. This rationale sets the tone and context, from a government perspective, for language curriculum and program development. The national scope of these rather substantive and purposeful statements seems to provide the context and purpose that have thus far eluded Canadian and American federal and local governments. Of particular note are statements describing languages as a "national resource" that serves various social and economic ends.

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[57]Brown, 175.

[58]Angela Scarino and Penny McKay, "National Curriculum Renewal in Language Teaching—An Australian Experience." Paper presented to the Fifth International Conference of the Institute of Language in Education (Hong Kong, 1989), 4.

[59]*Ibid.*, 5.

Excerpt from "Language Learning in Australia":[60]

Language learning for the individual

Learning a second language offers learners the potential to:

- communicate in the target language
- enhance their intellectual and social development
- enhance their understanding of their first language and culture
- expand their knowledge, and approach tasks with insights gained from another language and culture
- participate in the life of another culture, and gain an understanding of both the specificities of other languages and cultures and of the commonality of human existence
- enhance their own self-esteem
- develop their sense of social justice
- enhance their vocational prospects.

For non-English-speaking background learners learning English as a second language, there remains also the question of their fundamental need and right to be able to participate in all aspects of Australian society by having an adequate command of the national language: English.

Languages as a national resource

Languages are seen not only as being able to contribute to an individual learner's intellectual, social, and affective developments, but also as a national resource which serves communities within Australia, enriches Australian society as a whole, and enables the nation to engage in commercial, industrial, and diplomatic enterprises on an international scale.

Political and economic shifts in power and rapidly changing technology have made the understanding of other languages and cultures an essential factor in successful commercial and political activity. If we wish to buy from our trading partners they will speak to us in English. If we are buying or selling, we should speak their languages and understand their cultures. Australia has its own unique set of geopolitical concerns, and its language learning programs should reflect this fact. It is not a question of merely training translators and interpreters, but also of Australians from all walks of life speaking a second language. This will enable Australians to operate more confidently and efficiently in the international sphere.

The linguistic diversity of the population is a valuable national resource which should be nurtured, promoted, and used for social and economic purposes within Australia and internationally.

There is clearly a case in Australia for the provision within the broad education system (including "Saturday" schools, "ethnic" schools, minority language schools, etc.) of a whole range of languages. These include:

- languages of international importance
- languages spoken within the various non-English-speaking background communities in Australia
- languages of geopolitical importance
- languages which may reflect more individual concerns.

[60]Commonwealth of Australia, *Language Learning in Australia* (Sydney, 1988), 1.

The ALL Framework

The Australian Language Levels (ALL) curriculum is described in four documents:

- *Language Learning in Australia* articulates the rationale for language learning, the process for curriculum renewal and the range of languages offered in the school system. This document also articulates eight principles that guide the teaching/learning process and discusses the goals of language learning.

- *Syllabus Development and Programming* describes curriculum content and factors to consider when developing programming.

- *Methods, Resources and Assessment* describes methods for teaching languages. It discusses criteria for selecting, adapting and creating resources, and covers the teaching implications of the eight principles of language learning, recommended approaches to lesson organization and the context for developing assessment procedures.

- *Evaluation, Curriculum Renewal and Teacher Development* discusses methods of evaluation, principles to guide teacher development, and the context for planning an in-service program.

Language Programming

There are about 35 languages currently being assessed at the grade 12 level, the end of secondary schooling in Australia.[61] A variety of institutions (including government, independent, ethnic or Saturday morning schools) provide language programs. There are a number of primary school programs; programs may be bilingual (though these are rare) or limited exposure programs where learners receive a limited amount of instruction each week in the target language as a subject.

[61]Scarino and McKay, 3.

SELECTED TRENDS AND ISSUES

LANGUAGES AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

> People are Alberta's most valuable resource, and their skills will be key to ensuring economic growth and stability. To achieve our vision and attain the new skills needed to keep Alberta competitive, education and training are high priorities of the Alberta Government . . . From elementary grades to post-secondary training, education must give Albertans the competitive skills to succeed in the evolving world economy.
>
> — *Seizing Opportunity: Alberta's New Economic Development Strategy*, p. 20.

The Relationship between Language and Economic Development

Alberta's international language programs provide young people with opportunities to develop the communication skills they need to succeed in today's global economy.

Languages are employed throughout the world for social, political and economic interaction. Economic development and wealth creation depend on the producing, buying and selling of goods and services, and languages are central to performing these functions.

Today, the use of English in many countries of the world suggests an increasing acceptance of English as the *lingua franca*—the language of business and commerce. The vast majority of Albertans speak English, and are thus able to communicate and pursue opportunities with other English-speaking countries in trade and commerce. Still, a majority of people in the world do not speak English, and when we cannot communicate with them, we forego opportunities to increase our business activities.

> To a large degree, international business depends on communication. Languages are the principle means of communication. Every time a language and cultural barrier must be crossed, there is a potential communication problem.[62]

The Role of International Languages in Alberta's Economic Development

The Increasingly Global Nature of the Alberta Economy

Alberta's economy is strongly linked to the economies of other provinces and countries. International trade is vitally important: Alberta exported over $21.6 billion in goods and services to over 150 countries in 1993.[63] The introduction of new trading arrangements such as NAFTA and other emergent trade agreements are also creating new opportunities for Albertans to pursue global trade.

Languages Spoken by Our Major Trading Partners

Of Alberta's ten largest export markets, only two—the United States and the United Kingdom—list English as their primary language. Although Alberta's volume of trade with these two countries is larger than all others combined, this is changing. Other countries or regions will become increasingly important for trade and commerce. Over 70 per cent of Alberta's top export markets do not speak English or French as their primary language.

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[62]Vern Terpstra and Kenneth David, *The Cultural Environment of International Business* (Cincinnati: Southwestern Publishing Company, 1991), 35.

[63]Alberta Economic Development, Trade and Tourism, *Alberta International Trade Review* (Edmonton, 1993).

Table 17
Primary Language Spoken in Alberta's 10 Largest Export Markets (1993)

Market	Primary Language
United States	English
Japan	Japanese
South Korea	Korean
China	Mandarin
Former USSR	Russian/Other languages
Taiwan	Mandarin
Brazil	Portuguese
United Kingdom	English
Indonesia	Bahasa Indonesian
Mexico	Spanish

Source: Alberta Economic Development, Trade and Tourism. *Alberta International Trade Review*, 1993.

Many people in many of Alberta's current markets are developing skills in speaking English, but the majority of people in the world do not have the skills necessary for doing business in English.

> Our attitude seems to be that everyone should speak English . . . Sure . . . English is the business language. But that does not mean that everyone speaks it . . . Language is very important, and accepting that not everyone speaks English is very important as well.[64]

> In much of the world, English is not the native language. For example, in the unified post European economic region, which will be the world's single richest market, 82 per cent of the 320 million people do not speak English as their mother tongue.[65]

There are several other reasons why the question of language cannot be disregarded in any discussion of economic development:

- Communication needs differ by industry sectors, company size and geographic area of trade.
- Marketing principles support speaking the language of the customer.
- There is growing competition from other English-speaking jurisdictions for trade development in non-English markets.

Communication Needs by Industry Sectors, Company Size and Geographic Area of Trade

Industry Sectors

Service Sector. Service sector businesses have a direct need for foreign language skills. Carol Fixman describes it this way:[66]

> The basis of the service sector is not a physical product but rather expertise that has to be conveyed from person to person, such as tax and management consulting, auditing, or banking. The medium of conveyance—and therefore language skills—in these fields assumes special importance.

[64]Beverly Geber, "The Challenge of Multilingual Meetings, Off-Site Meetings," *Supplement* (July 1994), 5.

[65]Susan Goldenberg, *Global Pursuit* (Whitby: McGraw-Hill Ryerson, 1991), 240.

[66]Carol S. Fixman, "The Foreign Language Needs of U.S. Based Corporations," *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 511 (1990), 28.

Similarly, Richard Brecht and Ronald Walton make this statement:[67]

> Unlike the sale and transference of goods, which only requires personal communication among different parties in the period leading up to a transaction, the sale and provision of services requires comprehensive interaction on a regular and ongoing basis.
>
> Providers of services must be able to speak the target language with a degree of fluency and have a basic comprehension of the cultural assumptions and norms of the society in which they are operating.

Alberta's export industry is comprised largely of the export of goods, and export of services amounts to $2 billion (including the tourist industry)—less than 10 per cent of our total exports. However, since about 60 per cent of Albertans are involved in the service sector,[68] some suggest that the diversification of export markets can be attained by increasing the export of services. Moving into service sector exports will require special skills and expertise, including language skills.

A Market for Service Professionals

"The number of [service professionals] from this country who have adequate language skills to interact on a day-to-day basis with ordinary people in non-English-speaking countries is so small that the expansion of these professional services abroad is greatly restricted. Attempts to implement trade agreements such as the NAFTA and the GATT are effectively backfiring, due to our limited ability to communicate with clients in different cultures."

– Richard Brecht and Ronald Walton

Exporting Financial Services and Consulting

"The increase in international business means new opportunities and challenges in the area of staffing. For example . . . a partner of Coopers & Lybrand, Houston, says the firm began investing heavily in resources and consulting with clients in Mexico in 1990 when that country modified its foreign investment law by presidential decree. The firm actively seeks qualified people who are not only bilingual but bicultural as well . . . Arthur Andersen & Co. and Ernst & Young also hire bilingual individuals . . ."

– David Cornell and Nancy Weatherholt

Exporting Educational Services and Consulting

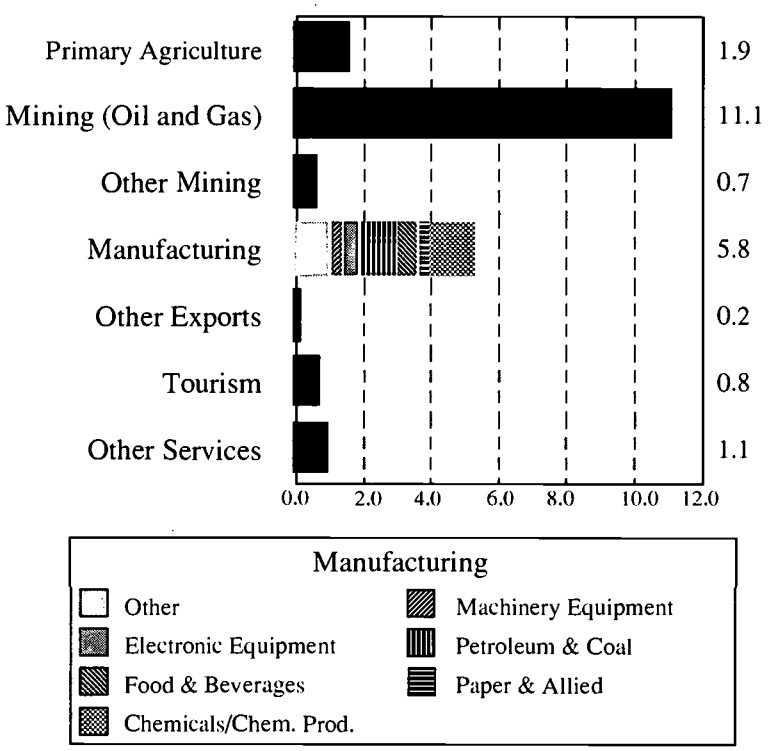
- An Alberta government document entitled *Education and Training International Export Strategy 1995–96: Marketing the Alberta Advantage* commits the province to work toward:
  - increasing the revenue from the sale of education and training goods and services in the global marketplace
  - assisting Albertans in becoming more globally aware and more successful world traders.
- One example of the many opportunities for exporting educational services: World Bank Educational Development Project, Ukraine, will tender for Western expertise. The project has a budget of approximately US $50 million.

[67]Richard D. Brecht and A. Ronald Walton, "Meeting the Challenge of GATT: The Impact of Cross-Cultural Communication on the U.S. Balance of Trade," *NFLC Policy Issues*. Occasional Paper, 2.

[68]Edward J. Chambers and Michael B. Percy, *Western Canada in the International Economy* (Edmonton: University of Alberta Press, 1992), 8.

Figure 9
Alberta's Exports by Industry (1993)

Total Value of Exports $21.6 Billion



Source: Alberta Economic Development and Tourism. *Alberta International Trade Review*, 1993.

Goods Sector. Selling a physical product in international markets does not normally require specialized language skills, but there may be some interaction with people who do not speak English.

> One issue that deserves further examination is whether, within the industrial sector, certain types of products cause companies to come into more contact with local populations abroad than others. Increased contact with local populations would generate foreign language needs for a [primarily English speaking] company.[69]

Tourism. International travel is on the rise in Alberta and around the world. Jafari and Way suggest that countries seeking to increase their share of this lucrative business must be increasingly sensitive to the needs of foreign visitors:[70]

> If a country's tourism industry desires to maintain its share in the tourism market, its practitioners must accommodate the culturally based needs of foreign visitors. To best respond to this international-market demand, the industry will have to be staffed by multilingual and multicultural employees.
>
> Guest-contact employees should be ready for these important guests by understanding cultural expectations and being ready to conduct at least a modicum of conversation.

[69]Fixman, 28.

[70]Jafar Jafari and William Way, "Multicultural Strategies in Tourism," *Cornell HRA Quarterly* (December 1994), 73.

As indicated in Table 18, surveys of hospitality industry management corroborate the view that multilingual and multicultural employees will be needed to provide a competitive edge in the future.

Table 18
Managers' Perceptions Regarding the Importance of Multiculturalism (1994)

EXHIBIT 3

Items are ranked on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 indicating strong agreement and 5 indicating strong disagreement.

Elements of multiculturalism	Average rank
International tourism represents a growing market for the U.S. hotel industry	1.42
Ability to communicate in your guests' language gives the hotel a competitive edge	1.74
Greater importance should be given to intercultural and language training in those universities offering hospitality and tourism programs	2.21
International guests have different or greater service expectations than their American counterparts	2.37
Multiculturalism should be reflected in the promotional materials of the hotel	2.37
Awareness of multiculturalism will become a prerequisite for hiring guest-contact employees	2.58
Management will need to provide employees with cultural training	2.95
Interaction with international guests is an incentive for personnel to join the hotel business	3.00
Management will need to provide employees with language training	3.11
The following criteria will continue to influence employees' multicultural outlook:	
Working or living in other countries	1.89
Travel to near and far destinations	1.89
In-house training	2.11
Formal education	2.37

Source: Jafar Jafari and William Way, "Multicultural Strategies in Tourism," *Cornell HRA Quarterly* (December 1994).

The Red Book Hotel and Motel Guide lists the foreign languages spoken by personnel of various U.S. hotels to help the foreign traveller. One hotel manager, offering services in only one language, said: "I'd like to do better. We've lost some Japanese and French business that I know of, and who knows how much additional business. But it's hard to find hotel management who know other languages."

– Paul Simon, *The Tongue-Tied American*

Alberta's tourism sector employed over 100,000 Albertans in 1992, and tourism continues to be a growth area in our economy.[71] To maintain an internationally competitive position, the Alberta tourist industry will need to draw upon the language and cultural skills of Albertans.

Recognizing the potential economic spin-offs of multilingualism, other jurisdictions have developed well publicized infrastructures for tapping local language capabilities. For example, John Naisbitt reports that the tourism division of the St. Petersburg, Florida, Chamber prints welcome brochures in six languages, and merchants can draw on the city's "language bank" for help in reaching foreigners. A growing number of St. Petersburg restaurants print menus in foreign languages.[72]

[71]Alberta Economic Development, Trade and Tourism. *Alberta Global Business Plan 1994–1995* (Edmonton, 1995).
[72]John Naisbitt, *Trendletter* (Oct. 27, 1994), 4–5.

Company Size

Generally, small to medium-sized businesses are most likely to need international language skills for trade and commerce with non-English-speaking countries. Carol Fixman has these comments:[73]

> Small and medium-sized companies do not have access to the resources of their larger counterparts to help them function effectively in the global marketplace . . . it is precisely this sector that needs the most assistance in dealing with a multicultural and multilingual business world.
>
> Smaller companies enter the global marketplace without the English-speaking networks to which their counterparts have access. Also, they are dealing with a community of smaller companies, where English-language proficiency may not be as prevalent.

> "English may be understood and used in the Mercedes-Benz boardrooms in Germany and on the top floor of Pentax in Mexico City. But believe me, once you get out and start to talk to individuals in small and medium-sized enterprises . . . you'd better have some knowledge of their language."
>
> – Ted Chambers, *Edmonton Journal*

Geographic Area of Business Involvement

Carol Fixman[74] notes that the geographic location of your business involvement will determine the language skills you need:

> . . . as a firm increases its business in developing countries, it will find that knowledge of English is less widespread in the local populations. Thus it will become more important for company employees to know the local languages.
>
> In particular, Latin America was named by several companies as an area where it is difficult to find individuals who speak English.

Marketing the Alberta Advantage Abroad: The Role of International Languages

Speaking the Language of Customers

International business and marketing authorities say, "Speaking the customer's language, literally and figuratively, is a cardinal rule of marketing." Effective communication and successful persuasion virtually dictate using the native language of the customer.[75]

Therefore, the multilingual and multicultural skills of Albertans can help create an "Alberta Advantage" in marketing goods and services abroad, but we are in competition with other jurisdictions that have equal or better key market language capabilities.

> The more growth opportunities shift to other shores, the more critical it is that . . . businesses make multilingualism an issue of national competitiveness.[76]

[73]Fixman, 30.

[74]Fixman, 29.

[75]Terpstra and David, 36–37.

[76]Naisbitt, 5.

SWOT Analysis of Alberta's International Language Education Programs from an Economic Development Perspective

Strengths	**Weaknesses**
• Language education gives Albertans the language skills and unique set of capabilities they need to compete internationally. • Infrastructure for delivering bilingual, immersion and course programs is in place. • Alberta government policy supports multilingual development.	• As a percentage of total student population, a relatively small proportion of students are enrolled in language programs. Enrollments in second languages other than French at the senior high level amount to about 5 per cent of total high school enrollments. • Some feel that Alberta students do not fully comprehend the importance of the internationalization of our economy or how they can play a role in internationalizing Alberta.
Opportunities	**Threats**
Alberta has the potential: • to create a skilled, well educated populace with the language capabilities for taking advantage of global opportunities. • to access opportunities in markets where little English is spoken, thereby stimulating trade and improving economic development.	• Other countries with better foreign language programs may develop a competitive advantage in communicating with non-English-speaking countries and accessing these export markets. • This competition is especially acute in the service and tourist industries, and in small business.

The Changing English Linguistic Context Overseas

Current trends point toward the continued growth of English speakers in the world.[77] This means that Alberta will be in an excellent position to communicate with these people regarding economic and other endeavours. Since this trend toward English usage does not include all regions of the world, an English-only mentality may be seen as discourteous and ultimately have a less-than-positive effect on business opportunities.

Examples[78]

> . . . [some] countries of the world have drawn their boundaries tighter, using their Languages Other Than English (LOTE) as linguistic capital with which to negotiate economic advantages for themselves. This pattern of insisting that LOTEs be used in business, despite the ability to speak

[77]Naisbitt, 5.

[78]Ofelia Garcia and Ricardo Otheguy, "The Value of Speaking a LOTE in U.S. Business," *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 532 (1994), 114–115.

English, is increasingly in evidence throughout the world. For example, although the Latin American elite is clearly English-speaking, they have developed a sense of cultural identity that does not favour the use of English in trade and other contacts.

Germans have become more assertive in insisting that German is an international language that must be recognized as one of the business languages of the European Community.

The difficulty in doing business with Japan lies precisely in their insistence that business be conducted in Japanese. The argument may be made that the Japanese are using their difficult language as their most prized capital, ensuring thereby their own self-regulation and self-control.

Reeves[79] comments that "A commitment to language learning is essential . . . On important matters, people have to communicate in their native language."

The Human Resource Needs of Alberta's Businesses from a Linguistic Standpoint

The following excerpt from The Conference Board of Canada's *Employability Skills Profile* suggests that language skills are critical.

Canadian employers need a person who can:

- understand and speak the languages in which business is conducted
- listen to understand and learn
- read, comprehend and use written materials, including graphs, charts and displays
- write effectively in the languages in which business is conducted.

Being able to speak the English and/or French language is an obvious requirement for most Canadian employers. There is also a growing consensus that a knowledge of other languages will improve employability prospects for today's youth.[80]

As international trade continues to be important in our economy, opportunities may increase in both language-centred and language-related jobs.

Language-centred jobs. Jobs in which people use their foreign language ability as the primary skill (for example, teacher, translator, interpreter, editor).

Language-related jobs. Jobs in which knowledge of a foreign language complements other skills. Foreign language skills are often required, in addition to other skills, in business, government service, law, education, the social and physical sciences, the media and the health professions. Language-related jobs are much more plentiful but less easily identifiable than language-centred jobs.[81]

The perception that language skills are only for linguists, teachers or translators is false. As illustrated in the following examples, knowledge of international languages can make a worker uniquely capable.

Office Support. Our lack of attention to language skills puts companies at a disadvantage . . . Companies abroad appear to be staffed as a matter of course with bilingual (or tri-lingual) secretaries.

---

[79]Nigel B. Reeves, "The Foreign Language Needs of U.K.-Based Corporations," *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 511 (1990), 69.

[80]Trends that support this include the proliferation of business programs with language requirements, and a change in student programming patterns.

[81]Verada Bluford, "Working with Foreign Languages," *Occupational Outlook Quarterly*, 38:4 (Winter 94/95), 25.

It is secretaries and switchboard operators, rather than top executives, who are often the first point of contact for foreign customers.[82]

Agriculture. Now that Canadian beef producers have finally shifted their gaze to the Far East, the money is rolling in. Exports to Japan and Taiwan have more than doubled since 1988. The market over there is as big as our imagination . . . still, cultural differences can be baffling.[83]

Natural Resources. Noranda, one of Canada's largest and most diversified natural resource companies, seeks individuals with language skills. The President says, "Rather than number crunchers, we seek people who understand different cultures and political systems, as well as communicate well. Therefore, graduates in English, History, Political Science, and Languages are as welcome as those in Business Administration."[84]

Educational and Curriculum Development Imperatives Arising from Human Resource Needs

> "We need to educate our students in Asian languages and studies. Our business people need to learn Asian languages and cultural practices . . ."
>
> – A report on the Premier's mission to Asia, 1993

The literature on international languages and economic development suggests several ways of developing the education system to meet the needs of industry:

- developing language communication skills for use in the day-to-day work environment
- including more international themes and cultural components as well as international language study in the curriculum
- introducing international language study at an earlier age and continuing it for a longer period of time.

Examples

Updating curricula to meet today's needs . . . In order to meet the real needs . . . , the major trend in language training should focus on providing interactive communication skills adapted to a day-to-day work environment.[85]

Giving students an international perspective . . . Our curricula need to be internationalized and restructured to include subjects that integrate an appreciation for the current international trends, the international economy, and foreign cultures. Graduates will need to have a more global understanding—an awareness of diverse peoples and cultures, a world view of the various political and economic systems, and more historical breadth. More courses in geography, foreign languages, history, anthropology and political science need to be included. At the same time courses such as finance, marketing, and management need to take on a more international perspective.[86]

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[82]Roger Jones, "English May Be the Lingua Franca of Business, but Is Language Ignorance Costing You Orders?", *Director* (March), 72.

[83]Brian Hutchinson, "Moooola," *Canadian Business* (August 1995), 64.

[84]Goldenberg, 240.

[85]Brecht and Walton, 3.

[86]Jack J. Clark and Avner Arbel, "Producing Global Managers: The Need for a New Academic Paradigm," *The Cornell HRA Quarterly* (August 1993), 87.

> Creating instructional sequences . . . Ideally, the . . . educational system could provide fully competent, professional linguists in adequate numbers to meet our national needs. This would require, however, significant changes in our educational system. To meet national needs, there ideally would be at least a tenfold increase in the number of languages taught; creation of 8-year to 10-year instructional sequences, beginning in elementary school and continuing progressively through secondary and higher education; preparation of a pool of qualified teachers large enough to support these increases; and expansion of the current school calendar to provide the time for these added language classes.[87]

POST-SECONDARY LANGUAGE LEARNING: PROGRAMMING AND ENROLLMENTS

Programming

Language learning at the post-secondary level is no longer the sole domain of the linguist. Changes in program requirements at the post-secondary level indicate a trend toward the decompartmentalization of language learning. Many Canadian post-secondary institutions are developing programs that combine language skills with other skill sets. Examples of such programs include college and university business degrees/diplomas and hospitality industry training programs.

Examples

York University International MBA

- Students develop a specific Region–Country–Language specialization by majoring in one of the International MBA's ten official languages and focusing on a region and country where their major language is used. Applicants must . . . be able to demonstrate *at minimum a strong intermediate level of speaking proficiency* in the language chosen. Proof of appropriate functional language ability is based on a formal ACTFL Oral Proficiency Test.

University of Lethbridge, Bachelor of Management in International Management

- Foreign language requirements are part of the degree program. In addition, a student must take five courses in a foreign language at a foreign institution.

University of Alberta, Bachelor of Commerce in German Studies/Japan Studies/International Business

- Program requirements include language study, and foreign exchanges are encouraged.

Capilano College, Asia-Pacific Management Program

- A study practicum in Asia is a graduation requirement.

Enrollments

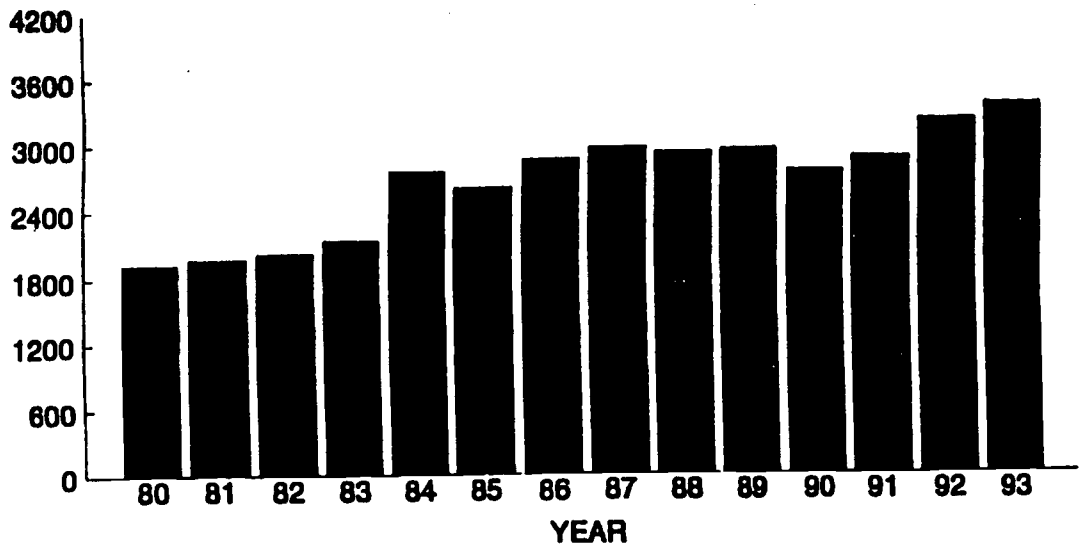
Across Canada, interest in language and literature courses has steadily increased since the early 1980s. At the university level, there has been an increase in students declaring a language/literature as their major area of study (see Figure 10).

---

[87]Ray T. Clifford and Donald C. Fischer, Jr., "Foreign Language Needs in the U.S. Government", *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 511 (1990), 119–120.

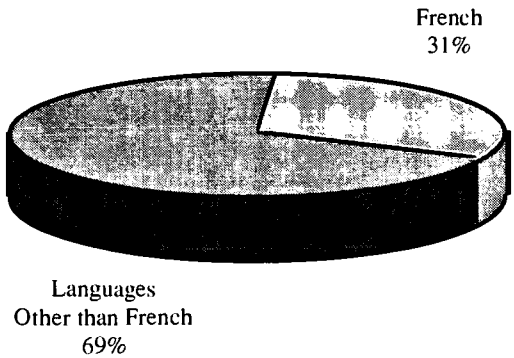
Data from the University of Alberta and University of Calgary suggest that student enrollments in language and literature have remained steady, but there is a different emphasis on which languages are studied. Data in Figures 11 and 12 show that the proportion of students taking French language and literature has decreased, while the proportion of students taking languages other than French has increased.

Figure 10
Enrollments in Language and Literature Programs (Canada, 1980–1993)



Source: Statistics Canada.

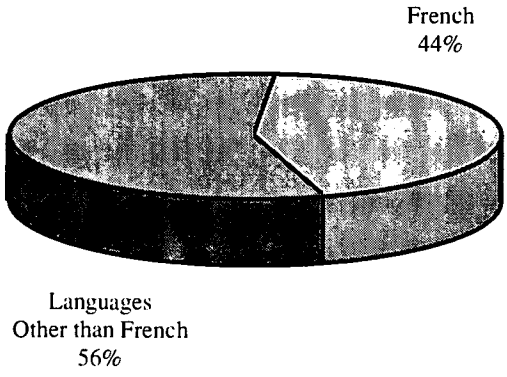
Figure 11
University of Alberta Language and Literature Enrollments: French and Languages Other than French (1994–1995)



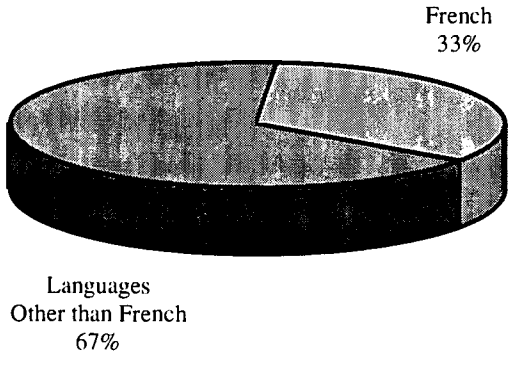
Source: University of Alberta, Office of Budget and Statistics.

Figure 12
University of Calgary Language and Literature Enrollments: French and Languages Other than French (1992/93 and 1995/96)

Fall-Winter 1992–1993



Fall-Winter 1995–1996



Source: University of Calgary, Office of Institutional Analysis.

TECHNOLOGY-ASSISTED LANGUAGE LEARNING

In many schools and language departments, technology is being used as an aid to teaching languages. Current advancements in technology will provide an even greater range of resources for this purpose.

Currently Available Technology

The following information is adapted from John H. Underwood's article, "The Lab of the Future" (*AACC Journal*, Aug.–Sept. 1993).

Computer Technology	
Drill and Practice Programs	• Programs require manipulation of words or sentences where the answer is controlled. • The pedagogical value of these programs depends on the quality of error analysis. • Exercises tend to focus on grammatical form rather than vocabulary or sentence meaning.
Text Reconstruction Programs	• Programs take passages and scramble or delete words. • Students reconstruct the passages. • Students use context, structure, vocabulary and memory to recover the words.
Simulations and Games	• Adventure-type games allow students to participate in a make-believe world in which they must use the target language to get by. • This communication is usually limited to written (not oral) comprehension/production.
Tool Programs	• Word processing, database, spreadsheet, desktop publishing, etc. • On-line sources of information about grammatical forms or lexical relationships. • Electronic mail permits students to communicate with each other or students in other parts of the world in the target language.
Intelligent Systems	• Programs help teachers learn important details about the student during the session. • Programs determine what students know, what they don't know and what they need to do next.

Video Programs and Multimedia	
Video	• Video immerses students in authentic language samples presented in a culturally rich context. • Criticisms of this method of language acquisition have included questions about the availability of supplementary resources. • Video packages from educational publishers usually consist of pedestrian travelogues or jejune cultural samplers.
Satellite TV/Satellite Broadcast	• Language departments are able to employ live or recorded TV broadcasts in the target language. • The issue of copyright has been a question. • Such authentic material is useful to students at higher levels, or if used at lower levels with preview materials.
Videodisc and Interactive Video	• Videodiscs offer advantages over videocassettes: the desired video clips can be accessed more quickly and easily than on the videocassette recorder. • There is still limited availability of foreign language videodiscs. • In interactive video, videodiscs are combined with a computer to enable the accessing of key frames, scenes or lines. • The computer can ask a series of comprehension questions to aid students' understanding. • The computer can also provide an on-line glossary of key words, an index of key characters in the story, translations, grammar/culture notes or background readings.
Hypertext and Multimedia	• Hypertext is a method for interacting with text on a computer screen. This type of system allows the user to click on a word or phrase on the screen and zoom in for more information—a definition, a translation, bibliographical data, etc. • Hypertext can be combined with other media such as audio, video, graphics or animation to result in a multisensory delivery system known as "hypermedia" or "multimedia." • Multimedia (which is still new and not widely available) can open windows and take the "reader" out into the world. The student has personal control over the learning environment; he or she can explore a body of information without being constrained by the author's view of how it fits together. A student could, for example: – click on any point on the map of the computer screen and see a video image of that part of the world – "explore" other parts of the world (or another body of subject matter). Throughout, ideas/images are described with a voice that uses the target language.

"One of the most significant trends in language learning in recent years has been to move away from an abstract or academic style toward practicality . . . Computers, videodiscs, and compact discs have made interaction (with native language and culture) even more realistic without an actual visit to a foreign country by bringing to the desktop of each student a form of reality from a foreign country."

– Edward Valauskas

Software is available for instruction in several European languages, and in Arabic and Japanese. For example, *NihongoWare 1* and *2* are two compact discs, each with ten lessons designed to help an adult, especially one in business, deal with everyday Japanese life. The software program developers suggest that, with 80 to 100 hours of study, a person can develop the language facilities to perform such daily tasks as taking a train or going to the bank. The program also provides cultural hints, tips and insights useful to people in a business context (for example, how business cards should be exchanged or how one should bow).

If available software is inappropriate, teachers, language departments and curriculum developers can take advantage of a growing number of alternatives for developing language software. Several "authoring systems" have been developed to replace the need to program when creating software.

> An authoring system is designed so that one does not need to handle the [programming] code at all. The teacher/author need only think about the content of the program—what it should say and where it should say it. The programming goes on behind the scenes, so to speak. Such systems are often referred to as "templates" or "shells" since they contain all of the mechanisms but none of the content.[88]

Multimedia Language Learning: A Case Study

Pennsylvania State University has successfully developed the multimedia program *Ça continue . . .* as an aid to learning intermediate university French. The program uses authentic materials which can be adapted for various levels and tasks. The program incorporates video clips and sound along with tutorials and activities. Program developers suggest that the creation of this program allows students to experience a multimedia, collaboratively driven, process-oriented approach to skill building, based on pre-established goals and objectives for the course.[89] Video clips and sound are particularly effective in providing the socio-cultural cues that help develop fluency and socio-linguistic understanding.

The following are some of the features of *Ca continue . . .* :

- The program was developed to correspond specifically to the listening comprehension, reading comprehension, and writing goals and objectives listed for French 3 (third semester French).
- Students complete a module that consists of pre-listening, listening and post-listening activities.
- Pre-listening activities focus on:
  - activating the learners' script—their background or pre-existing knowledge—to prepare them better for the video viewing of each thematic part of the song
  - introducing new concepts, words, phrases.
- Listening activities present the videotext and contextualize what has been presented in the pre-listening activity.
- Post-listening activities reinforce the key concepts presented in the videotext and provide a point of departure for creative composition.

[88]John H. Underwood, "The Lab of the Future," *AACC Journal* (Aug./Sept. 1993,) 33–39.

[89]Mary Ann Lyman-Hager, "Multitasking, Multilevel, Multimedia Software for Intermediate-Level French Language Instruction: Ça continue . . .," *Foreign Language Annals*, 28:2 (1995), 189.

The Future Potential of Technology

Underwood[90] provides this description of a possible future language learning classroom.

> Cris is seated at the workstation in what used to be called the "language lab." Several things have changed, though. In front of her is a color screen on which appear computer graphics and text, side by side with moving video images, all of which Cris controls with a click of the mouse. Through her stereo earphones she hears the dialogue and music of the video program as well as the digitized voice of "Carlos," the computer's persona and her personal tutor. In a natural voice and impeccable Castillian, Carlos questions her about the content of the opening scene in the current episode of the video story. Cris replies by speaking a few words carefully into the miniature microphone in front of her. Carlos says it was a good answer, but suggests she listen again to what Pedro said at the beginning of the scene. Cris clicks on the "replay" icon and adjusts the volume . . .
>
> Cris is immersed in the linguistic equivalent of "virtual reality." The Spanish she uses—and hears—is given life and meaning through the vivid context of the story taking place in the video before her and through all the resources that she and Carlos have at their disposal: a visual and pronouncing dictionary that can search through the dialogue and play back examples of particular words; a visual index of scenes to help her retrace her steps; "footnote" dialogue boxes on all important vocabulary; structure and culture items as they occur; each in turn linked to further resources. Carlos even has a pretty good idea of how much Spanish Cris knows, how to speak to her and be understood; and how much she has understood about the story, information that he will store for use in her next session. Thus he can carefully choose his questions and his own vocabulary and structure so that at no point is Cris asked to participate in an activity for which she is not prepared or which is too easy for her.
>
> Although such a system is not yet in use in quite this form, most of the components are currently feasible. The fine-tuned recognition and understanding of Cris's speech is now only possible on a small scale (hence the limitation to speaking "a few words carefully"). Once the problem of speech recognition has been overcome, the further step of understanding could be achieved with the help of a high speed parser. Carlos's knowledge of Cris's level and needs reflects experimental intelligent tutoring systems now under development.

RESEARCH ON LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Current research on language acquisition is extensive. This section highlights only a few findings from this major research field; in particular, findings that have implications for policy/curriculum development or lesson planning.

How Do People Acquire Languages?

There is no clear consensus on a model for language acquisition. The ideas of three noted scholars (Stephen Krashen, Theodore Higgs and Jack C. Richards) are described here.

Krashen Monitor Model

The Krashen Monitor Model suggests that there is a distinction between learning and acquiring a language. In this model, acquisition is responsible for developing fluency. We acquire language by being exposed to comprehensible input that is a "little bit" beyond our level of understanding. The key features[91] of the Krashen Monitor Model are:

The acquisition-learning distinction

- Acquiring a language is a subconscious process similar to the way children develop their first language.

[90]Underwood, 38.

[91]Alice C. Omaggio, *Teaching Language in Context* (Boston: Heinle & Heinle, 1986), 29.

	• Learning refers to conscious knowledge of the rules of grammar of a second language (L2) and their application in production.
The natural order hypothesis	• Acquisition of grammatical structures outside of formal learning programs comes in a predictable manner.
The monitor hypothesis	• Acquisition is the initiator of all L2 utterances and is responsible for fluency. • Learning (conscious knowledge of rules) can function only as the "editor" or "monitor" for the output.
The input hypothesis	• We acquire more language only when we are exposed to "comprehensible input"—language that contains structures that are "a little beyond" our current level of competence but is comprehensible through the context. • Speaking fluency emerges, rather than being taught; accuracy develops over time through input.
The affective filter hypothesis	• Comprehensible input helps acquisition if the acquirer: – is motivated – has self-confidence and a good self-image – has a low level of anxiety.

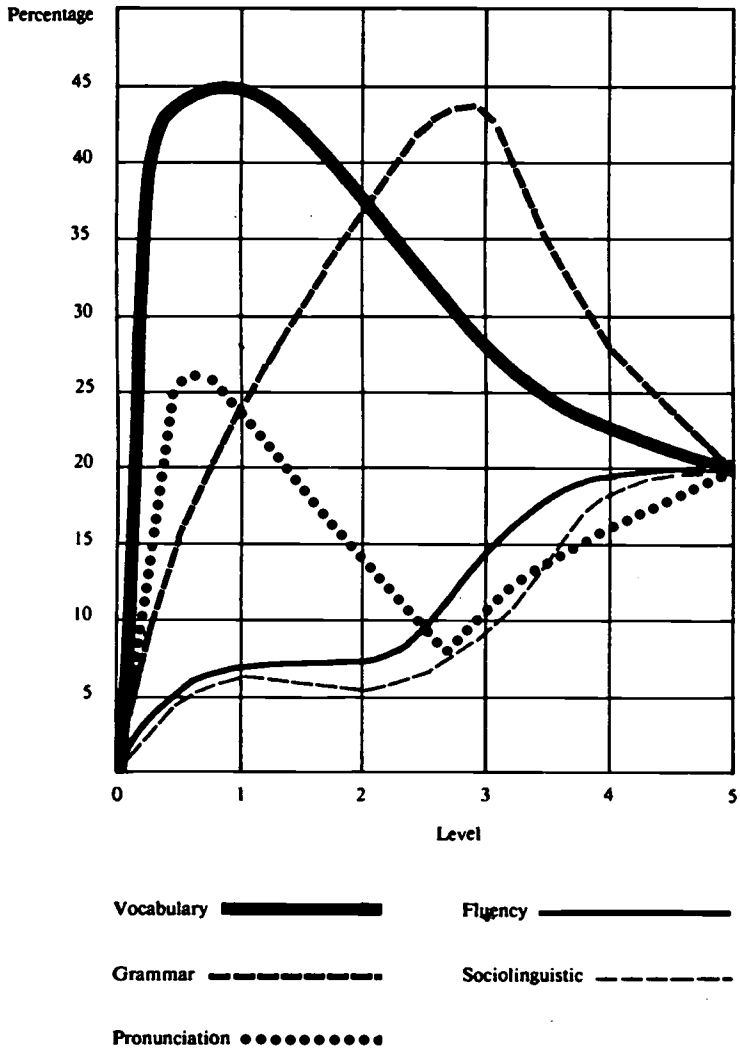
These are some of the pedagogical implications of the Krashen Monitor Model:

- The main function of the classroom is to provide comprehensible input.
- The classroom is most useful for beginners who cannot easily utilize the informal environment for input.
- The requirements for optimal input are that it be:
  a) comprehensible
  b) interesting and relevant
  c) not grammatically sequenced
  d) provided in sufficient quantity to supply structures that are "a little beyond" comprehension
  e) provided in an environment where students are "off the defensive."
- Error correction should be minimal in the classroom: it is useful when the goal is learning, but it is not useful when the goal is acquisition.
- When the goal is acquisition, students should not produce speech in the second language unless they are ready to do so. Speaking fluency cannot be taught; rather, it "emerges" naturally in time with enough comprehensible input.

Higgs Graph of Learner Needs

The Higgs Graph of Learner Needs pictorially addresses the relative needs of learners at various levels of proficiency. This research suggests that beginners benefit most from paying significantly more attention to vocabulary and pronunciation. Gradually, as the learner progresses, increased attention to grammar and socio-linguistic components is more appropriate; but vocabulary and grammar continue to factor prominently until higher levels of ability are achieved. The graph can be interpreted by teachers and curriculum planners in ensuring that instruction and materials are appropriate to the students' level of proficiency.

Figure 13
Higgs Graph of Learner Needs



Source: Theodore V. Higgs, "The Introduction: Language Teaching and the Quest for the Holy Grail" in Theodore V. Higgs, ed., *Teaching for Proficiency: The Organizing Principle.* ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series, vol. 15 (Lincolnwood, Ill.: National Textbook Company, 1984).

Jack Richards' Models of Language Learning

Jack Richards suggests that language learning may be considered in structural, functional and interactional terms. Models for each of these aspects give rise to different approaches to design and instruction.

For example, a structural approach encourages a focus on the learning of grammar, while a functional approach supports the conceptual organization of linguistic content. Interactional methods might include games, total physical response (TPR), community language learning or other similar activities.

What Types of Classroom Practices Are Most Conducive to Language Acquisition?

Research on teaching and learning in second language classrooms tends to support the following practices:[92]

- Learning efficiency is improved as the strength of instrumental motivation increases (for example, examination success or job prospects).
- Motivation increases when pupils are allowed to decide for themselves when they are ready to produce second language utterances.
- High motivation is linked with the pupil's understanding of the educational objectives and sharing in the task of setting objectives.
- Learners need input in the target language at a level they can understand.
- Learning efficiency is improved as the strength of affiliative motivation (joining a respected group) increases.
- Anxiety in the learning setting does not help learning.
- Anxiety is reduced by a supportive learning environment and non-authoritarian teaching.
- Learners need high self-confidence and low self-consciousness in relation to the learning task.
- Input needs to be just ahead of the learners' stage of rule development.
- Group work may be superior to teacher-led activities in increasing coverage of content, amount of interaction or production, and accuracy of production.
- Teacher-led activities may be superior in providing input that is extensive and needs high accuracy.
- Communicative games and information gap tasks can significantly extend interactive behaviours in the second language production in classrooms.
- Brief repetition and rephrasing of a message (in the second language) assists immediate learning.
- Many learners benefit when teachers draw attention to their progress by interpreting their second language production and relating it explicitly to knowledge of the rules of the language.
- Peers used as models of language-in-use improve learning.
- Learning at more advanced levels is improved by rich interaction with adults and by a range of social contacts.

Computers as an Effective Tool for Acquiring Languages

- Research suggests that computers can be used to encourage students to be self-directed, autonomous learners. Computer-assisted instruction can provide coaching as learners begin to apply new skills.[93]

- Through the appropriate use of multimedia technologies in the classroom and the laboratory, foreign language students have access to enriched input that makes the acquisition process more efficient and may, in turn, motivate students to continue studying the language.[94]

- One formula states that trainees retain 25 per cent of what they hear, 45 per cent of what they see, and 70 per cent of what they see, hear and do. Another source suggests we remember 10 per cent of what we read, 20 per cent of what we hear, 30 per cent of what we see, 50 per cent of what we see and hear, 80 per cent of what we say, and 90 per cent of what we say and do at the same time.[95]

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[92]David Corson, "Towards a Comprehensive Language Policy: The Language of the School as a Second Language," *Education Canada*, 35:2 (Summer 1995), 52–53.

[93]Salem Aweiss, "Situating Learning in Technology: The Case of Computer-Mediated Reading Supports," *Journal of Educational Technology Systems*, 23:1 (1994), 63.

[94]Lyman-Hager, 189.

[95]William Brierley and Ian Kemble, *Computers as a Tool in Language Teaching* (New York, NY: Ellis Horwood, 1991), 101.

- There are several cautions to heed when considering software for implementation. Some current software programs involve more reading and writing than speaking. Adventure games, for example, involve dozens of decisions for their successful completion, but they do little to develop oral communicative competence.[96]

Can Languages Be Acquired Effectively through Learning Subject Matter in the Target Language?

Research tends to support the utility and success of second-language acquisition through subject-matter learning. The body of research on immersion programs shows that second-language performance of those enrolled in such programs surpasses that of children enrolled in core or other second-language instruction programs. In the case of advanced students, language proficiency even approaches that of native speakers of the target language.[97] This research tends to support Krashen's idea of going "a little beyond" the student's level of comprehension.

Is There a Critical Age for Language Acquisition?

> "Scientists do not know the answer to the question of why adults do not acquire language as readily as children do. Something must happen to the brain about the time of puberty."
> – Noam Chomsky

Although there is no clear consensus on what ages are best for acquiring a language, research tends to support the belief that languages are most effectively acquired at middle school ages. Some researchers suggest the "language acquisition device" (LAD)—a metaphor for the cognitive and physiological processes of the brain in language acquisition—becomes relatively inefficient after puberty. Although this device atrophies, language acquisition is still possible during adulthood.[98]

However, the concept of the Language Acquisition Device is controversial. Stephen Krashen and Tracy Terell, for example, believe that adults have "perfectly fine LADs and that, given comprehensible input and a non-pathological social situation, plus a little time, [L2] acquisition is not difficult at all."[99]

Despite inconclusive research, it seems probable that adult language acquirers who have had some exposure to a language different from their first language during childhood will do better than those who did not have the same experience.[100] Hence, exposure to language acquisition at a young age may benefit individuals who decide to learn another language later in life.

What Length of Time Is Required to Develop a Given Level of Linguistic Proficiency?

Many of the language programs in North America today seem to be based on an idea that one or two years of study will allow one to develop an ability that is just short of fluency. Research shows that for many languages, this is only enough time to provide a modest introduction to the language.

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[96]Geoff Jordan, "Exploiting Computer-Based Simulations for Language-Learning Purposes," *Simulation & Gaming*, 23:1 (March 1992), 91.

[97]Henry Edwards, Marjorie Wesche, Stephen Krashen, Richard Clément and Bastian Kruidenier, "Second-Language Acquisition through Subject-Matter Learning: A Study of Sheltered Psychology Classes at the University of Ottawa," *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 41:2 (1984), 269.

[98]Noam Chomsky, in G.F. Westphal, "The Critical Age, Individual Differences and Grammar Rules," *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 46:1 (October 1989), 87.

[99]*Ibid.*, Endnote #8.

[100]*Ibid.*, 93.

In addition, learning some languages may require more time than others. Research shows that:

- Group I languages (including Romance languages, Dutch, Danish, Swedish) require the least amount of time to learn. The average learner will need about:
  - 240 hours of instruction to achieve survival proficiency
  - 480 hours of instruction to achieve limited working proficiency
  - over 720 hours of instruction to achieve professional working proficiency.

- Group II languages (including German, Greek, Indonesian) require significantly more time to learn than Group I languages. The average learner will need about:
  - 480 hours of instruction to achieve survival proficiency
  - 720 hours of instruction to achieve limited working proficiency
  - over 1,320 hours of instruction to achieve professional working proficiency.

- Group III languages (including Russian, Polish, Hebrew, Hungarian, Turkish) may require moderately more time to learn than Group II languages. The average learner will need about the same amount of time:
  - 480 hours of instruction to achieve survival proficiency
  - 720 hours of instruction to achieve limited working proficiency
  - much more than 1,320 hours of instruction to achieve professional working proficiency.

- Group IV languages (including Asian languages and Arabic) are among the most difficult to learn and thus require a significant amount of instructional time. The average learner will need about:
  - 480 hours of instruction to achieve survival proficiency
  - 1,320 hours of instruction to achieve limited working proficiency
  - about 2,400–2,700 hours of instruction to achieve professional working proficiency.

Note: These guidelines are based on research on adult learning in an intensive setting. Younger learners may need more time because of factors such as infrequency of study, level of motivation and social pressures. See Table 19 for more details.

Table 19
ACTFL Scale for Assessing Language Proficiency

ACTFL* Scale	ILR** Scale
	5 Native or bilingual proficiency
	4+
	4 Distinguished proficiency
	3+
Superior	3 Professional working proficiency
Advanced High	2+
Advanced	2 Limited working proficiency
Intermediate High	1+
Intermediate Mid Intermediate Low	1 Survival proficiency
Novice High	0+
Novice Mid Novice Low	0 No practical proficiency

*American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages

**Interagency Language Roundtable

Source: Gary Buck, Heidi Byrnes and Thomson, *ACTFL Scale for Assessing Language Proficiency*, 1989, 2–15.

Table 20
ACTFL Assessment Criteria: Speaking Proficiency

Global Tasks/ Functions	Context	Content	Accuracy	Text Type
Superior Can discuss extensively by supporting opinions, abstracting and hypothesizing	Most formal and informal settings	Wide range of general interest topics and some special fields of interest and expertise; concrete, abstract and unfamiliar topics	Errors virtually never interfere with communication or disturb the native speaker	Extended discourse
Advanced Can describe and narrate in major time/aspect frames	Most informal and some formal settings	Concrete and factual topics of personal and public interest	Can be understood without difficulty by speakers unaccustomed to non-native speakers	Paragraph discourse
Intermediate Can maintain simple face-to-face conversation by asking and responding to simple questions	Some informal settings and a limited number of transactional situations	Topics related primarily to self and immediate environment	Can be understood, with some repetition, by speakers accustomed to non-native speakers	Discrete sentences and strings of sentences
Novice Can produce only formulaic utterances, lists and enumerations	Highly predictable common daily settings	Common discrete elements of daily life	May be difficult to understand, even for those accustomed to non-native speakers	Discrete words and phrases

Source: Gary Buck, Heidi Byrnes and Thomson, *ACTFL Assessment Criteria: Speaking Proficiency*, 1989, 3–9.

Table 21
Expected Levels of Proficiency by Hours and Language
(See ACTFL Scale, Table 19.)

Group I: Afrikaans, Danish, Dutch, French, Haitian Creole, Italian, Norwegian, Portuguese, Romanian, Spanish, Swahili, Swedish			
Length of Training	**Aptitude for Language Learning**		
	Minimum	**Average**	**Superior**
8 weeks (240 hours)	1	1/1+	1+
16 weeks (480 hours)	1+	2	2+
24 weeks (720 hours)	2	2+	3
Group II: Bulgarian, Dari, Farsi, German, Greek, Hindi, Indonesian, Malay, Urdu			
Length of Training	**Aptitude for Language Learning**		
	Minimum	**Average**	**Superior**
16 weeks (480 hours)	1	1/1+	1+/2
24 weeks (720 hours)	1+	2	2+/3
44 weeks (1,320 hours)	2/2+	2+/3	3/3+
Group III: Amharic, Bengali, Burmese, Czech, Finnish, Hebrew, Hungarian, Khmer, Lao, Nepali, Filipino, Polish, Russian, Serbo-Croatian, Sinhala, Tai, Tamali, Turkish, Vietnamese			
Length of Training	**Aptitude for Language Learning**		
	Minimum	**Average**	**Superior**
16 weeks (480 hours)	0	1	1/1+
24 weeks (720 hours)	1+	2	2/2+
44 weeks (1,320 hours)	2	2+	3
Group IV: Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, Korean			
Length of Training	**Aptitude for Language Learning**		
	Minimum	**Average**	**Superior**
16 weeks (480 hours)	0	1	1/
24 weeks (720 hours)	1	1+	1+
44 weeks (1,320 hours)	1+	2	2+
80–92 weeks (2,400–2,760 hours)	2+	3	3+

Source: Judith E. Liskin-Gasparro, *ETS Oral Proficiency Testing Manual* (Princeton, N.J.: Educational Testing Service, 1982).

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