

mobility

Detecting and Removing Obstacles to the Mobility of Foreign Language Teachers

Final Report

**A Report to the European Commission
Directorate General for Education & Culture**

Contract No. 2005-270/001-001 SO2 88EPAL

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¹ Not included in the published version.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

1. The advent of the Single Market and the associated process of labour market deregulation raise numerous questions about the free mobility of labour. The enhanced process of mergers and acquisitions not only raises the need for a highly mobile, highly skilled labour force operating within flexible labour markets, but also raises concerns about the role of language within these, increasingly global, labour markets.
2. One of Europe's advantages as it confronts the expansion of the Knowledge Economy lies in its linguistic diversity. However, this advantage is not well understood, and integrating this diversity into a multilingualism which will allow labour mobility to encompass the exploitation of the value of linguistic diversity is slow in developing.
3. The EU has already taken steps to promote the mobility of labour but, in so doing, has identified a number of problematic issues, some of which can be resolved by enhancing the knowledge of languages within the labour force. Foreign language teachers, working in the primary and secondary education systems, are key players in achieving this aim.
4. However, in many countries the authorities consider that the quality of foreign language teaching is far from satisfactory. The Commission believes that the more opportunities that language teachers have to work abroad temporarily, the greater will be the exchange of good teaching practices and methods, and in many cases, the greater proficiency they will acquire by exposure to the home context of the language that they are trained to teach.
5. Previous work has identified a number of obstacles to the transnational mobility of school teachers, particularly in Comenius projects. The Commission has invited member states, through several Action Plans on mobility in education, to increase teacher mobility in general. So too did the Parliament and the Council, through a 2001 Recommendation.
6. Thus far, however, little is known about how the language teachers themselves understand and perceive the incentives and barriers associated with mobility. This is one important aspect of the present study.
7. The study used three means of gathering data. The first consisted of desk research which sought to identify legislative and implementational developments, with the support where necessary of official contacts in each State. The second involved focus groups of the main stakeholders associated with language teaching. These were conducted in four states selected in relation to a heuristic model involving different orientations to teacher mobility. The third component consisted of an on-line survey of language teachers in the 31 target states. The topic focused on the motivation for mobility and the obstacles to mobility.
8. The desk research in many cases was unable to obtain the documentation which the various member states were asked to produce. Similarly the response to a request for information was very uneven across the same member states. This raises serious doubts as to the level of commitment, on the part of the authorities of several countries, to the mobility of foreign language teachers.

9. The focus group work identified a number of areas of frustration as regards teacher mobility across the range of stakeholders. It also identified some differences associated with the institutional alignment of the different stakeholders. It may well be that despite a high motivation on the part of the language teachers, some of the perception of the various obstacles may be so institutionalised that they will be difficult to overcome.
10. A network of correspondents was set up to ensure adequate dissemination of the survey questionnaire within the foreign language teaching profession. In many cases they also helped to identify official interlocutors for the desk research.
11. The on-line survey attracted 6,251 responses from foreign language teachers across Europe. It identified a desire to improve both competence in the language that they teach and familiarity with the associated culture as the main motivation for teacher mobility.
12. Willingness to take part in mobility was very high (just over 70% said they were willing to take part in mobility next year), and there were no gender differences here; the latter emerged in the assessment of the applicability of various obstacles to the personal circumstances of each respondent.
13. A crucial variable in assessing the relative importance of each obstacle was gender. Five out of six respondents were women, and personal obstacles in their case were often highlighted as more important than other kinds of obstacle.
14. A number of obstacles were uncovered, many of them coexisting. The importance of the various obstacles varied across the different social and demographic groups, as well as across the different states. Obstacles were least and motivation highest among the younger school teachers who were not encumbered by family responsibilities. There were differences in the importance attached to the obstacles between teachers from the 15 pre-2004 EU member states and the other states covered in the study.
15. There was widespread agreement in two areas: the concern that mobility could interfere with domestic responsibilities, and the perception that whatever their income, teachers engaging in transnational mobility will end up having to invest in net terms. There was also concern about the impact of mobility on job security, the loss of social security and pension rights, and its negative impact upon promotion prospects.
16. These and other obstacles inform the set of recommendations with which the report concludes:

A. Opportunities for foreign language teacher mobility

- Structural imbalances: The demand for mobility places focuses on specific countries (and particularly the UK and Ireland). In overcoming this issue exchanges involving countries of high demand should be limited to a single term.
- Bilateral and multilateral exchange agreements: Member States should be encouraged to increase the number and range of exchange opportunities specifically for foreign language teachers, including the existing exchange schemes (*puesto por puesto*, teacher exchange Europe, etc.). Third countries should be specifically included: countries in which in-coming teachers would teach not their mother tongue but a language they have trained to teach; neither would be a state language in the host country.

- Selection procedures for organized mobility based on bilateral exchanges should reconsider their selection procedures. In particular: (a) less weight should be given to the lengthy accumulation of experience, and more to youthfulness, enthusiasm and the capacity to innovate on their return; (b) less weight should be attached to the command teachers have of the foreign language they usually teach, since, unless they visit a third country, mobile teachers are usually expected to teach their home language, and part of the aim is that to improve their command of the language they are qualified to teach; (c) preference should be given to candidates willing to learn from the experience of living in another culture; (d) weight should be attached to the level of commitment to the mobility project demonstrated by the receiving institution and its staff; and (e) where governments believe that temporary transnational mobility schemes for teachers of foreign languages might fuel permanent migration, the acceptance of a return clause commitment on the part of applicants for a foreign language teaching post might be included in the selection procedure.
- Procedures for recognizing the professional qualifications of foreign language teachers: (a) a working group could specifically study how to simplify procedures for recognizing the professional qualifications of serving foreign language teachers, one of the obstacles to mobility outside the bilateral exchange agreements; (b) the Commission could invite member states to simplify the procedures needed, outside exchange schemes, for trained foreign language teachers wishing to work only temporarily in their country.

B. Information as regards foreign language teacher mobility prospects

- The authorities should improve the dissemination of information about mobility calls. Some countries should make the process more transparent.
- Outside bilateral exchange schemes, teachers need a clearing-house, preferably on the web, offering information about vacancies for temporary posts in schools across Europe. Such a central clearing-house, set up by the Commission or at its initiative, might even take direct responsibility (with the member States' consent), for covering vacancies.

C. Personal circumstances

- The Commission might consider special compensatory incentives for women with family responsibilities to help allay the financial and social impact of some obstacles (special travel allowances for weekend visits to family, etc.).

D. Financial issues

- Funding of long-term mobility channelled through the Commission might bear in mind and compensate differentials in salaries, as appropriate.
- Member states should be invited to agree upon systems to ensure portability across Europe of pension payments and contributions, especially for the mobility contemplated in this report.

E. Allowances for the mobility of foreign language teachers

- Specific requirements for FL teachers: The Commission might invite the educational authorities in each country to consider ways of overcoming the

obstacles highlighted by foreign language teachers either wishing to come to their country or to leave it temporarily to work abroad.

- Career advancement: (a) the Commission might set up a system jointly with the educational authorities in each country to ensure that foreign language teaching experience in schools abroad is regarded as being equivalent to working at home; (b) the Commission could also recommend to member States that they take measures whereby having worked as a language teacher abroad comes to be treated as a tangible asset in terms of professional promotion prospects.
- Teacher training: (a) the Commission might promote consensus across Europe on the skills that future foreign language teachers will need; (b) in-service training can be greatly stimulated if the Commission organises and supports European workshops and on-site working visits.

In conclusion, the authors of the report believe that the Commission might consider drafting a mobility strategy specifically for foreign language teachers.

CHAPTER 1: THEORETICAL ISSUES

Introduction:

Neo-liberalism is the political philosophy driving globalisation, and signals the advent of the New Economy. Labour markets are being freed from the constraints of state regulation. In the past, state labour markets tended to operate as unitary markets with a single language, resulting in a plethora of largely closed labour markets in Europe and an associated range of state languages.

In February 1986, the 12 member states signed the Single European Act, setting out a timetable for the 270 steps needed to complete the single market by 1993.² Goods, services, people and capital were to move around increasingly freely within the single market. However, the emerging context involving the free mobility of labour in a single labour market requires either the domination of a single *lingua franca* or the expansion of multilingualism for most European citizens.

This explains the perceived need to increase and improve the teaching of languages in Europe. It includes the need to increase the experience of foreign language teachers in the 'native' context of the languages which they teach. Yet there are many barriers that prevent most language teachers from availing themselves of such opportunities. Steps have been undertaken to reduce these barriers, primarily through legislation at the state and through European Union directives.

Yet little is known about how the teachers themselves understand the contextualisation of these developments, and how they envisage the relationship between their own personal situation, and the obstacles they may have to overcome in order to enjoy the benefits of the 'foreign' experience. This is the context for the study.

i. Mobility:

Sociological studies of mobility seek to establish structural patterns which can account for differing incidences of mobility. These studies contrast with the study of individual factors. However, there is an increasing trend to study both individual and structural factors side by side in ascertaining the nature of mobility. Individuals cannot make decisions independent of the structures they are part of, and structures or networks cannot operate independently of individuals.

A push/pull analysis seeks to evaluate the factors associated with moving from one context and into another, the equivalent of the supply/demand dualism of economics. Relating the circulation of capital and the circulation of people, it is argued that different states and regions have different economic and labour market configurations which demand different kinds of skills, and offer different levels of income. Globalisation, it is claimed, consolidates and expands this differentiation. Within state or regions, geographical mobility is often regarded as an aspect of social mobility.

For its part, a systems approach links mobility networks and individual decision making, in the context of political and cultural influences.

² Source: http://europa.eu.int/abc/12lessons/index6_en.htm

Mobility involves both spatial and social factors, both of which are clearly distinguished by the Commission in its Action Plan for Skills and Mobility³. In a stable, state-regulated labour market there is evidence that the higher the social class of the migrant, the further the distance migrated. Upward social mobility can be achieved in two ways: Someone can work their way up within the same local firm (burger mobility); alternatively, they can engage in spiralism, that is, they can combine social and geographical mobility, taking steps up the career ladder by moving from vacancy to vacancy, often in different companies, each move often including geographical mobility. Spiralism is of particular relevance for professionals developing their careers.

The individual's approach to mobility is often viewed as a cost-benefit analysis of the factors inducing and inhibiting mobility. Decision-making is held to be analogous to market investments, in which different options open up for the individual. The family cycle and the investment cycle are clearly related: at some points in the life cycle of each individual, investments in one form or another are desirable and possible. Non-investment in the interests and goals of the individual leads to inertia, and an absence of social and other kinds of mobility. The needs of the entire family and of individual members of the family have to be considered. In a career, these individual interests are thought of as individual enterprise interests. Sometimes the investment needs of the enterprise cycle coincide with particular points in the family cycle. Clashes between investment needs and the family cycle often lead to non-investment and even to abandoning the individual enterprise in order to become involved in an alternative enterprise.

The advantages of mobility thus seem evident. Nevertheless, in the Commission's view, "Many obstacles to mobility still exist, including deficiencies in language skills, family circumstances, as well as in relation to taxes, pensions, social security and related issues" (Commission 2002: 4).

ii. Teacher mobility:

Within the professions, including the teaching profession, social or career mobility is relevant for promotion and professional advancement. One can be socially mobile within the same school or administrative district; but if geographic and social mobility are combined, the opportunities for social mobility will expand. However, specific constraints operate. States regulate many professions, and professional bodies play a role in laying down criteria for entry and promotion, and in developing associated training. This has tended to restrict entry, not only into the profession from within the state, but also by professionals from another state. The outcome is a series of disjointed labour markets, each operating by reference to its regulatory criteria.

Most of the work on teacher mobility has looked at labour shortage and teacher turnover rather than at migration in search of skill enhancement and language experience. In the USA collaboration across individual states has been studied as a way of resolving distinctive issues associated with the supply and demand of teachers in these states. While linguistic diversity is much less complex in the USA than in Europe, many of the related issues associated with regulation are similar. There is faith in market-driven mobility: individuals are believed to respond to gaps in the market, and the market makes offers in response to shortages. Studies show that policies to enhance teacher mobility help to keep good teachers in the profession. They argue for developing

³ 2002: Commission's Action Plan for skills and mobility. Communication from the Commission to the Council, the European Parliament, the Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions. Brussels, 13/2/2002. COM (2002) 72 final. See annex 2: Statistical Annex. http://europa.eu.int/lex/en/com/cnc/2002/com2002_0072en01.pdf

reciprocal licensing agreements, pension portability and a willingness to pay teachers for accrued experience as bases for enhancing teacher mobility. Such policies are needed both to remove barriers that create problems for experienced teachers whose families relocate or who wish to take advantage of market opportunities, and also to prevent teachers being driven from the profession and others from being deterred from entering it.

In the USA the inter-school mobility rate is high, and the teaching profession features very high mobility (Ingersoll 1995⁴, 2001⁵; Murnane, Singer, Willett, Kemple & Olsen 1991⁶), not only from one school to another but also out of the profession. The poorer the population in the authority, the higher the mobility. Important factors in this mobility are the size of the school, the quality of the administration and the remuneration. While the distance of relocation may not be very high, this is larger on account of family factors. Turnover is greater for poorer districts, and also for poor performance schools. For most, mobility signals a search for better working conditions, and those with widely sought qualifications such as science and mathematics tend to leave the profession for better paid employment.

Several studies point to a high turnover in a school's teaching staff as one of the most powerful factors stifling school improvement efforts (Berman & McLaughlin 1977⁷; Huberman & Miles 1984⁸). To be effective, increasing language teacher mobility must be accompanied by the commitment of the receiving institution and the teachers in that institution.

iii. Foreign language teacher mobility:

The role of foreign language teachers is critical because of the impact their profession can have on the future development of Europe's labour market. To the extent that the teachers are successful in their job, their pupils and students will be able to cope better once they enter the labour market. In short, foreign language teachers can have a high multiplying effect, provided the quality of their work is ensured.

However, in the words of the Commission:

“Overall foreign languages are not sufficiently taught or learned in schools, and a considerable commitment to investment in this field is called for (Annex II, pt. 13). Progress in foreign language learning would remove one of the main cultural and psychological barriers to mobility, and also provide the basis for acquiring the intercultural skills for understanding what is involved in moving to another country to live and work. In this respect the value of educational mobility cannot be underestimated, not least because of the linguistic and intercultural skills that mobile students acquire. Evidence indicates that students who have been internationally mobile are more likely later in life to consider, seek or take up job opportunities in a Member State other than their own.” (Commission 2002: 10).

⁴ Ingersoll, R. (1995). *Teacher supply, teacher qualifications, and teacher turnover*. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics.

⁵ Ingersoll, R. M. (2001). Teacher turnover and teacher shortages: An organizational analysis. *American Educational Research Journal*, 37(3), 499-534.

⁶ Murnane, R. J., Singer, J. D., Willett, J. B., Kemple, J. J., & Olsen, R. J. (1991). *Who will teach? Policies that matter*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

⁷ Berman, P., & McLaughlin, M. (1977). *Federal programs supporting educational change. Vol. 7. Factors affecting implementation and continuation* (Report No. R-1589/7-HEW). Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corporation.

⁸ Huberman, M., & Miles, M. (1984). *Innovation up close*. New York: Plenum.

Improving the experience of language teachers was included as an objective of the Action Plan for Mobility (2000)⁹, which sought to give language teachers the opportunity to go on long-term training placements abroad, as well as making a commitment to the quality of language teaching, following up the Council Resolution of 31 March 1995 on improving and diversifying language learning and teaching. Moreover, the Commission recommended that Member States remove legal and administrative obstacles to the mobility of language teachers, monitoring this objective in *Actions II.4.1 and II.4.2* of the Action Plan “Promoting Language Learning and Linguistic Diversity” (Commission 2003)¹⁰.

iv. Institutional Structure:

The individual teacher is linked to several institutions. These links provide much of the structure associated with both individual teachers and their activities, and with the profession as a whole. They belong to a profession which helps to set standards for behaviour and practice. These standards are inculcated through the learning institutions which provide professional training. The profession is represented by bodies which help maintain standards while also negotiating their implementation with other institutions. Teachers are part of a professional team which operates inside a school, and has particular relationships with their colleagues. Different teams relate to one another, thereby creating not only a sense of community, but also a sense of commonality as regards the standards and expectations associated with the profession.

Teachers are employed in a direct or indirect way by other bodies. The central state may well provide the funds which allow them to be employed, and in so doing will tend to set standards for what it expects from individual teachers and from those who have a more direct role in their employment and practice. The institution which directly uses state funds to pay their wages may well be the local or regional authority, or even the individual school. They also will have a voice in the practice of teaching and in the teachers’ future.

Such institutions provide form to the profession: they have a vested interest in the activities of the individual teacher. As pointed out above, they are responsible for many of the structural barriers to teacher mobility; and they are capable of reducing or removing these obstacles, though it is up to the individual teacher to confront them and negotiate them. A central issue within any dynamic system is the extent to which any action at the institutional level is transmitted and known to the individual who relates to these institutions. Actions designed to assist the individual are not always known to that individual.

v. Study rationale:

The US studies referred to above do not focus on the main objectives of the study. They focus on mobility out of the profession rather than on the links between geographical

⁹ Resolution of the Council and the Representatives of the Governments of the Member States, meeting within the Council, of 14 December 2000, concerning an action plan for mobility. (2000/C 371/03), (OJ C 371, 23/12/2000). <http://europa.eu.int/scadplus/leg/en/cha/c11048.htm>

¹⁰ *Promoting Language Learning and Linguistic Diversity: An Action Plan 2004 - 2006*. Communication from the Commission to the Council, the European Parliament, the Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions. Brussels, 24/7/2003. COM (2003) 449 final. http://ec.europa.eu/education/doc/official/keydoc/actlang/act_lang_en.pdf

The present study was foreseen in Action II.4.1: “Following its recent study on obstacles to teacher mobility in the Union, the Commission will fund a more detailed analysis specifically of the obstacles to the mobility of language teachers, including a survey of their own perceptions and attitudes and recommendations for Member States. 2005” (p. 18)

mobility, the improvement of relevant competencies, and the improvement in the quality of the individual teacher. Nevertheless, they do suggest factors that should be considered in the present study. Thus, a major motivation for teacher migration is likely to be social mobility within the profession. Some of the barriers to mobility may also be similar. The differential facets of teacher mobility may well relate to the same variables: family circumstances, age, gender, rates of remuneration, desirability of the language taught or used for teaching, portability of qualifications, etc. Evidently some of these factors are interrelated. The task thus becomes one of sorting out the population which is capable of becoming mobile from the universe, and of ascertaining the impact of the various obstacles on different categories of this population. Our concern is less with those who drop out from the profession than with mobility within the profession.

This means that information needs to be gathered about the following categories of information:

- i. Regulatory barriers,
- ii. Individual barriers,
- iii. Structural barriers.

Below we elaborate on how the relevant information will be collected and analysed. Considerable work has already been undertaken on the regulatory barriers and any further work should build on reports for the different member states. The work includes information on the removal of regulatory barriers through such steps as the portability of qualifications and grants, the top-up with EC funding, credit transfer through ECTS, etc.

This focus on personal characteristics does not include reference to the psychological characteristics of the potential migrant. When considering issues such as perception and attitudes it is wise to question the relationship between such elements and behaviour. The relationship between attitudes and behaviour is, at best, weak: that is, attitude is often a poor correlate of behaviour. Perception on the other hand can be treated as pertaining to the social construction of reality. If it is possible to unearth the legislative barriers to mobility these can be evaluated against the perceived relevance of such factors for mobility.

CHAPTER 2: METHOD

Introduction

The objectives of this study are as follows:

“...to list, define, classify and analyse the obstacles to the mobility of language teachers across national and language borders in Europe, and make practical recommendations for action at European and national levels.”

Mobility here refers to movement from one state to another, not within a given state. For our purposes the study will concentrate on mobility lasting from one term to several years. The subjects of the study are qualified language teachers from across Europe working at the primary, secondary and vocational levels. Two sets of subjects are involved: (a) Those who are qualified to teach students a ‘foreign’ language; and (b) those qualified teachers who are capable of teaching another subject through the medium of what for the students is a ‘foreign’ language. Though the latter group is undoubtedly much smaller, we shall endeavour not to exclude them from the study.

There are three components to the data collection:

- desk research with a focus on the context for each state;
- a survey of individual teachers from within each state; and
- work with relevant stakeholders which aims to contextualise the professional context.

These components are discussed individually.

i. Desk Research

The topic to hand has already received considerable attention at the European level. Various reports have been commissioned and the various states have often taken concrete legislative and planning steps to alleviate some of the barriers. The relevant information will be gathered and will be used it as background data and knowledge re the topic of study.

The objective of this facet of the work is to establish detail about the range of educational systems across the 31 States, and to consider in detail the steps that have already been undertaken to reduce barriers to teacher mobility and mobility in general. Differences between education systems are important because they may have a bearing on the teacher’s own evaluation of the obstacles to mobility, and on how relevant overcoming them is for their own social mobility. The steps taken to eliminate barriers also have to be contrasted with knowledge that teachers have of the existing context.

By analysing current state policies and initiatives an overview is possible of the institutional circumstances and regulations which can operate as barriers to mobility including qualifications, pensions, etc. and the extent and range of their portability. Differences in recruitment and hiring, license reciprocity, pension portability, etc. will be overviewed. It is taken for granted that States' have an interest in achieving a high quality teacher workforce. Moreover, policies that enhance teacher mobility also help to keep good teachers in the profession and provide greater opportunities to recruit teachers to schools where they are in greatest need.

Most states and regions produce regular data on both migration trends and on the teaching profession. Thanks largely to the Commission’s work, states increasingly use general mobility indicators which are compatible with both national and Community level statistics. A few produce direct data on teacher mobility, though this tends to be restricted to mobility within the state or region, or strictly to short-term Comenius

exchanges. Much of this data, as well as information on the educational structures of the respective states and the associated teachers training orientations, has been collected and summarised by two Reports on teacher training produced by Southampton University (Kelly et al. 2002, 2004¹¹). The information includes an indication of where study abroad is necessary; details of existing teacher exchanges; which states provide 'bilingual education' in which instructors teach a subject throughout what for their pupils is a foreign language; and where in-service training enhances the individual's promotion prospects.

Another potentially valuable source was to be the evaluative reports that member states were invited to draw up and forward to the Commission in the 2001 Parliament and Council Recommendation¹² on mobility within the Community for students, persons undergoing training, volunteers, teachers and trainers. These reports were to be delivered within two years of the adoption of the Recommendation and thereafter every two years, and they were to evaluate the action taken in response to the Recommendations and in the Action Plan for mobility¹³.

The next significant step was the Commission's Action Plan for skills and mobility (February 2002)¹⁴. In this Action Plan we read:

"The present document builds on the work of the Task Force by setting out an ambitious programme of action to develop European labour markets, open to all with access for all. It complements several existing initiatives designed to contribute to the mobility of citizens, in particular the Recommendation of the Council and the European Parliament on mobility¹⁵, and the associated Action Plan, to which Member States have agreed¹⁶. While these initiatives address the legal, administrative and linguistic barriers to mobility, faced by students, persons undergoing training, teachers and trainers, the present Action Plan focuses on removing the obstacles to labour market mobility."

¹¹ (a) Michael Kelly, Michael Grenfell, Angela Gallagher-Brett, Diana Jones, Laurence Richard & Amanda Hilmansson-Dunn. *The Training of Teachers of a Foreign Language: Developments in Europe*. A Report to the European Commission, Directorate General for Education and Culture. Directorate General for Education and Culture. Revised Report, August 2002. 90 pp. Main report:

http://www.eu.int/comm/education/policies/lang/doc/executive_summary_full_en.pdf

(b) Michael Kelly, Michael Grenfell, Rebecca Allan, Christine Kriza & William McEvoy. *European Profile for Language Teacher Education - A Frame of Reference*. A Report to the European Commission, Directorate General for Education and Culture. September 2004.

<http://www.lang.soton.ac.uk/profile/report/index.htm>

¹² Recommendation of 10 July 2001 of the European Parliament and of the Council on mobility within the Community for students, persons undergoing training, volunteers, teachers and trainers (OJ L 215, 9/8/2001).

http://europa.eu.int/eur-lex/pri/en/oj/dat/2001/l_215/l_21520010809en00300037.pdf.

¹³ See *Report from the Commission to the Council, the European Parliament, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions on the follow-up to the Recommendation of the European Parliament and the Council of 10 July 2001 on mobility within the Community of students, persons undergoing training, volunteers and teachers and trainers*. 2004.

<http://register.consilium.eu.int/pdf/en/04/st05/st05780.en04.pdf>

¹⁴ Communication from the Commission to the Council, the European Parliament, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions. Commission's Action Plan for skills and mobility. Brussels, 13/2/2002. COM(2002)72 final. http://europa.eu.int/eur-lex/en/com/cnc/2002/com2002_0072en01.pdf

¹⁵ See above.

¹⁶ Resolution of the Council and of the representatives of the Governments of the Member States, meeting within the Council of 14 December 2000 concerning an action plan for mobility. OJ C 371, 23/12/2000, p. 4-10. [http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:32000Y1223\(02\):EN:HTML](http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:32000Y1223(02):EN:HTML)

The Council issued its own Resolution on Skills and Mobility (3 June 2002).¹⁷

Also of relevance is the 2002 Communication the European Commission issued on 'Free movement of workers: achieving the full benefits and potential'¹⁸. The Communication highlights three main issues in the area of access to employment and equal treatment in employment, one of which is language requirements.

“The ability to communicate effectively is obviously important, and a certain level of language may therefore be required for a job, but the Court has held that any language requirement must be reasonable and necessary for the job in question, and must not be used as an excuse to exclude workers from other Member States. While employers (whether private or public) can require a job applicant to have a certain level of linguistic ability, they cannot demand only a specific qualification as proof. [...] The Commission considers that while a very high level of language may, under certain strict conditions, be justifiable for certain jobs, a requirement to be mother tongue is not acceptable.”

Much information was collected in the Commission's 2004 Report¹⁹.

The present study follows the suggestions made for further work in that document and has endeavoured to evaluate the progress of subsequent development, particularly the Report on the Implementation of the Commission's Action Plan for Skills and Mobility.²⁰

ii. Survey

A crucial gap in the existing data is the target population's own understanding of the relevance and value of mobility, and a clarification of how these issues pertain to their own contexts. We have referred above to how migration studies begin to resolve such issues. These approaches, together with the background knowledge that contextualises the specific target group, inform this part of the work.

The data to be collected is informed by the work on migration studies discussed above, and by the associated background information that pertains to the target population. We will submit to empirical scrutiny the hypotheses that the key personal variables that influence the willingness of language teachers to engage in temporary transnational mobility are age, marital status, position in the family cycle, relevance of mobility for professional social mobility, perception of barriers, and gender. Several of these variables are interrelated: there will be a relationship between age, marital status and position in the family cycle even though the relationships will not be hard and fast. We know that the teaching profession offers different opportunities for social mobility in the different member states. We expect to find considerable differences by country, related to aspects of the professional status of teachers. The different role of language teaching in different states and different educational levels is surely relevant. Thus the statistical treatment of the survey data must allow differences to be detected for men and women, for different age groups, for different kinds of school (private and public)

¹⁷ Council Resolution of 3 June 2002 on skills and mobility. OJ C 162, 6/7/2002, p. 1-3.
http://europa.eu.int/eur-lex/pri/en/oj/dat/2002/c_162/c_16220020706en00010003.pdf

¹⁸ Dated 11/12/2002. COM (2002) 694 final. <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:52002DC0694:EN:HTML>

¹⁹ *Report from the Commission to the Council, the European Parliament, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions. Report on the follow-up to the Recommendation of the European Parliament and the Council of 10 July 2001 on mobility within the Community of students, persons undergoing training, volunteers and teachers and trainers.* Brussels, 23/1/2004. COM (2004) 21 final. http://europa.eu.int/eur-lex/en/com/rpt/2004/com2004_0021en01.pdf

²⁰ COM (2004) 66 final, 6/2/2004.
http://europa.eu.int/comm/employment_social/skills_mobility/doc/com_04_66_fin_en.pdf

and for different levels of schooling (primary, secondary and vocational). This is expressed in the following matrix:

level / age	MALE			FEMALE		
	22-29	30-44	45+	22-29	30-44	45+
Primary						
Secondary						
Vocational						

We designed a method which would ensure sufficient numbers in each cell for detailed analysis across the variables to be possible, and for satisfactory levels of validity to be guaranteed, including as far as possible difference between countries. The analysis of this data was to allow us to extrapolate to the universe for the state or region and develop overall figures, and reach valid conclusions, for the different social categories. It thereby becomes possible to cross tabulate the independent variable with the dependent variables. It should also be possible to provide estimates of the potential mobility figures associated with the different states and the different languages which the teachers are qualified to teach. This should be invaluable for future mobility programmes.

The data was to be collected using a specifically designed on-line questionnaire that was accessible through the project website²¹. The questionnaire was designed using a multilingual website development tool, and the multilingual survey instrument was designed using Netquest software. Both had been purchased by UOC's research institute, IN3. Both products were prepared in six of the main European languages, as well as Catalan, the institutional language of the universities undertaking the task. Most questions were closed, thus allowing continuous monitoring of the returns for each state and of the main cross tabulations. A correspondent was to be recruited for each of the targeted member states²². Each correspondent (who had to be well placed in the education sector of their state) had to inform the target population of the existence of the survey instrument and to encourage them to use it.

The survey instrument was supplemented by a discussion space where language teachers were invited to participate in a series of relevant fora. A new topic for the forum was added weekly. This allowed teachers to make their own extensive comment while also entering into a debate about key issues of relevance. In the event the single open-ended question at the end of the questionnaire proved to be much more effective in drawing respondents' opinions and experience on the topic: several thousand gave us their remarks, many of which were to prove invaluable.

iii. Focus Groups

While the survey work focuses upon teachers as individuals, and as members of the family and the local community, teachers are also members of a profession. The various professional bodies often serve as the source of information for teachers and the guides for their professional interests and behaviour. Consequently they had to be consulted in the study, as well as other stakeholders: teacher trainers, language inspectors and the government officials at state and regional levels.

²¹ www.uoc.edu/in3/mobility

²² In the event, alternative systems of dissemination were found in Denmark, France, Greece and Luxembourg.

The technique used for this part of the work was the focus group. This method explores an issue through leading a debate of a specific set of questions. Four small groups of participants, representing institutions or agencies with a vested interest in the mobility of language teachers, were convened and encouraged to debate issues presented by the convenor. We sought to draw out their experiences, opinions, wishes and concerns. Our real interest was, of course, in the view of the institution or agency, though the idiosyncratic views of participants were respected, and were not allowed to hinder or constrain the discussion. Nor were they pressed to express or defend views for which they felt they could not take responsibility.

The objective of this aspect of the work was to unravel how the various stakeholders viewed the issue of teacher mobility within the profession, and their role, if any, in removing obstacles. A cross section of the respective stakeholders was thus required. In many respects uniformity in the orientation of these personnel was expected, regardless of the states to which they belonged. Variation in perception is more likely to derive from the nature and interests of the different kinds of stakeholders. We thus decided that a limited number of four cases be explored. We hypothesised that the views of those from states which stand to lose staff from their labour force see things differently from those which stand to gain staff. We expected some differences between those States which have devolved educational and political systems and those whose systems are centralised. This determined our choice of locations:

Centralised systems		Devolved systems	
States gaining teachers	States losing states	States gaining teachers	States losing states
Case 1: Ireland	Case 2: Latvia	Case 3: Spain	Case 4: Bulgaria

Key individuals were recruited to convene the focus groups and members of the research team were involved in their implementation.

iv. Triangulation

It is essential to integrate these three components, and not to let them stand alone as separate sources of information and knowledge. A key issue in the teacher survey is the degree of articulation between what has already been achieved in removing barriers to mobility, and the teacher's perception of these achievements. One thing is to develop policies and to achieve outcomes, but their social effect will be negligible unless they are integrated into the individual's social practice as real effects. It is also essential for professional bodies and other stakeholders to play an active role in policy development in order to achieve effective results at the local or state level.

In this way an analysis based on triangulation can reach its objectives successfully: e.g. linking information on mobility opportunities within the state profession with incentives from the survey data, or linking survey data on perceived conceptions of mobility obstacles with information on the same issue from the desk research.

In a sense the three data sources approach the topic from different perspectives, and this will influence what can be said in the final conclusions.

(a) A teacher speaks from the place which is potentially most influenced by any development, while reserving the right not to participate in any such development. The associated interests are evaluated from this place by reference to what the individual can gain.

(b) In contrast, the legislature speaks from the place of the body which she represents, the vested interests of which are quite different from those of the individual

teacher, and may even lie outside of the particular state. The institutional place assumes importance and the interest becomes much broader than mere teacher mobility in that it relates to the single labour market and its influence upon the legislative body or that which it represents.

(c) Thirdly, the stakeholders are seen as stakeholders that relate to the profession. The parameters of the profession are determined by the political boundaries and the institutional power holders located within these boundaries.

Each category of respondent is integrated as a subject of overlapping but distinctive discourses. That is, the intersection of these three places generates a distinctive configuration of time person and place by reference to the single issue of teacher mobility. Some barriers to mobility may well derive from the lack of congruence between these three dimensions.

In order to reach this configuration the analysis of each component has to be considered separately. The teacher survey will provide both quantitative and qualitative data that will be analysed empirically. It allows us to make statements about the incidence of the key factors associated with the issue of teacher mobility and the variables correlated with this incidence. In contrast the stakeholder data is qualitative, and allows us to evaluate the position of key stakeholders vis-à-vis the broad parameters they will have to address. These positions must be considered not merely in terms of what is said, but also bearing in mind the place from which each statement emanates. The same is true of the materials associated with the desk research, though the textual nature of the data presents a particular analytical problem. The essence of the triangulation lies in selecting key parameters around which the analysis of the three components can be undertaken.

CHAPTER 3: FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING IN EUROPE

1. Introduction

No study of the obstacles to foreign language teachers' mobility can aim to present a complete picture of the situation unless it first puts into a professional perspective the role of such teachers. In this chapter we shall outline how far Europe has advanced towards achieving a multilingual citizenry, the provision of foreign language teaching in schools, and changes in teacher training. These will provide the reader with the necessary background to contextualise the rest of this report.

First, though, a short note is in order on the role of European public education systems, built up - in most cases - over 150 years or more. Many of the larger countries, at least, developed with shifting borders that they had to defend against their immediate neighbours. Many also had to cope with an ethnolinguistically diverse populace. Public education systems had two primary functions: to prepare the population both for employment in its internal labour market and to play their role as loyal citizens. In this respect the focus of the education systems was on the promotion of a uniform culture. In some ways, therefore, they were inwardly looking.

The development of the European single market and the associated globalisation of the economic order have resulted in much more flexible labour markets which encompass a far greater degree of potential labour mobility. Realising this potential demands a greater degree of linguistic and cultural diversity within the labour force. The situation is further complicated by the emergence of the knowledge economy, in which human and cultural capital become key resources. This means that, for instance, instead of training all pupils in one language (perhaps with the inclusion of Latin and/or a single international language), pupils coming out of these systems are expected to have achieved proficiency in two European languages other than their own. However, if and when a country thinks about contracting native teachers of these languages, and encouraging mobility of one's own teachers abroad, a whole range of elements of a closed education systems have to be opened up. Foreign language teachers are in more ways than one the spearhead of change in education across Europe, not just in the classroom but also in highlighting the changes that national legislators need to put into effect if integration and mobility at this level are to be possible and effective.

In short, most States seem to still be conceptualising foreign language teaching in 19th century terms, and this focus will have to change rapidly if human capital development in Europe is to become a shared objective.

2. Learning foreign languages, a common objective

In today's global world, knowledge and mastery of at least one foreign language has become a basic individual competence which is acknowledged and addressed by governments everywhere, and has become integrated into their education systems, be they in developed or developing countries.

In the context of Europe, the continent's many national languages and cultures are considered a valuable common asset and resource, to be protected and developed. As the Council for Cultural Co-operation of the Council of Europe points out "... the rich heritage of diverse languages and cultures in Europe is a valuable common resource to be protected and developed, and [...] a major educational effort is needed to convert that diversity from a barrier to communication into a source of mutual enrichment and

understanding” (page 2).²³ Inclusion of this provision in the curriculum complies with the recommendations of European Union heads of State and Government regarding the importance of a sustained effort to improve the mastery of basic skills.

In the case of the governments of the 31 countries covered in this study, reforms have been introduced in the education systems in order to comply with the Lisbon declaration (2000) and the Barcelona European Council (2002), where Heads of State or Government called for a sustained effort “to improve the mastery of basic skills, in particular by teaching at least two foreign languages from a very early age”²⁴.

How successful are these efforts to increase the plurilingual competence of Europe’s citizens? A recent Eurobarometer survey²⁵ sheds light on this issue:

BE	CZ	DK	DE	EE
English 52%	German 31%	English 83%	English 51%	Russian 62%
French 44%	English 24%	German 54%	French 12%	English 41%
German 25%	Russian 19%	Swedish 19%	German 7%	German 18%
				Finnish 18%
GR	ES	FR	IE	IT
English 44%	English 20%	English 34%	Irish 21%	English 29%
French 8%	Spanish 9%	Spanish 10%	French 19%	French 11%
German 8%	French 8%	German 7%	English 6%	German 4%
Italian 3%				Spanish 4%
CY	LV	LT	LU	HU
English 71%	Russian 67%	Russian 79%	French 90%	English 16%
French 11%	English 34%	English 26%	German 84%	German 16%
German 3%	Latvian 24%	Polish 17%	English 66%	Russian 2%
Italian 3%				
MT	NL	AT	PL	PT
English 89%	English 87%	English 53%	English 25%	English 26%
Italian 60%	German 66%	French 11%	Russian 24%	French 20%
French 17%	French 24%	Italian 8%	German 19%	Spanish 10%
SI	SK	FI	SE	UK
Croatian 61%	Czech 31%	English 60%	English 85%	French 14%
English 56%	German 28%	Swedish 38%	German 28%	English 7%
German 45%	Russian 25%	German 17%	French 10%	German 6%

²³ Recommendation No. R (82) 18 of the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe to Member States concerning modern languages (adopted by the Committee of Ministers on 24 September 1982 at the 350th meeting of the Ministers' Deputies).
<https://wcd.coe.int/com.instranet.InstraServlet?Command=com.instranet.CmdBlobGet&DocId=676398&SeCMode=1&Admin=0&Usage=4&InstranetImage=45465>

Cited in *Common European Framework of reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment* (Council of Europe). Cambridge University Press, 2001, page 2.

²⁴ *Presidency Conclusions*, Barcelona European Council. 15 and 16 March 2002. Paragraph 44, page 19.
http://www.consilium.europa.eu/ueDocs/cms_Data/docs/pressData/en/ec/71025.pdf

²⁵ *Europeans and Languages. Special Eurobarometer 237- Wave 63.4 - TNS Opinion & Social*. European Commission: Directorate-General Press and Communication. (Fieldwork: May - June 2005). September 2005. Data from p. 3-4. http://europa.eu.int/comm/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_237.en.pdf

			Norwegian 10%						
BG		HR		RO		TR		CY (tcc)	
Russian	21%	English	43%	English	26%	English	18%	English	43%
English	15%	German	33%	French	17%	Turkish	6%	Greek	19%
Bulgarian	11%	Italian	12%	(Others)	5%	German	4%	German	5%

The same survey shows the clear effects of improvements in the education system: the younger the respondents the greater the proportion that claim to be able to speak another language (69% of the 15-24 age group, and 79% of those still studying, as compared to 50% in the sample as a whole).

A still more recent survey²⁶ shows considerable changes (some of which are surprisingly and probably reflect mistakes in one or other of the tables) in such a short time span as six months:

BE		CZ		DK		DE		EE	
English	59%	German	28%	English	86%	English	56%	Russian	66%
French	48%	English	24%	German	58%	French	15%	English	46%
German	27%	Russian	20%	French	12%	German	9%	German	22%
GR		ES		FR		IE		IT	
English	48%	English	27%	English	36%	French	20%	English	29%
German	9%	French	12%	Spanish	13%	Irish	9%	French	14%
French	8%	Spanish	10%	German	8%	German	7%	Other regional language	6%
CY		LV		LT		LU		HU	
English	76%	Russian	70%	Russian	80%	French	90%	German	25%
French	12%	English	39%	English	32%	German	88%	English	23%
German	5%	Latvian	23%	Polish	15%	English	60%	Other	11%
MT		NL		AT		PL		PT	
English	88%	English	87%	English	58%	English	29%	English	32%
Italian	66%	German	70%	French	10%	Russian	26%	French	24%
French	17%	French	29%	Others	13%	German	19%	Spanish	9%
SI		SK		FI		SE		UK	
Croatian	59%	English	32%	English	63%	English	89%	French	23%
English	57%	German	32%	Swedish	41%	German	30%	German	9%
German	50%	Russian	29%	German	18%	French	11%	Spanish	8%
		Czech 25%							
BG		HR		RO		TR			
Russian	35%	English	49%	English	29%	English	17%		
English	23%	German	34%	French	24%	Turkish	7%		
German	12%	Italian	14%	German	6%	German	4%		

²⁶ *Europeans and their Languages. Special Eurobarometer 243.* (Fieldwork: November - December 2005). February 2006. Data from p. 13.

http://europa.eu.int/comm/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_243_en.pdf

3. Recent trends in foreign language learning and teaching provision

We may ask ourselves what the current state of the art of foreign language learning and teaching provision is, on the basis of previous recommendations, and as seen after researching different sources. Five trends stand out:

1. A growing consideration of foreign language competence as part of the general literacy to be achieved by all students in mainstream education.
2. Increased social pressure in favour of measures related to the provision, within the public sector, of education policies that lead to individuals with adequate foreign language skills, particularly in English.
3. An increased trend to start foreign language education at younger levels in all countries, as well as the provision of different sorts of “bilingual education” with a view to providing more exposure to the target language and broaden the contexts of its use.
4. Increased attention to developing oral production and interaction skills/ conversation skills.
5. About one third of the countries in Europe show a significant number of pupils that learn two or more foreign languages in general upper secondary education (ISCED level 3).

We shall deal with each of these trends separately, but first, let us briefly highlight another key development, the “*Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*”, or CEFR. This book was first published in 2001 in its English version and followed by versions in most of the other European Languages in the successive years and even non-European languages such as Japanese. It is the result of a Council of Europe initiative and has had a great and immediate impact in the professional field of modern language learning and teaching. Although it was not designed for mainstream education, its potential as a common tool to define levels across Europe, across education systems and stages and its comprehensiveness and action-oriented approach have rendered it a very useful tool with a common basis and a common language for the planning of language learning programmes, of language certification and of self-directed learning.

The CEFR provides the necessary basis for a European consensus on standards for quality and transparency in the area of language teaching, learning and evaluation. It states that “member States, when adopting or developing national policies in the field of modern language learning and teaching, may achieve greater convergence at the European level by means of appropriate arrangements for ongoing co-operation and co-ordination of policies”.²⁷ The CEFR is present in the Commission’s Action Plan in that context, in the following ways:

- * The EU proposal for a single framework for the transparency of vocational qualifications - Europass - makes use of the Framework’s proficiency levels in the standard European CV, which is at the centre of this initiative.
- * The CEFR levels have been used in the development of the DIALANG project and have been adopted by ALTE (Association of language Testers in Europe).

²⁷ *Preamble to Recommendation No. R (82) 18 of the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe to Member States concerning modern languages* (adopted by the Committee of Ministers on 24 September 1982 at the 350th meeting of the Ministers’ Deputies). Cited in *Common European Framework of reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment* (Council of Europe). Cambridge University Press, 2001, page 2. <http://culture2.coe.int/portfolio//documents/0521803136txt.pdf>

* The CEFR has had a great impact in education systems (other than in higher and VET education) and its scales are used in reporting language competence for mobility programmes.

Let us now look at each of the five trends identified above, before taking a look in greater depth at the issue of the training of foreign language teachers.

3.1. A growing consideration of foreign language competence as part of general literacy to be achieved by all students in mainstream education.

All the 31 countries surveyed, except Ireland, have foreign language education as a compulsory subject within mainstream education. The number of years of foreign language education varies from 4 to 13. In addition, many countries offer pupils the possibility of learning a second or third foreign language as optional subjects in parallel with the compulsory first foreign language within compulsory and/or post compulsory secondary education.

In Ireland, where foreign language education is not compulsory, a pilot project for the teaching of modern languages²⁸ in primary schools started in September 1998. It entails the teaching of one of four possible languages (French, German, Spanish or Italian) in the last two years of primary school. The National Council for Curriculum Achievement, based on a feasibility study, recommends that a decision on the future of modern languages in primary schools be taken when the new primary curriculum is implemented in full. This is expected to be in 2007.

Parallel to that, and also in Ireland, there is a Post Primary Language initiative aiming at broadening the range of languages offered in second-level schools, and to support schools which wish to offer less widely taught languages. The target languages are Italian, Japanese, Russian and Spanish.

3.2. Increased social pressure in favour of measures related to provision, within the public sector, of education policies that yield individuals with adequate foreign language skills, basically in English.

The general trend in Europe in recent years has been towards an increase in the number of years during which teaching of at least a foreign language is compulsory, and a lowering of the age at which this provision begins. Pilot projects are often used to prepare for foreign language teaching at an earlier stage.

A very high percentage of pupils learn English, whether or not it is a mandatory language.

3.3. Provision of different sorts of “bilingual / CLIL” education at school in Europe.

Though we have reason to believe that content and language integrated instruction is still a very marginal option in numerical terms, it is worth devoted a little space to this issue. The presentation of a recent Eurydice publication about EMILE provision in Europe²⁹ provides the following rationale:

“Ensuring that everyone can become proficient in several languages is a daunting challenge in Europe, in which mobility and cooperation are intensifying. Different studies and experimental initiatives are being carried out to improve the teaching of languages at school. Against this background, Eurydice now offers a first appraisal of

²⁸ Education and Training 2010. *Diverse systems, shared goals. Biennial Joint Reports* (2006). http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/policies/2010/nationalreport_en.html#national

²⁹ Presentation: http://www.eurydice.org/accueil_menu/en/frameset_menu.html. Study: *Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) at School in Europe*. 2006, 80 p. ISBN 92-79-00580-4. <http://www.eurydice.org/Documents/CLIL/en/FrameSet.htm>

CLIL type provision, which really started to become adopted in Europe as an integral part of foreign language teaching in the 1990s”.

“In this type of provision, certain subjects in the curriculum are taught in a language other than the mainstream curriculum language of instruction. The language in question may be a foreign language, a regional or minority language, or even a second state language”.

“This study takes stock of CLIL provision in the education systems of 30 European countries [...], as well as its organisation [...]. In addition, the study discusses conditions governing the recruitment of teachers working in CLIL and the opportunities available to them for initial or in-service training in this area. It also considers existing pilot projects, ongoing debate and barriers that have to be overcome if this kind of provision is to become more widespread.”

The study claims that in most European countries, CLIL provision is a part of mainstream school education. Pilot projects are currently operating in about ten countries. In most cases, the target languages are a combination of regional and/or minority languages and foreign languages. CLIL-type provision may generally be associated with any subject in the school curriculum, although in some countries it is mainly used to teach science subjects or social sciences in secondary education. Very few countries require that teachers hold a special certificate to work in this kind of provision. Finally, the main barrier to CLIL becoming more widespread is the lack of appropriately qualified teachers.

3.4. Increased attention to developing oral production and interaction skills/conversation skills

Speaking and listening comprehension are the priority at the outset of language learning. The set of global scales and subscales provided by the CEFR for oral reception and oral production skills help practitioners and other specialists in the field to consider the communicative tasks the learner will need, will be equipped with or will have to tackle in order to deal with the requirements of the situations which arise in the various domains.

3.5. About one third of the countries in Europe show a significant number of pupils that learn two or more foreign languages in general in upper secondary education (ISCED level 3)

A special *Key Data* report on language teaching³⁰ used 37 indicators to portray the situation in 30 countries belonging to the Eurydice Network. The questions examined in the above-mentioned publication included the following:

- How many pupils speak one language at home and another at school?
- How is language teaching organised (in terms of when compulsory provision begins and ends, which languages are taught, how many have to be learnt for what amount of time and what are the official teacher/pupil ratio requirements)? What are the language learning participation rates?
- How many languages are learnt on average?
- What are the qualifications of those who teach them?

³⁰ Eurydice. *Key Data on Teaching Languages at School in Europe*. 2005 Edition. Eurydice. The information network on education in Europe. European Commission. 112 pp.

http://www.eurydice.org/Doc_intermediaires/indicators/en/frameset_key_data.html

The indicators contained in the report were examined in relation to four major topics: (1) language diversity within school; (2) the position of foreign languages within the curriculum; (3) the range of different languages taught; and (4) the initial education of teachers and their qualifications.

The publication revealed that 8% of students aged 15 claimed that at home they spoke a language other than the language of instruction. It found that language support measures have been introduced for immigrant children who have a foreign mother tongue. It found that compulsory teaching of a foreign language is beginning at an increasingly early stage, following the recommendations of the European Union Heads of State and Government in the Barcelona European Council, 2002³¹. It showed that it was possible for most students to learn at least two foreign languages during compulsory education, though in lower secondary education, less than half of the students actually did so. It revealed great variation between states. Thus, proportion of teaching time allocated to foreign languages as a compulsory subject varied from 9% (the lowest) to 34% (the highest and only in one country, Luxembourg). In most countries the time devoted to compulsory foreign language subjects varied between 10% and 15% of the school day in compulsory secondary education. It also highlighted a growing trend: language teaching is no longer provided over a short period. Instead, as the total amount of teaching time devoted to a language increases, so the years over which this provision is spread also increase in number.

Schools themselves may also make a foreign language compulsory. In some countries, schools themselves determine part of the minimum curriculum. They are thus able to include a compulsory foreign language for all pupils, in addition to languages that the central education authorities oblige them to learn. In several countries, pilot projects have been introduced enabling pupils to begin learning a foreign language before it becomes compulsory for everyone.

Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) is included in normal provision in most education systems although the status and position of this type of provision varies depending on the country and on how CLIL approach to teaching is understood. Some regard it as an instructional student-centred project-based approach that focuses on complex cross-curricular activities related to themes, real problems or questions, the completion of which demands the acquisition of critical and analytical thinking, information handling activities and social and interpersonal skills to lead to the final outcomes. In this case, the problems and questions are used to engage student's curiosity and use the language as a tool to learn content of a wide variety of subjects within the foreign language classroom, the main goal remaining a linguistic one.³² Others, on the other hand, see it as a teaching and learning activity in which "a foreign language is used as a tool in the learning of non-language subject in which both language and subject have a joint role" (Marsh 2002:58³³).

³¹ Presidency Conclusions. Barcelona European Council. 15 and 16 March 2002. http://www.bologna-berlin2003.de/pdf/Pres_Concl_Barcelona.pdf:

44. The European Council calls for further action in this field:

[...] * to improve the mastery of basic skills, in particular by teaching at least two foreign languages from a very early age: establishment of a linguistic competence indicator in 2003; development of digital literacy: generalisation of an Internet and computer user's certificate for secondary school pupils;

³² Source: *CLIL in Catalonia. From theory to practice*. APAC: Barcelona, 2005.

³³ Marsh, D. 2002. *CLIL/EMILE - The European Dimension*. University of Jyväskylä, Finland

Eurydice’s publication *Key data on Teaching Languages at School in Europe* (2005 Edition) provides useful information on the organisation of CLIL type provision based on type of provision: as part of mainstream education or solely in pilot projects; and on languages on offer (indigenous and/or foreign) and educational levels.

The acronym CLIL is used as an umbrella term for different types of foreign language provision without prior definition of its exact meaning. As professor Do Coyle (2005)³⁴ has pointed out, it would be very relevant for future surveys to

“...help define more precisely the meaning behind a complex construct, but also to differentiate CLIL from bilingual education, content-based instruction, immersion and a plethora of other terms which describe a range of learning and teaching contexts where foreign or second languages are learnt and used in alternative ways to regular foreign language classes”.

Key data on Teaching Languages at School in Europe (2005 Edition) also shows that English, French, German, Spanish and Russian represent 95% of all foreign languages learnt. The teaching of English is constantly expanding and predominates almost everywhere. Around 90% of pupils in upper secondary education learn English, regardless of whether or not it is compulsory. German or French is the second most taught language in each country. Language teachers are often generalists in primary education and specialist in secondary education, and depending on the particular country they are qualified to teach either just foreign languages, or two subjects, one of which is a foreign language. In all countries, the initial teacher education of specialist teachers of foreign languages is provided in tertiary education and leads, in most of them, to a University qualification. Different forms of decision-making delegation to schools may increase foreign language teaching.

And a final finding is of special relevance to the present report: recommendations that prospective teachers should spend some time in a country speaking the language to be taught are most uncommon in Europe.

Before moving on to consider teacher training requirements it is worth discussing briefly the range of situations in which qualified “foreign language” teachers may find themselves. There are at least five such situations, that arise from the combination of four variables: the teacher’s own language, the language the teacher is qualified to teach, the target country, and the language to be taught (or the language of subject instruction):

	Teacher’s own language	Language the teacher is qualified to teach	Target country	Target language to be taught*	Example
I	A	A	A	A	German teacher qualified to teach German, working in Germany and teaching German (perhaps as a second language)
II	A	A	B	A	German teacher qualified to teach German, working in Italy and teaching German

³⁴ In *CLIL in Catalonia* (2005) op. cit.

III	A	B	A	B	German teacher qualified to teach Italian, working in Germany and teaching Italian
IV	A	B	B	A	German teacher qualified to teach Italian, working in Italy and teaching German
V	A	B	C	A	German teacher qualified to teach Italian, working in Malta and teaching German

It is important to bear in mind that the needs are not the same in each case. The fourth case is perhaps the most classic (“German teacher qualified to teach Italian, working in Italy and teaching German”) followed by the fifth case, where the teacher works in a third country.

4. Teacher training

The 2002 report to the Directorate for Education and Culture of the European Commission *The Training of Teachers of a Foreign Language: Developments in Europe*³⁵ drew on an overview of 32 European countries, and examined the provision of initial and in-service teacher training for secondary and primary schools.

According to the study secondary teachers are expected to be trained subject specialists in all instances. However, some countries make a distinction between upper and lower secondary (or upper primary) where teachers are only required to have undertaken an element of foreign language specialisation as part of their training. In addition the degree of integration or separation of academic and teacher training studies depends on the type of programme followed. Undergraduate routes into teaching tend to offer pedagogic and academic studies running concurrently, although this is not always true of practical components.

Furthermore, it found that in some countries it is a customary requirement for foreign language students to train in two subjects (one foreign language and one other subject which could be a second foreign language). The practice of training in a language and another discipline is widely followed, but the Southampton report suggests that it should be further encouraged as it provides a good basis for teachers to teach their other discipline through the foreign language.

The Kelly et al. report found that it is not normally compulsory for students to spend time in the target community as part of their initial training, although this is partly at the discretion of their training institution. Opportunities for this vary, but if existing, it is through bilateral agreements between higher education institutions or between countries. Only in Austria, France, Germany and the UK is study abroad an integral part of the courses offering dual qualifications. Where study abroad is optional, the available statistics suggest that a relatively small percentage of students take advantage of the opportunities on offer.

Although initial teacher training in two subjects (such as a non-linguistic subject and a foreign language) is a feature in some countries, such as Austria, Germany and Norway, we have found no instances in which teaching other subjects through a foreign language is a feature of such training. If the combination chosen is a non-language subject and a foreign language, they are then regarded as competent in the two types of subject targeted by CLIL, even though they may have not received any specific methodological training for CLIL. An additional qualification in bilingual teaching of this sort is as yet

³⁵ Kelly et al, Southampton, UK. op. cit.

only offered in a limited range of universities and teacher training establishments³⁶. Many in-service teacher training institutions offer courses on CLIL methodology, and in countries where CLIL is being implemented as pilot schemes, educational authorities together with teacher training institutions offer CLIL teacher training courses to target specific needs.

A recent publication on *Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) at School in Europe*³⁷ studies the issue of teacher qualifications and recruitment criteria and special initial training. Its authors report that

“Certified evidence of further particular skills in addition to their teaching qualification is a firm requirement in only a minority of countries. None of the diplomas or certificates required relates to CLIL type provision as such, or more specifically to particular aspects of its teaching principles and methodology. All forms of certified evidence of this kind, which certain countries require, are concerned with the language skills and linguistic knowledge of teachers. [... T]he basic qualifications required relate generally to non-language subjects. It is hardly surprising therefore that, where they exist, further diplomas or certificates testify to skills associated with the second area of expertise needed in CLIL type provision, namely language skills.”
(p. 41)

At primary level, generalist teachers are only officially qualified to teach languages where languages are included in the core training curriculum, though in practice knowledge of a foreign language acquired before or after the training period may allow them to do so.

In view of the above, we have to conclude that Europe faces a need for qualified foreign language teachers for early language learning (infant and early primary education) and CLIL, which at present is not being generally addressed by teacher training institutions.

The Kelly report ends with recommendations proposing ways in which language teacher training could be further strengthened by actions at a European level, adding value to actions at national and local levels. We have chosen here to highlight nine of them, all aimed at building a European infrastructure for training language teachers:³⁸

1. A European benchmark for Language Teacher Training should be developed, to provide a common understanding of the different processes and components involved and guidelines for good practice.
2. An accreditation framework should be established to provide a basis for comparability, and to recognise flexible routes to the status of qualified teacher at European level.³⁹
3. A voluntary programme of quality assurance should be established at European level with European factors as guiding principles.

³⁶ Examples include the University of Nottingham (UK), which offers an MA in Teaching Content through a Foreign Language (basically History, Geography and Science), and the Universitat Pompeu Fabra (Barcelona) which, like others, offers postgraduate courses that include a module on CLIL, but that are basically designed for language teachers.

³⁷ *Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) at School in Europe*. Eurydice. Published by the Directorate-general for Education and Culture, 2006.
<http://www.eurydice.org/Documents/CLIL/en/FrameSet.htm>

³⁸ Kelly, Michael et al. *The Training of Teachers of a Foreign Language: Developments in Europe*. Southampton, UK, 2002.

³⁹ The authors of this report feel that the CEFR provides a good framework for comparability and especially in the definition of language skills to be attained.

4. A support network for language teacher training should be established, based on a small team with the task of building capacity, providing an infrastructure, and offering recognition and long-term continuity for trans-European projects and networks.
5. A major European resources service should be established, including a portal web site, to provide access to information and materials for language teachers and trainers.
6. The development of arrangements for dual qualifications should be further encouraged.
7. Closer cooperation should be encouraged between training institutions and partner schools, and between education departments and language departments.
8. All in-service training courses should be accredited at local or national level.
9. An Advisory Group on European teacher Training should be established to work with national agencies to co-ordinate key aspects of language teacher training.

The authors of the present report are fully aware of the fact that some of the proposals have been addressed and action has been taken, but apart from endorsing the Southampton proposals, we underline the need for training schemes targetting (a) the language development aspect needed to empower language teachers and (b) subject specialist teachers for their new roles. In addition, in-service teacher training modules on infant education and CLIL education rationale will have to be offered, Universities and teacher-training Institutions need to be encouraged to include a strong foreign language component, and CLIL theoretical and practical components for all subject teachers, in initial training. Such needs, however, go beyond the brief of this report and will not therefore be repeated in the concluding chapter.

5. Conclusion

It is clear that learning a foreign language (at least one) seems to be a generalised phenomenon among young Europeans today, whose levels of competence are much higher than those of older generations. The improvement affects, above all, English, often at the expense of other previously dominant languages (French in Spain, for instance, or Russian in the Baltic States).

In view of the above, and bearing in mind the increasing demand for education systems to both increase provision of foreign language teaching and learning and also to start at a very early stage (as well as the proliferation - currently on a small scale - of CLIL provision) it seems necessary to reinforce existing teacher mobility schemes in mainstream education. New, robust schemes will be needed to help empower teachers with better language skills to cope with the daunting challenge to be faced at present and in the coming years, namely to deliver foreign language education to pupils in early school education or to deliver subject matter content through the medium of a foreign language, activities for which there is no general provision in initial teacher training.

CHAPTER 4: DESK RESEARCH FINDINGS

1. Introduction

In this chapter we shall outline the main findings of the desk research undertaken by the team. Data was requested through official channels as well as being sought through other channels, particularly the internet.⁴⁰ The chapter offers information on (a) transnational recognition of academic and professional qualifications; (b) Information channels in the areas of (i) qualifications, (ii) job vacancies; (iii) transparency in qualifications and experience; (iv) work permits; and (v) transnational agreements. In the second part of the chapter summaries are given of the reports prepared on the obstacles to foreign language teacher mobility in all 31 countries.

2. Precedents

The 1996 Green Paper⁴¹ devoted some attention to steps taken to overcome obstacles to the mobility of teachers in general. Thus:

“The teaching profession, particularly in public educational establishments, is regulated in most of the European Community countries⁴². Since the entry into force of Directive 89/48/EEC on the mutual recognition of diplomas and the end of 1994, at least 11 000 people, including 5 000 teachers (in primary, secondary and higher education) have had their diplomas recognised in another Member State.” (page 24)

However, it pointed out certain problems related to the application of the Directive 89/48/EEC in respect of teachers. Thus, for example, at the time several countries (as well as several German länder) had yet to transpose the directive into national legislation, and applications from teachers from other Member States for recognition of their qualifications have been “blocked” pending adoption of the national implementing measures. Germany had at that time refused to recognise teaching diplomas obtained in Austrian teacher training academies, certain British colleges and other similar institutions in the Netherlands and Denmark, despite the fact that for the purposes of recognition, the Directive put diplomas obtained in universities, higher education establishments and other training establishments of the same level on an equal footing. Non-application of the Directive to teachers had also been registered in France.

Other problems related to the recognition of teaching qualifications were mentioned, and are still valid today, ten years later. Thus, “some Member States require secondary-

⁴⁰ While some countries were very helpful, others were extremely slow to give their replies, or else (for whatever reason) were simply unwilling to help. For instance, just one State sent us one of the reports that the 2001 Recommendation asked them to provide every two years on the implementation of the measures contained in the document. The others seem to exist, given that they were built into a Commission report at the end of 2005.

⁴¹ Green Paper “*Eliminating obstacles to transnational mobility*”. European Commission. Education, training and research. COM(96) 462, October 1996.
<http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/doc/official/keydoc/lvert/lven.pdf>

⁴² Considerable progress has been made in the field of the “regulated” professions on the basis of Articles 57, 49 and 66 of the EC Treaty, by virtue of which the European Community is able to adopt “directives for the mutual recognition of diplomas, certificates and other evidence of formal qualifications”. Directives 89/48/EEC and 92/51/EEC, for example, have set up a general system for recognition of diplomas, enabling persons wishing to move within Europe to have their qualifications recognised in Member States other than that in which they were acquired.

level teachers to have a qualification allowing them to teach two subjects (e.g. mathematics and physics; history and geography).” (Green Paper 1996: p. 20)

Let us try and see how things have improved over the past ten years.

3. Transnational recognition of academic and professional qualifications.

We were firstly keen to clarify the situation regarding the qualifications required to teach in another country. Do the qualifications of a teacher who is qualified in his/her own country and wishes to work in another (temporarily or permanently) have to go through a complex procedure in order to be regarded as qualified to enter the teaching job market in the host country?

A preliminary clarification is in order: there are substantial differences between the meaning and significance of “academic recognition” and “professional recognition”. As was explained to us,

“The purpose underlying the academic recognition is different from the one for recognition of professional qualifications: academic recognition is necessary in case a migrant wants to continue studying abroad, while professional recognition is a pre-condition to have access and exercise a profession in a country different from the country where a migrant obtained his qualifications. Academic recognition is therefore not a simplified system for the recognition of qualified teachers.”⁴³

This helps to focus our attention much more on the issue of professional recognition rather than on academic recognition.

At the outset let us state quite clearly that “[...] every teacher qualified in the EU needs to ask for recognition of his professional qualifications if he wants to work in a country different from the one in which he obtained his qualifications.”⁴⁴

In the field of the recognition of professional qualifications the basic instruments are two:

- (1) The Council of Europe developed, together with UNESCO, the **Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region**, the so-called **Lisbon Recognition Convention**⁴⁵ (as it was adopted in Lisbon in 1997). The Convention is the key legal instrument for recognition of qualifications across Europe.⁴⁶

Not all EU and EEA countries have signed and ratified this Convention, however. At the time of writing (May 2006) the situation was as follows:

- (a) Austria, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Sweden and the United Kingdom have both signed and ratified the Convention (24).
- (b) Belgium, Germany, the Netherlands, Italy and Turkey have signed but not yet ratified the Convention (5).
- (c) Greece and Spain have neither signed nor ratified the Convention (2).

⁴³ Angelika KOMAN, Internal Market and Services DG. Personal communication, 7 March 2006.

⁴⁴ Angelika KOMAN, op. cit.

⁴⁵ Text: <http://conventions.coe.int/Treaty/en/Treaties/Html/165.htm>

⁴⁶ Source: http://www.coe.int/T/DG4/HigherEducation/Recognition/default_en.asp

The full chart of signatures and ratifications, taken from the Council of Europe website⁴⁷, is as follows:

**Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education
in the European Region
CETS No.: 165**

Special conditions of opening for signature Opening for signature Place: Lisbon Date : 11/4/1997	Entry into force Conditions: 5 Ratifications including 3 member States of the Council of Europe and/or the UNESCO Europe Region. Date : 1/2/1999
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Status as of: 19/6/2006

Member States of the Council of Europe:

States	Signature	Ratification	Entry into force	R ⁴⁸	D ⁴⁹	A ⁵⁰
Albania	4/11/1999	6/3/2002	1/5/2002			X
Andorra						
Armenia	26/5/2000	7/1/2005	1/3/2005	X	X	X
Austria	7/7/1997	3/2/1999	1/4/1999		X	X
Azerbaijan	11/4/1997	10/3/1998	1/2/1999			X
Belgium	7/3/2005					
Bosnia and Herzegovina	17/7/2003	9/1/2004	1/3/2004			
Bulgaria	11/4/1997	19/5/2000	1/7/2000			X
Croatia	11/4/1997	17/10/2002	1/12/2002			
Cyprus	25/3/1998	21/11/2001	1/1/2002			
Czech Republic	11/4/1997	15/12/1999	1/2/2000		X	X
Denmark	11/4/1997	20/3/2003	1/5/2003			
Estonia	11/4/1997	1/4/1998	1/2/1999			X
Finland	22/1/1998	21/1/2004	1/3/2004		X	X
France	11/4/1997	4/10/1999	1/12/1999			
Georgia	11/4/1997	13/10/1999	1/12/1999			
Germany	11/4/1997					
Greece						
Hungary	11/4/1997	4/2/2000	1/4/2000		X	X
Iceland	11/4/1997	21/3/2001	1/5/2001			
Ireland	8/3/2004 s	8/3/2004 s	1/5/2004			
Italy	24/7/1997					

⁴⁷ <http://conventions.coe.int/Treaty/Commun/ChercheSig.asp?NT=165&CM=8&CL=ENG>

⁴⁸ R.: Reservations

⁴⁹ D.: Declarations

⁵⁰ A.: Authorities

Latvia	11/4/1997	20/7/1999	1/9/1999			X
Liechtenstein		1/2/2000 a	1/4/2000		X	X
Lithuania	11/4/1997	17/12/1998	1/2/1999			
Luxembourg	11/4/1997	4/10/2000	1/12/2000		X	
Malta	11/4/1997	16/11/2005	1/1/2006			X
Moldova	6/5/1997	23/9/1999	1/11/1999			X
Monaco						
Netherlands	14/5/2002					
Norway	11/4/1997	29/4/1999	1/6/1999			X
Poland	11/4/1997	17/3/2004	1/5/2004			X
Portugal	11/4/1997	15/10/2001	1/12/2001			
Romania	11/4/1997	12/1/1999	1/3/1999			X
Russia	7/5/1999	25/5/2000	1/7/2000			
San Marino						
Serbia and Montenegro	3/3/2004	3/3/2004	1/5/2004			X
Slovakia	11/4/1997	13/7/1999	1/9/1999			X
Slovenia	11/4/1997	21/7/1999	1/9/1999			X
Spain						
Sweden	11/4/1997	28/9/2001	1/11/2001			
Switzerland	24/3/1998 s	24/3/1998 s	1/2/1999	X		X
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	11/4/1997	29/11/2002	1/1/2003		X	X
Turkey	1/12/2004					
Ukraine	11/4/1997	14/4/2000	1/6/2000			X
United Kingdom	7/11/1997	23/5/2003	1/7/2003			

Countries within the framework of the present report are highlighted.

Basically, the Convention lays down that holders of qualifications issued in one of the Parties shall have adequate access, upon request to the appropriate body, to an assessment of these qualifications. No discrimination shall be made in this respect on any ground. To assure this right, each Party will make appropriate arrangements for the assessment of an application for recognition of qualifications solely on the basis of the knowledge and skills achieved (Article III.1). Each Party shall ensure that the procedures and criteria used in the assessment and recognition of qualifications are transparent, coherent and reliable (Article III.2).

In order to ensure relevant, accurate and up-to-date information, each Party shall establish or maintain a national information centre (Article IX.2). This centre will be a member of the European Network of National Information Centres on academic mobility and recognition (the ENIC Network).

- (2) In the European Union, the main instrument is the **Council Directive 89/48/EEC of 21 December 1988 on a general system for the recognition of higher-education diplomas awarded on completion of professional education and**

training of at least three years' duration⁵¹. This was amended by Directive 2001/19/EC⁵² and is due to be repealed and replaced by Directive 2005/36/EC when it comes into force in 2007.

Council Directive 89/48/EEC defines professional activities as “regulated” if they are exercised by the members of private associations which are recognised in a special form by a Member State (for example chartered bodies in the United Kingdom and their equivalents in Ireland). It was amended by Directive 2001/19/EC⁵³, which aimed among other things to simplify procedures, when examining an application for the recognition of a diploma. The host Member State has to take into consideration the experience acquired by the applicant after obtaining the diploma, and may no longer systematically require the applicant to take compensation steps, such as aptitude tests or an adaptation period. As stated above, a still more recent Directive⁵⁴ (2005) will repeal previous Directives when the transposition deadline expires on 20 October 2007. Under the terms of the new Directive, for instance, nationals of a Community Member State may provide services on a temporary basis in another Member State under their original professional title without having to apply for recognition of their qualifications. However, in order to do so, they have to provide evidence of two years' professional experience if the profession in question is not regulated in that Member State.

There is a very instructive “*Guide for users of the general system for the recognition of professional qualifications*”⁵⁵ which we shall now summarise briefly:

The general system for the recognition of **professional qualifications** is of value to fully qualified teachers, among other professions. It is designed to help professionals wishing to practise their profession in a country other than that in which they obtained their professional qualifications. It is relevant to teachers who are citizens of all 25 member States of the EU, as well as Iceland, Norway and Liechtenstein (European Economic Area, or EEA), and who have trained in one of these countries. As far as we have been able to ascertain, the teaching profession, at least for the purposes of employment in state schools, is regulated in nearly all these countries. More importantly: in countries where the profession is not regulated, migrant teachers need not seek recognition of their qualifications, though they are of course subject to the conditions of the employment market.

In most countries teacher training comprises a university degree in a particular subject plus a postgraduate qualification in education. Application for recognition under the general system is possible if the necessary qualification in education has been obtained in the home country in addition to an initial university degree.

⁵¹ OJ L 19 of 24/1/1989, p. 16. Consolidated text: http://europa.eu.int/eur-lex/en/consleg/pdf/1989/en_1989L0048_do_001.pdf

⁵² Directive 2001/19/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 14 May 2001 amending Council Directives 89/48/EEC and 92/51/EEC on the general system for the recognition of professional qualifications and Council Directives 77/452/EEC, 77/453/EEC, 78/686/EEC, 78/687/EEC, 78/1026/EEC, 78/1027/EEC, 80/154/EEC, 80/155/EEC, 85/384/EEC, 85/432/EEC, 85/433/EEC and 93/16/EEC concerning the professions of nurse responsible for general care, dental practitioner, veterinary surgeon, midwife, architect, pharmacist and doctor. OJ L 206, 31/7/2001. pp. 1-51. http://europa.eu.int/smartapi/cgi/sga_doc?smartapi!celexplus!prod!DocNumber&lg=en&type_doc=Directive&an_doc=2001&nu_doc=19

⁵³ Source: <http://europa.eu.int/scadplus/leg/en/cha/c11022b.htm>.

⁵⁴ Directive 2005/36/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 7 September 2005 on the recognition of professional qualifications. OJ L 255, 30/9/2005. http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/site/en/oj/2005/l_255/l_25520050930en00220142.pdf

⁵⁵ European Commission, Internal Market DG, Free Movement of Goods, Regulated Professions and Postal Services. *Regulated professions (qualifications)*. MARKT/D/8327/2001-EN. Orig.: FR

In order to be able to practise in another country, the teacher must obtain recognition of his/her professional qualifications from the authority there which is responsible for receiving and processing applications for recognition of qualifications in the teaching profession. The teacher should get in touch with the contact point in the target country.

The system does not provide for automatic recognition of professional qualifications obtained in another Country. A personal application has to be submitted, clearly stating that it is the teaching profession that the applicant wishes to practise. Each application is considered individually by the competent authority in the target country.

Normally, the professional qualifications of a teacher fully qualified to practise in the home country, who applies for recognition of these qualifications so as to become a teacher in the target country, will be recognised as they stand.

However, before reaching a decision, when the competent authority compares the professional education and training received in the home country with that required in the target country and finds that there are significant differences in length or content, it may make recognition conditional on the fulfilment of additional requirements. In making this comparison, the authority has to take into account periods of training and/or professional experience completed after the teacher's initial qualification was obtained, and may regard that training and/or experience as making up, in full or in part, for any deficiencies in initial education and training with respect to that required in the target country.

If there are major differences between the professional qualifications obtained in the home country and those required in the target country (for instance, if the professional education and training was at least one year shorter than that required in the target country), the teacher may have to either provide proof of experience in the practice of the profession concerned in the home country, or choose between completing an adaptation period or passing an aptitude test in the target country.

Three potential issues are language-related. Firstly, the application will be processed in (one of) the official language(s) of the target country and any aptitude test which the applicant may have to take will likewise be in that language. Secondly, the target country may require the documents submitted in support of an application to be translated into (one of) its official language(s). It may also require the translation to be carried out by a sworn translator or a translator approved by a competent authority in the host Member State. Thirdly, the host country may require a teacher to have a knowledge of its language; such a requirement must not exceed what is objectively necessary for practising the teaching profession.

Recognition entitles a teacher to practice this profession, subject to the same laws, regulations, administrative provisions and code of practice as nationals of the target country.

4. Information channels.

The team searched for the sources of information regarding the steps that a foreign language teacher has to take in order to be able to look for a job abroad.

a. Qualifications. As stated above, Europe has developed several instruments to simplify the procedures needed for a professional's qualifications and, often, experience, to be recognised in another country. One (the 1997 **Lisbon Recognition Convention**⁵⁶) was a joint initiative of Unesco⁵⁶ and the Council of Europe, and therefore does not cover all EU countries, nor only EU countries. The other, the **Council Directive**

⁵⁶ Text: <http://conventions.coe.int/Treaty/en/Treaties/Html/165.htm>

89/48/EEC of 21 December 1988 on a general system for the recognition of higher-education diplomas awarded on completion of professional education and training of at least three years' duration"⁵⁷, is limited to EU countries. As we have seen, both cover the teaching profession.

An excellent, practical source of information and guidelines is offered by “**Your Europe**” on the Europa website: for instance, it shows background information on community law, plus the formalities required for teachers wishing to work in each particular country⁵⁸. Relevant reference documents are also listed on the website.

A parallel course can be taken through the ENIC-NARIC network.⁵⁹ It is worth devoting some attention to this double network, even though it was not specifically designed for teachers, far less teachers of foreign languages.

The **European Network of Information Centres on academic recognition and mobility** (ENIC) was established by the Council of Europe and UNESCO to implement the Lisbon Recognition Convention and, in general, to develop policy and practice for the recognition of qualifications. The Secretariat for this network is provided jointly by the Council of Europe and UNESCO/CEPES.

The Network is made up of the national information centres of the States party to the European Cultural Convention or the UNESCO Europe Region. Each Information Centre is set up by the national authorities, and generally provides information on (a) the recognition of foreign diplomas, degrees and other qualifications; (b) education systems in both foreign countries and the ENIC's own country; and (c) opportunities for studying abroad, including information on loans and scholarships, as well as advice on practical questions related to mobility and equivalence.

For its part, the network of **National Academic Recognition Information Centres** (NARIC Network) was created in 1984 at the initiative of the European Commission. It aims to improve academic recognition of diplomas and periods of study in the Member States of the EU, the EEA countries and the associated countries in Eastern Europe. The network is part of the Community's Socrates Programme, and particularly the Erasmus Action which stimulates the international mobility of students and staff between higher education institutions.

Each EU and EEA State, as well as the associated countries in Eastern Europe have national centres, which assist in promoting the mobility of students, teachers and researchers. They provide advice and information concerning the academic recognition of diplomas and periods of study undertaken in other States. The main users of this service are higher education institutions, students and their advisers, parents, teachers and prospective employers.

In most States, institutions of higher education are autonomous, taking their own decisions on the admission of foreign students and the exemption of parts of courses of study programmes that students may be granted on the basis of education undertaken abroad. Thus most NARICs do not take a decision, but merely offer information and advice on foreign education systems and qualifications.

⁵⁷ OJ L 19 of 24/1/1989, p. 16. Consolidated text: http://europa.eu.int/eur-lex/en/consleg/pdf/1989/en_1989L0048_do_001.pdf

⁵⁸ For example, the United Kingdom: <http://europa.eu.int/youreurope/nav/en/citizens/factsheets/uk/recognitionqualifications/teachers/en.html>

⁵⁹ <http://www.enic-naric.net/>

b. Job vacancies. Each country has its own system for advertising vacancies. In some (e.g. Denmark⁶⁰) it is the teachers' organisations that are responsible for disseminating this information. In others (e.g. Italy⁶¹) information on vacancies in the public school system is centralised by the Ministry.

Some countries, such as France, have set up a website to announce job vacancies across Europe, though in this case, being the initiative of a single country may explain why no teaching vacancies seem yet to have been uploaded into its database.

What is not of use for foreign language teachers in seeking employment abroad is the Ploteus portal⁶² which, though intended for teachers (alongside students, job seekers, workers, parents and guidance counsellors), aims to offer information about studying in Europe. (It is, however, useful in giving prospective movers descriptions and explanations about the different education systems of European countries.) Thus, for instance, a search for "Recognition of Foreign Diplomas and Qualifications" in "Higher Education" in France yields no hits. Yet lower levels of qualification are well covered for this same country. Thus, for instance, a search at the "Lower Secondary Schools" level in France, gives the user a link to the French *Commission nationale de la certification professionnelle*, where information is offered about how to apply for a *validation des acquis de l'expérience* (VAE), or how to apply for *Reconnaissance Professionnelle - exercice d'une profession*⁶³. Basically, however, the Ploteus website gives information of use to learners, not teachers.

c. Transparency in qualifications and experience. Though not designed specifically for teachers, The **Europass initiative** is of importance when it comes to applying for a job in another country⁶⁴. This initiative aims at helping citizens make their qualifications and competences clearly and easily understood throughout Europe. Europass is a coordinated portfolio of five documents, which will in particular improve communication between job applicants and employers, regardless of borders. It is designed to facilitate occupational mobility - between countries as well as between sectors - and will promote and add value to mobility in education and training. It consists of five documents: Europass CV, Europass Language passport, Europass Mobility (designed to record the knowledge, skills and competence acquired by a person during a structured learning experience in another country), Europass Diploma supplement and Europass Certificate supplement. Bringing the documents together into a single framework, widely promoted under a single label and logo, will make them easier to access, better known, and more effectively managed.

d. Work permits. According to the Directive 2004/38/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 29 April 2004 on the right of citizens of the Union and their family

⁶⁰ "Folkeskolen": <http://www.folkeskolenjob.dk/index.jsp?userId=0>

⁶¹ http://www.edscuola.it/archivio/norme/decreti/dlvo297_94.html

Decreto Legislativo 16 aprile 1994, n. 297.

Art. 622 - Disposizioni particolari.

2. [...] "Qualora si verificano carenze di organico a livello provinciale, il Ministro bandisce, con proprio decreto, entro e non oltre la data del 30 marzo di ogni anno, concorsi su base regionale, ai sensi dell'articolo 6 del decreto del Presidente della Repubblica 28 dicembre 1970, n. 1077, per la copertura dei posti vacanti, nel limite richiesto dall'esigenza di non superare l'organico complessivo dell'Amministrazione. "

⁶² <http://europa.eu.int/ploteus/portal/home.jsp>

⁶³ http://www.cncp.gouv.fr/contenus/supp/supp_doc_reco.htm#ancre2

⁶⁴ Source: <http://europass.cedefop.europa.eu/europass/home/hornav/Downloads/navigate.action>

members to move and reside freely within the territory of the Member States,⁶⁵ since the end of April 2006 residence permits for EU citizens must have been eliminated, thus removing a potential obstacle to mobility.

The Directive states that “[...] no entry visa or equivalent formality may be imposed on Union citizens” though “[...] the Member State may require the person concerned to report his/her presence within its territory within a reasonable and non-discriminatory period of time” (Article 5). Moreover, “[...] all Union citizens shall have the right of residence on the territory of another Member State for a period of longer than three months if (among other possibilities) they are workers or self-employed persons in the host Member State” (Article 7). Without prejudice to what has just been said, “[...] for periods of residence longer than three months, the host Member State may require Union citizens to register with the relevant authorities” (Article 8). Member States were to bring into force the laws within two years from the date of entry into force of the Directive, which was April 30 2004 (Article 40).

However, such norms have already been in force in some member States since earlier. Thus since November 26 2003, the citizens of the EU can work in France freely, without the need for a residence permit. Only a document proving their identity (identity card or passport) is required.

e. Transnational agreements. Several countries have multilateral agreements which apply specifically to foreign language teachers. In the UK this system is called “Teacher Exchange Europe” and it is managed by the British Council⁶⁶. In France it is called **Échanges poste pour poste entre des professeurs de langue vivante**⁶⁷, and involves both primary and secondary levels of education; in Spain, it is called **Programa de Intercambios “Puesto por Puesto”**⁶⁸ and is managed by the Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia. In Germany they come within the scope of the *Bilateraler Lehreraustausch* and are administered regionally⁶⁹. Spain has bilateral agreements (*Convenios Bilaterales de Cooperación Educativa*) with Germany, the United Kingdom and France. France has agreements with the three countries, as well as Austria and Ireland, for secondary school teachers; and with Germany and Spain for primary school teachers.⁷⁰ Basically, these programmes offer serving teachers with fixed contracts a unique way to update

⁶⁵ Directive 2004/38/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 29 April 2004 on the right of citizens of the Union and their family members to move and reside freely within the territory of the Member States amending Regulation (EEC) No 1612/68 and repealing Directives 64/221/EEC, 68/360/EEC, 72/194/EEC, 73/148/EEC, 75/34/EEC, 75/35/EEC, 90/364/EEC, 90/365/EEC and 93/96/EEC. OJ L 158, 30/4/2004, pp. 77-123. http://www.europa.eu.int/eur-lex/en/refdoc/L_158/L_2004158EN_1.pdf

⁶⁶ See <http://www.britishcouncil.org/learning-tx-europe-what-is-teacher-exchange-europe.htm>

⁶⁷ Échanges poste pour poste entre des professeurs de langue vivante. See, for instance, <http://www.ac-orleans-tours.fr/daric/files/ciep-fiche.rtf>

⁶⁸ Programa de Intercambios “Puesto por Puesto”. <http://www.mec.es/programas-europeos/jsp/plantilla.jsp?id=puesto>:

“El Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia en aplicación de los Convenios Bilaterales de Cooperación Educativa, resultado de las Comisiones Mixtas con la República Federal Alemana, el Reino Unido de Gran Bretaña e Irlanda del Norte y la República Francesa, vienen desarrollando un...”

⁶⁹ See, for instance, the website of the Ministerium für Bildung, Wissenschaft und Kultur, Landesregierung Mecklenburg-Vorpommern.

http://www.kultus-mv.de/sites/schule/download/lehreraustausch06_07_hinweise_f.pdf

⁷⁰ Ministère de la Jeunesse, de l'Éducation Nationale et de la Recherche. Direction des relations internationales et de la coopération (DRIC). Bureau des Affaires Communautaires. *Rapport National / France*. Plan d'action pour la mobilité (PAM) / Recommandation «mobilité». Ref.: DRIC B1/HL. Version finale. Juin 2003.

their language skills, gain knowledge of another education system and experience the culture of another country.

To be eligible, UK teachers have to be teachers of Modern Foreign Languages, with a minimum of two years' teaching experience, and working at secondary school level. The duration of exchanges can be arranged for six weeks, the autumn or spring term or one full academic year. In all cases, posts are exchanged with a colleague from France, Germany or Spain. For their part, in France the teachers have to be “[...] titulaires des établissements publics français du second degré”.

As pointed out on the British Council website, an important advantage of the system is that teachers keep the security of their job in the UK. In these exchanges each teacher retains his own salary, which means that exchanges are especially interesting for teachers from countries with high salaries wishing to work in countries where the cost of living is lower. However, there is a supplement in some cases: for instance, teachers from Spain going to the UK earn a supplement of £3,000⁷¹ a term (the supplement is different if they go to one of the other countries).

Another factor is the workload: teachers from Spain find that the number of lessons they will be required to teach in the UK is higher than the workload they have at home; additionally, they may be expected to teach a second foreign language in the host school. Finally, the whole exchange system is aimed at very limited numbers of teachers. Thus, each year only 4 teachers from Spain go to work in the UK, and vice versa, under the post-for-post scheme.

5. Information on each country

Summaries of the highlights of the specific reports on the information collected from each country on obstacles to foreign language mobility and measures taken to eliminate them now follow. They include data on teachers' perceptions, which are dealt with in more detail in Chapter 5.

1. Austria

Teachers from non- and new EU-Member states must obtain a work permit, which is granted if the respective city or district board of education can argue that a particular school project requires the employment of a non-native teacher.

Problems arise in the recognition of the professional qualifications of teachers from countries (e.g. France), where secondary teacher education focuses on only one subject. Full-time non-native teachers who are qualified to teach two subjects can be employed on the same salary as their Austrian colleagues.

Teachers from other countries are paid less than their Austrian counterparts, and their legal status is insecure, unless they acquire an Austrian teaching qualification. Non-native teachers, unless qualified to teach two subjects, receive a lower salary than their Austrian colleagues, or may only work on a part-time basis.

Private schools tend to be more lenient in employing language teachers from other countries. However, teachers in private schools are also paid by the government, so the reduced salary and insecure legal status also apply to foreigners in such schools.

Austria has signed and ratified (3/2/1999) the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region.

The Austrian Ministry of Education has bilateral exchange programmes for foreign language assistants and teachers with France, the UK, Denmark, Sweden and Spain.

⁷¹ About €4,200.

In the “Bilingual schools” project in Slovakia, the Czech Republic and Hungary, Austria sends German language teachers to selected bilingual schools in these states.

Significant replies to the survey by teachers who (normally) work in this country:

“Working abroad could interfere with my relationship with my spouse/partner”: A third (significantly more than 19.5% overall) feel this is highly applicable to themselves.

“What to do with my current home would be a problem for me”: A third feel this is highly applicable to themselves (significantly more than 16% of the overall sample).

“I would have to pay out of my pocket part of the costs attached to moving abroad”: This issue is regarded as highly applicable to themselves by the greatest proportion of Austrian respondents.

2. Belgium (NL, FR)

European (EEA) teachers qualified to teach subjects other than languages (=subject teachers) and who want to teach a language (for instance as a native speaker) in the schools of the Dutch-Speaking Community of Belgium need not start the procedure of the professional recognition based upon the European recognition directives. Instead it is better to have their qualification recognized as “equivalent”. Once this equivalence is granted by the Community, the school authorities can decide to employ the teacher.

Teachers from outside the EEA must go through an academic recognition procedure.

Whether or not teachers come from the EEA, if they want to work in Flanders for more than three years, they have to pass a Dutch language exam. However, the linguistic requirement is less strict for foreign language teachers, who must prove only a “good/sufficient” knowledge of Dutch.

The authorities claim that legal obstacles for recruiting foreign teaching staff in all levels of education have been lifted.

In the Dutch-speaking community, if a teacher does not comply with the stipulations of the linguistic laws but the school cannot find another candidate, the school can ask for an exemption from the linguistic stipulations. In that way one can start as a teacher. This is a temporary solution, and can only be requested three times in a school year.

In the French-speaking Community, teachers also have to have their qualifications recognised, as well as a certain degree of knowledge of the official language of its educational system, i.e. French, depending on the language used in the subjects taught (teachers of subjects in French, teachers of foreign languages or CLIL teachers).

A work permit has to be obtained by teachers from outside the EEA.

All citizens wanting to work in Flanders need a federal residence permit. If they consider working here for a short period this residence permit regulation means a serious obstacle as procedures for obtaining it may last longer than 3 months.

A candidate without recognised qualifications cannot be employed even if they are selected by the concerned school and will not be paid by the Department of Education, so it is important that the recognition procedure is started in good time.

The professional recognition procedure sometimes takes more than 4 months because of initially incomplete teachers’ dossiers. Teachers who do not intend to stay long tend to think they don’t have to start this procedure.

In private schools all kinds of teachers can be recruited without any legal restrictions.

Belgium has signed (7/3/2005) but not yet ratified the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region. Nevertheless, all the principles of the Convention have been implemented in the Flemish Higher Education Acts.

Working abroad does not count for seniority or promotion purposes in the French-speaking Community. Apart from this, economic conditions potentially affect or prevent mobility to other countries where salaries are lower.

Significant replies to the survey by teachers who (normally) work in this country (for Belgium as a whole):

“My partner would not be in a position to give up his/her current job”: Almost half feel this is highly applicable to themselves. No other issue is regarded as highly applicable to themselves by such a high proportion of respondents (the overall average is 40%).

3. Bulgaria

The information received from the Bulgarian authorities is insufficient to be able to report on obstacles there, and the team has not been able to avail itself of web sources, which are all in Bulgarian versions only.

As far as has been ascertained, there are no differences between public and private schools, and the same conditions apply for foreign (language) teachers as to subject teachers.

Bulgaria has signed and ratified (19/5/2000) the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region.

No distinctions have been found between conditions required for short-term and long-term contracts in this country.

Bulgaria has signed bilateral agreements in the field of education with Spain, France and the French and Dutch communities of Belgium, as well as with most European countries.

Significant replies to the survey by teachers who (normally) work in this country:

“The administrative services that manage these transfers are inflexible”: Almost half feel this is highly applicable to themselves (significantly more than the overall figure of 22% of European respondents)

“The process of selecting candidates for mobility initiatives is somewhat vague and opaque”: Over a half feel this is highly applicable to themselves, significantly more than the overall average (24%)

“It would be difficult to obtain recognition of my professional status in the host country”: A half feel this is highly applicable to themselves, significantly more than the overall average (16%)

“I would have to pay out of my pocket part of the costs attached to moving abroad”: No other issue is regarded as highly applicable to themselves by such a high proportion of respondents (almost two-thirds)

4. Cyprus

Fully-qualified non-native teachers (of any subject) have to apply for a residence permit if they intend to stay longer than 3 months and take up employment in Cyprus. The conclusion of formalities for acquiring a residence permit is not an obstacle to the immediate commencement of employment.

To find a job, the teacher has to be included to the official register of candidates for appointment: a teacher’s appointment is based on a system where primary priority is determined by the year of submitting the application.

Proficiency in Greek is required to a certain level, though this requirement is not applicable in private schools where the language of instruction is not Greek.

Teachers are civil servants and come under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education and Culture.

Cyprus has signed and ratified (21/11/2001) the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region.

Significant replies to the survey by teachers who (normally) work in this country:

“I would have to pay out of my pocket part of the costs attached to moving abroad”:
No other issue is regarded as highly applicable to themselves by such a high proportion of respondents.

5. Czech Republic

Proficiency in the Czech language is not required from those applicants who are going to work for a school with a teaching medium other than Czech or who teach a foreign language.

Private schools can have their own policies, so it is up to them to set requirements for their teachers.

The Czech Republic has signed and ratified (15/12/1999) the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region.

The Czech Republic has valid bilateral agreements on mutual recognition of qualifications with Bulgaria, Slovenia, Poland, Slovakia and Hungary.

Significant replies to the survey by teachers who (normally) work in this country:

“It would not be easy to find a candidate to substitute for me”:
Over a quarter feel this is highly applicable to themselves, significantly more than the overall average (11%)

“My superiors would not like the idea”:
Over a quarter feel this is highly applicable to themselves, significantly more than the overall average (12%)

“My partner would not be in a position to give up his/her current job”:
No other issue is regarded as highly applicable to themselves by such a high proportion of respondents (44%)

6. Denmark

Danish is a prerequisite for employment in Danish schools, except in cases where the teacher’s profile matches the school’s needs, provided that the language(s) spoken can be of use in the Danish context, and provided it is a temporary employment. Moreover, for “temporary” employment, the decision about language competence is entirely up to the schools and school boards. Class teachers with a Scandinavian language can be employed directly without going through a language test on the condition that the test is taken during the first two years of employment.⁷²

There is no distinction between primary and lower secondary school, so teachers are trained to teach grades 1-10. This is very different from most European systems, where teachers usually are trained to teach in either primary or lower/upper secondary school. It may be an obstacle for recognition as a teacher in Denmark, if a foreign teacher is qualified to teach grades 1-6 or 7-12, since he/she would lack the pedagogical and didactical training of either the lower or the higher grades. However, if the teacher’s profile is of interest to the school this may cause no problems for a temporary employment. Furthermore, teachers who are qualified for grades 1-6 in their home country may be recognised automatically, if they have documented teaching experience in grades 7-9. A reform of the Danish teacher training programmes, to be adopted soon by the Danish Parliament, will allow specialization in the lower or higher grades. This may simplify the recognition of foreign teachers.

⁷² Source: *Teacher recognition within the Nordic countries*. p. 19.

http://www.norric.org/Admin/Public/DWSDownload.aspx?File=Files%2FFiler%2FNorric%2FTeacher_Recognition.pdf.

No authorisation is required from and competent authority to be temporarily employed as a teacher in Denmark. Any teacher can apply directly to the schools for a temporary employment, and the decision is entirely up to the management of the school and the school boards.

Language teachers wishing to take up temporary positions in Denmark may do so without applying for professional recognition.

An important obstacle is accommodation, since housing is expensive and hard to find in many parts of Denmark.

In the private school system a teaching diploma is not required. There are fewer obstacles here and a sound tradition of employing native speakers or people who are competent in a foreign language.

Translation between Danish and the foreign language is a mandatory integral part of Danish foreign language teacher training programmes. Translations between Danish and e.g. English are obviously not a part of teacher training programmes in other countries. So most foreign language teachers have to supplement their qualifications with courses in translation or by undergoing a supervised adaptation period in a Danish school.

Having been temporarily employed as a teacher in Denmark would have a positive effect on a subsequent application for authorisation as a permanent teacher in Denmark.

A Departmental Order (March 2003) removes all obstacles of legal/academic nature⁷³.

Denmark has signed and ratified (20/3/2003) the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region.

Significant information coming from respondents to the questionnaire

“What to do with my current home would be a problem for me”: Over a quarter feel this issue is highly applicable to themselves (significantly more than the overall average of 16%)

“I would have to pay out of my pocket part of the costs attached to moving abroad”: No other issue is regarded as highly applicable to themselves by such a high proportion of respondents (50%).

In contrast, two items were highlighted by fewer respondents in Denmark than in the survey as a whole:

“The administrative services that manage these transfers are inflexible”: only 9% (as opposed to 22% overall) felt this issue was “absolument” applicable to themselves.

“The process of selecting candidates for mobility initiatives is somewhat vague and opaque”: only 12% (as opposed to 24% overall) felt this issue was “absolument” applicable to themselves.

7. Estonia

There is a shortage of teachers, so qualified teachers are probably welcome in many schools. The headteacher of the school will probably ask for evidence of the teacher’s qualifications (diploma or certificate), and will send it to ENIC/NARIC for evaluation.

Citizens of the EU and the European Economic Space do not need to have a work permit, though they do have to apply for a residence permit once they are in Estonia⁷⁴. Citizens from candidate countries (Bulgaria, Romania, Turkey) do have to apply for a work permit, though these procedures should not be regarded as an obstacle.

In 2007 Estonia will join the Nordplus-programmes of Nordic Council of Ministers, which which can cater for foreign language teacher mobility (though there is no specific programme for them).

⁷³ <http://www.retsinfo.dk/GETDOCI/ACCN/B20030017705-REGL>

⁷⁴ http://www.mig.ee/eng/work/work_permit/

Estonia has signed and ratified (1/4/1998) the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region.

Requirements for proficiency in the Estonian language do not apply to persons who work in Estonia temporarily as foreign experts or foreign specialists.

There are no bilateral agreements concerning recognition of teacher qualifications in Estonia, or as regards the exchange of foreign language teachers.

Significant replies to the survey by teachers who (normally) work in this country:

“My partner would not be in a position to give up his/her current job”: Over a half feel this is highly applicable to themselves. No other issue is regarded as highly applicable to themselves by such a high proportion of respondents.

8. Finland

The teacher's profession, which is regulated for the public school system, is also regulated in private educational establishments that have been licensed to function within the framework of public education system (this applies to less than 1% of the pupils in basic education; and only about 9% of students in upper secondary education attend private schools).

There are no differences in obstacles for teachers of any subject, teachers of foreign languages and teachers of subjects through the medium of a foreign language (CLIL), though a FL teacher teaching a language included in the Finnish core curriculum is more likely to find a post than a teacher of any other subject.

Finland has signed and ratified (21/1/2004) the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region.

The Nordic Declaration on Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education (2004) signed by Denmark, Sweden, Iceland, Norway and Finland makes teacher mobility easier between these countries.

Significant replies to the survey by teachers who (normally) work in this country:

“I would have to pay out of my pocket part of the costs attached to moving abroad”: No other issue is regarded as highly applicable to themselves by such a high proportion of respondents.

9. France

Full-time teacher posts, which are for civil servants, are all subject to the access rule to the French civil service, namely success in a recruitment contest related to a number of jobs envisaged and announced by the State.

For teachers from other countries this is a real obstacle to employment as fulltime career teachers, for they have to pass the recruitment contest and become civil servants.

Any foreign teacher can find employment in the French education system without passing the tests of a contest but, in this case, he/she will be employed as a free-lance or contractual teacher, and will not be able to claim related advantages, especially in terms of salary (related to the statute of teachers as civil servants).

No differences are reported between obstacles for teachers in private schools and public schools, or for teachers in primary or secondary education.

The authorities envisage the creation of posts of associated teachers identified in some schools, open to teachers in European countries and with remuneration identical to that of the French full teachers. These teachers could thus profit from a 3-year renewable contract.

France has signed and ratified (4/10/1999) the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region.

No distinctions have been found between conditions required for short-term and long-term contracts in this country, other than those mentioned above.

Post-for-post exchange schemes operate for permanent foreign language secondary schoolteachers in the state school system, and teachers from public or private schools, for up to a school year, in Germany, Austria, Spain, Ireland and the UK.

Significant replies to the survey by teachers who (normally) work in this country:

“The administrative services that manage these transfers are inflexible”: Over a third (as against 22% of the total sample) feel this is highly applicable to themselves

“Working abroad could interfere with my relationship with my family”: Over a third feel this is highly applicable to themselves, significantly more than the overall average (20%)

“My partner would not be in a position to give up his/her current job”: Over a half feel this is highly applicable to themselves. No other issue is regarded as highly applicable to themselves by such a high proportion of respondents.

10. Germany

The education system is run by the Länder. Obstacles to mobility are overcome in the post-for-post exchange schemes operating, for instance, with France or Spain. Teachers who apply for an exchange apply to their national ministry, and a bilateral commission of the sending and the hosting countries tries to find the best "matches". The two partners exchange their posts (and nearly always, their homes as well) for 3 months or a full school year. There are no other obstacles. The major obstacle for teachers in Germany is the small number of applications from France and Spain. The workload of teachers may differ considerably in each country.

The exchange of teachers (and language assistants) is included in many "cultural agreements" between Germany and other countries. Short-term exchanges of teachers (1-2 months) are also encouraged between partner schools. The official exchange programme with the Netherlands receives few applications. Some German Länder have their own exchange programmes, especially with neighbouring regions.

In addition, there is a primary schoolteacher exchange scheme between Germany and France, organized by Deutsch-Französisches Jugendwerk and the German Länder ministries.

Germany has signed (11/4/1997) but not yet ratified the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region.

Significant replies to the survey by teachers who (normally) work in this country:

“It would not be easy to find a candidate to substitute for me”: Over a quarter feel this is highly applicable to themselves, significantly more than the overall average (11%)

“I would have to pay out of my pocket part of the costs attached to moving abroad”: No other issue is regarded as highly applicable to themselves by such a high proportion of respondents.

11. Greece

A foreign language teacher wishing to be appointed in a public /state school has to pass the Higher Council for the Selection of Personnel (ASEP) exams, the selection procedure that Greek Higher Education graduates have to go through.

A certificate of Competence in the Greek Language is also a prerequisite.

In private schools, a foreign language teacher has to hold a teaching license which is issued by the Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs.

Greece has not signed the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region.

No distinctions have been found between conditions required for short-term and long-term contracts in this country.

Greece has bilateral or multilateral agreements, which make teacher mobility easier, with Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, and United Kingdom.

Significant replies to the survey by teachers who (normally) work in this country:

“I would have to pay out of my pocket part of the costs attached to moving abroad”: No other issue is regarded as highly applicable to themselves by such a high proportion of respondents (five out of every eight).

12. Hungary

Visitors from EU countries do not need a visa for stays up to 90 days. For longer entries visitors have to apply for residence permits through the Ministry of the Interior.

Foreign primary or secondary schoolteachers need to apply for a work visa, then for a work permit (if applicable) and have their degree recognized in Hungary. Teachers coming to work to Hungary under the auspices of bilateral agreements may be exempted from needing a work permit.

According to an official source, there are no legal barriers limiting the mobility of the participants of education.

The new Mobility Strategy of the Ministry of Education includes the setting up of a “Mobility Centre” to deal with scholarships and mobility programs), establishing and maintaining monitoring system for mobility, etc.

Hungary has signed (04/2/2000) and ratified the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region.

There are bilateral agreements with Austria, Belgium (Flanders), the Czech Republic, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, Netherlands, Portugal, Romania, the Slovak Republic, Spain, Turkey and the United Kingdom. There are also several bilateral agreements for educational cooperation.

As part of the subprogramme of the World Language Programme, 24 teacher trainees / teachers from Austria, Australia, Germany, Italy and Spain participate in the programme in the 2005-2006 academic year, which is an introductory year.

Significant replies to the survey by teachers who (normally) work in this country:

“My partner would not be in a position to give up his/her current job”: Only 3 in every 10 (as against 40% of the total sample) feel this is highly applicable to themselves.

“I would have to pay out of my pocket part of the costs attached to moving abroad”: No other issue is regarded as highly applicable to themselves by such a high proportion of respondents.

13. Iceland

To become recognised as a qualified teacher in primary or secondary education and have the right to teach, a licence from the Ministry is needed.

According to an official source, no specific measures have been taken to change legislation, as legal obstacles to mobility have so far not been detected.

It is up to individual schools to decide additional requirements for qualified teachers from the EEA to obtain a licence to teach, such as competency in the Icelandic language, and the clearest obstacle for foreign language teachers is probably the lack of knowledge of Icelandic.

The large number of small schools that have to hire teachers capable of teaching more than one subject can also be an obstacle.

If hiring native speakers as supplementary teachers is contemplated, financing would probably be a problem, outside some private schools.

Iceland has signed and ratified (21/3/2001) the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region.

Bilateral or multilateral agreements with other European countries that: Declaration on Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education (2004) signed by Denmark, Sweden, Iceland, Norway and Finland makes teacher mobility between these countries easier.

Significant replies to the survey by teachers who (normally) work in this country:

“I would have to pay out of my pocket part of the costs attached to moving abroad”:
No other issue is regarded as highly applicable to themselves by such a high proportion of respondents.

14. Ireland

At primary level, a competence in the English language is required of all applicants for recognition whose first language is other than English or whose teaching qualification is from a jurisdiction where English is not the first language. Teachers trained in another EU Member State, whose qualifications have been assessed and accepted by the Department of Education and Science, but who do not possess an appropriate Irish language qualification, are given provisional recognition for five years, and will have to work towards meeting the Department's Irish language requirements.

At secondary level, the selection and recruitment of teachers for permanent whole-time, temporary whole-time and regular part-time positions is up to each school authority. A school may employ a teacher from another country without any difficulty. As well as a suitable degree and a recognised training-in-teaching qualification, applicants whose mother tongue is not English require certified evidence of linguistic competence to teach their subject(s) through English.

To teach in all-Irish and Gaeltacht schools, teachers must be appropriately qualified in the Irish language.

In secondary education, rates of pay may differ: if a teacher arrives from another EU country with Qualified Teacher status, the teacher will be granted provisional recognition and paid the full salary until receiving recognition. If and when a teacher is deemed unqualified, he or she will be paid at the unqualified rate.

An important obstacle is the fact that foreign languages do not form part of the core curriculum at primary level. The language may be taught by a member of staff in the school, by a visiting teacher or in some cases by a qualified native speaker of the language who is paid on an hourly basis. In secondary education, in order for to be able teach a particular language the teacher has to have studied the language as a major subject in the primary degree for at least 30% of a three year period.

Private schools are more likely to have financial resources to employ teachers privately.

Ireland has signed (8/3/2004) the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region without reservations.

At post-primary level, a scheme is in place in the Department of Education and Science through which permanent teachers of either French or German may apply each year for an exchange with a teacher in France or Germany for a term or a full school year. Funding is available for

several exchanges each year, but very few teachers apply. One obstacle is that teachers in secondary schools in Ireland often teach more than one subject which makes it more difficult to find a suitable exchange partner.

Significant replies to the survey by teachers who (normally) work in this country:

“My partner would not be in a position to give up his/her current job”: A half feel this is highly applicable to themselves. No other issue is regarded as highly applicable to themselves by such a high proportion of respondents.

15. Italy

Teachers from abroad who want to teach in Italy need to pass the appropriate selection procedure to obtain the so-called *abilitazione* to work in a public or private school.

If a school has sufficient funds it can issue a short term contract for a supplementary teacher to assist the regular teacher in developing students’ oral skills.

Teachers are not allowed to be absent from school and keep their salary, pension scheme, etc. at the same time, for study or periods working abroad.

The authorities report their concern about the level of competence (especially oral) of many foreign language teachers, in the language they teach.

Another significant problem is shortage of contact time, as only a few hours a week are devoted to the teaching / learning of foreign languages.

Italy has signed (24/7/1997) but not yet ratified the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region.

Italy has an agreement with the United Kingdom concerning the exchange of primary teachers of foreign languages for training purposes. But there is no “Post to Post” programme in force.

Significant replies to the survey by teachers who (normally) work in this country:

“It would not be easy to find a candidate to substitute for me”: Only 5% (as against 11% of the total sample) feel this is highly applicable to them.

“The administrative services that manage these transfers are inflexible”: Nearly a third feel this is highly applicable to themselves, significantly more than the overall average (22%)

“The process of selecting candidates for mobility initiatives is somewhat vague and opaque”: Over a third feel this is highly applicable to themselves, significantly more than the overall average (24%)

“The authorities at home would not recognise the experience which I would have attained during my stay in the host country”: A quarter feel this is highly applicable to themselves, significantly more than the overall average (16%)

“Working abroad could interfere with my relationship with my family: A quarter feel this is highly applicable to themselves, significantly more than the overall average (20%)

“I would have to pay out of my pocket part of the costs attached to moving abroad”: No other issue is regarded as highly applicable to themselves by such a high proportion of respondents (56%), significantly more than the overall average.

In contrast, one item was highlighted by fewer respondents in Italy than in the survey as a whole:

“What to do with my current home would be a problem for me”: only 8% (as opposed to 16% overall) felt this issue was “highly applicable”.

16. Latvia

EU teachers wishing to obtain recognition for temporary practice in Latvia have to approach the Academic Information Centre (OCMA) which, in view of the documents provided, will issue a statement that authorises them for temporary practice in Latvia (up to a year). If they wish to practice for more than a year, they have to apply for recognition of professional qualifications.

Teachers with contracts lasting more than 3 months have to apply for a residence permit.

The OCMA issues a six-month work permit, in conformity with the terms of validity of the visa and of the temporary residence permit, the latter for a period not exceeding 90 days.

For governmental schools all teachers go through OCMA. For the private sector teachers follow the procedure for regular foreign workers.

Latvia has signed and ratified (20/7/1999) the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region.

Latvia has bilateral or multilateral agreements with Greece, Czech Republic, Lithuania, Estonia, Poland, Portugal, etc. to regulate the exchange of teachers, recognition of diplomas, etc.

In 2004 Latvia issued residence permits to 9 teachers from the EU, and 52 in 2005.

Significant replies to the survey by teachers who (normally) work in this country:

“I would have to pay out of my pocket part of the costs attached to moving abroad”: No other issue is regarded as highly applicable to themselves by such a high proportion of respondents (35%), though this seems less than the overall average (50%).

17. Liechtenstein

To be able to teach in a school for a temporary period, there must be a work demand on behalf of Liechtenstein, while for permanent employment the teacher has to work as a border crosser living in Austria or Switzerland.

There are no obstacles or difficulties to work as a language assistant or in a temporary post. A short-stay permit can be granted for up to a year.

Liechtenstein has acceded (01/2/2000) to the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region.

There are bilateral or multilateral agreements that make teacher mobility easier, with Austria and Switzerland.

Significant replies to the survey by teachers who (normally) work in this country:

“I would have to pay out of my pocket part of the costs attached to moving abroad”: No other issue is regarded as highly applicable to themselves by such a high proportion of respondents (50%).”

18. Lithuania

There is an established procedure issued by the Ministry of Education and Science: academic qualifications are assessed by the Centre for Quality Assessment in Higher Education, and teacher professional qualifications are assessed by the Ministry of Education and Science.

Teachers have to have attained a certain level in the Lithuanian language examination, for work in all types of schools, unless they wish to work in one of the 32 schools with CLIL in English, German or French.

EU citizens no longer need a work permit to stay in Lithuania.

Lithuania has signed and ratified (17/12/1998) the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region.

There are special agreements between Lithuania and other countries (France, Germany, Italy) enabling teacher mobility.

Significant replies to the survey by teachers who (normally) work in this country:

“I would have to pay out of my pocket part of the costs attached to moving abroad”:
No other issue is regarded as highly applicable to themselves by such a high proportion of respondents (48%).

19. Luxembourg

The information received from the Luxembourgish authorities is insufficient to be able to report on obstacles there, and the team has not been able to find most of the relevant information through web sources.

Luxembourg has signed and ratified (04/10/2000) the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region.

Luxembourg has a bilateral agreement with Greece, that makes teacher mobility easier.

Significant replies to the survey by teachers who (normally) work in this country: (too small a sample to be able to analyse results)

20. Malta

A fully-qualified non-native teacher (of ANY subject) wishing to teach in a school for a temporary period has to have the qualifications and experience required in an application call. The teacher usually has to undergo a selection interview.

To work in state schools, teachers need to have a basic qualification (and be able to communicate in) Maltese, together with basic qualifications in Mathematics and English.

Non-EU nationals have to obtain a work permit.

Malta has signed and ratified (16/11/2005) the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region.

Significant replies to the survey by teachers who (normally) work in this country:

“I would have to pay out of my pocket part of the costs attached to moving abroad”:
No other issue is regarded as highly applicable to themselves by such a high proportion of respondents (3 out of 5).

21. Netherlands

As a regulated protected profession in the Netherlands, foreign teachers with a training diploma have to apply for official professional recognition to obtain a national teaching qualification. For citizens of an EU member state who obtained a teaching qualification in one of the member states, the European directive on the recognition of professional qualifications is applied.

A school that wants to employ a teacher who is an EU citizen need not request permission from the authorities to employ that teacher. It will have to do so if it wishes to employ a non-EU citizen.

Proof of good command of the Dutch language is a legal requirement for the teaching profession.

Though it refers above all to very short-term mobility, an official source states: “The main obstacle to teachers’ international mobility is the shortage of teachers and problems in finding supply teachers”.

Most private schools also require fully certified teachers but because such schools are not subsidized by the Ministry, teachers don’t have to go through the accreditation process.

An Information Centre for mobile workers will be in place when the Directive 2005/36/EG comes into force in 2007.

The Netherlands have signed (14/5/2002) but not yet ratified the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region.

Significant replies to the survey by teachers who (normally) work in this country:

“My partner would not be in a position to give up his/her current job”: No other issue is regarded as highly applicable to themselves by such a high proportion of respondents (two out of every five)

22. Norway

A teacher qualified in another EEA country can apply for a teaching position in Norway. In 2002 the professional recognition for teachers was decentralized to the school owners. They will decide if the person is qualified, though the EU directives are to be followed. The main problem is that some school owners are not familiar with the requirements and directives, and may interpret the regulations differently.

Teachers are usually expected to have a reasonable command of Norwegian. This is not a formal language requirement for EEA teachers, though in practice it is normally necessary to be able to teach in Norwegian, Swedish or Danish. There are few schools with instruction in other languages.

Norway has signed and ratified (29/4/1999) the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region.

There are several Nordic agreements on teacher recognition dating from 1982 and 1986, which mostly correspond to the contents of EU-directives.

Significant replies to the survey by teachers who (normally) work in this country:

“I would have to pay out of my pocket part of the costs attached to moving abroad”: No other issue is regarded as highly applicable to themselves by such a high proportion of respondents (nearly a half)

23. Poland

The information received from the Polish authorities is insufficient to be able to report on obstacles there, and the team has not been able to find most of the relevant information through web sources.

Anyone wanting to train as a teacher of a general or professional subject at primary or secondary school has to learn at least one foreign language at B2 level and pass exams before getting the study completion diploma. At present, according to an official source, Polish teachers' language skills are not sufficient for them to teach a subject in a foreign language abroad.

Poland has signed and ratified (17/3/2004) the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region.

Conditions that do not apply for teachers wishing to work in this country, teaching a foreign language, only on a temporary basis: Our sources have not provided this information.

Poland has signed bilateral agreements, which make teacher mobility easier, with the Czech Republic and Latvia.

In 2004-2005, 712 foreign teachers worked in Poland as foreign language teachers.

Significant replies to the survey by teachers who (normally) work in this country:

“I would have to pay out of my pocket part of the costs attached to moving abroad”: No other issue is regarded as highly applicable to themselves by such a high proportion of respondents (3 out of every 7).

In contrast, one item was highlighted by fewer respondents in Poland than in the survey as a whole:

“The process of selecting candidates for mobility initiatives is somewhat vague and opaque”: only 12% (as opposed to 24% overall) felt this issue was “highly applicable”.

24. Portugal

To be able to teach in a school in Portugal the teacher, unless holding a degree in teaching, must get his academic qualifications recognised by a Portuguese university before applying for a placement. A Portuguese language test has to be passed, and then the teacher is on equal terms with Portuguese teachers concerning the access to vacant posts.

Private schools can employ their own teachers, though they tend to follow the same rules as state schools.

In Portugal there is no shortage of teachers, which may be an obstacle for foreign teachers wishing to move there.

Portugal has signed and ratified (15/10/2001) the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region.

Significant replies to the survey by teachers who (normally) work in this country:

“The administrative services that manage these transfers are inflexible”: Only 7% feel this is highly applicable to themselves (as against 22% in the total sample)

“I would have to pay out of my pocket part of the costs attached to moving abroad”: No other issue is regarded as highly applicable to themselves by such a high proportion of respondents (4 out of every 9).

25. Romania

A foreign teacher qualified to teach foreign languages can teach this subject in a Romanian school provided there is a relevant inter-governmental agreement between the two states involved (Romania and the teacher’s European country of origin).

A work permit, a residence pass and certification of study diplomas by the Romanian Ministry of Education and Research, are all required, as are details of the school the teachers intends to work for.

Procedures related to the certification of diplomas usually take a long time.

Salaries are lower than those in most European countries.

Private schools require only the work permit and the residence pass when employing a qualified foreign teacher.

A recent report states that “the Statute of the Teaching Staff⁷⁵ includes some references concerning the training abroad (such as the right of the people participating in mobility programmes to receive salary for all the length of the programme...)”.

Romania has signed and ratified (12/1/1999) the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region.

There are bilateral agreements with France, Spain, Portugal, Switzerland, Luxembourg, Belgium, United Kingdom, Italy and Germany.

⁷⁵ The Law 128/ 1997 concerning the Statute of the Teaching Staff

Significant replies to the survey by teachers who (normally) work in this country:

“It would be difficult to obtain recognition of my professional status in the host country”: Over a quarter feel this is highly applicable to themselves, significantly more than the overall average (16%)

“I would have to pay out of my pocket part of the costs attached to moving abroad”: No other issue is regarded as highly applicable to themselves by such a high proportion of respondents (almost a half)

In contrast, one item was highlighted by fewer respondents in Romania than in the survey as a whole:

“My partner would not be in a position to give up his/her current job”: 23% (as opposed to 40% overall) felt this issue was “highly applicable”.

26. Slovakia

Foreign teachers from states with which the Slovak Republic has an agreement on mutual recognition of the equivalence of educational documents can submit an application to the Slovak Ministry of Education. (Slovakia has agreements in the field of recognition of education acquired in another state, with Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia, Spain, Turkey and the United Kingdom.) Otherwise, they must apply for academic recognition to a university which has an identical or similar study programme.

To simplify the process of recognition of completed university education abroad, there is a Centre for the Equivalence of Educational Documents, which decides whether university studies can be officially recognised or not.

To work as a teacher in Slovakia, a command of the Slovak language is an added value, as is knowledge of both the professional and teaching context in Slovakia, and the broad outlines and principles of the Slovak education system.

An obstacle can be the lower salaries of teachers in Slovakia than in most other Member States. However, private schools tend to be more flexibly managed and many can offer higher salaries.

The main obstacle for nationals from Member States is the lack of attractiveness of working as a teacher in Slovakia. In order to remedy this, reforms in the field of training & science are needed.

Slovakia has signed and ratified (13/7/1999) the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region.

Significant replies to the survey by teachers who (normally) work in this country:

“I would have to pay out of my pocket part of the costs attached to moving abroad”: No other issue is regarded as highly applicable to themselves by such a high proportion of respondents (almost a half)

27. Slovenia

Knowledge of the Slovenian language (level A2 of the Council of Europe’s CEFR) is required in order to work as a teacher: the Slovene Constitution states that the only language of instruction is Slovene (and Italian and Hungarian in the respective regions).

As regards professional qualifications there are no obstacles if the teacher receives the status of “visiting teacher”. Visiting teachers are paid by the Slovenian Ministry of Education. They are supposed to work primarily with Slovene teachers of foreign languages on a team teaching basis.

The visiting teacher has to be qualified to teach in state secondary and upper secondary schools, if possible with linguistic orientation, and to have a certificate qualifying them to teach their mother tongue as a foreign language.

Slovenia has signed and ratified (21/7/1999) the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region.

No distinctions have been found between conditions required for short-term and long-term contracts in this country.

Slovenia has valid bilateral agreements with Austria (for trainee teachers) and the Czech Republic and Slovakia (on mutual recognition of qualifications).

In 2004-2005, and again in 2005-2006, 31 foreign language assistants, visiting teachers and foreign teachers in the whole Slovenian school system.

Significant replies to the survey by teachers who (normally) work in this country:

“I might lose my present position if I went to work in another country”: A third feel this is highly applicable to themselves, significantly more than the overall average (18%)

“I would have to pay out of my pocket part of the costs attached to moving abroad”: No other issue is regarded as highly applicable to themselves by such a high proportion of respondents (a half)

28. Spain

To work as a permanent teacher in a public centre, teachers have to pass the selective entrance examination to the official educational body.

In the “Post to Post” programme, the employer continues to pay the Spanish teacher their current Spanish salary during the exchange abroad. In addition, the Spanish Ministry of Education pays an allowance in accordance with the law (at present and depending on the length of the stay, about €3 000 per quarter).

Spanish teachers going to the UK face specific problems. The cost of living is higher in UK and compensation is insufficient. Moreover, Spanish teachers in the UK may be asked to teach subjects as well as Spanish without prior notice or qualifications to do so, usually a combination of Spanish and French.

For private or private state-aided schools, teachers contact the head teacher, who is responsible for employing teaching staff by means of a labour contract.

Spain has not signed the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region.

Bilateral agreements, in the form of “Post to Post” exchange programme, have been signed with France, Germany, Ireland and the United Kingdom.

Significant replies to the survey by teachers who (normally) work in this country:

“I would have to pay out of my pocket part of the costs attached to moving abroad”: No other issue is regarded as highly applicable to themselves by such a high proportion of respondents (a half)

29. Sweden

Knowledge of Swedish is required according to the regulation for entry into higher education in Sweden. A work permit is necessary for period longer than 3 months. It is possible to work in Swedish schools without certification, but in such cases, the teacher would be employed on a temporary basis and would not be considered “fully qualified” (which could mean a lower salary).

There is no difference in obstacles for working in municipal and private schools. In both cases it is their responsibility to employ qualified teachers.

Sweden has signed and ratified (28/9/2001) the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region.

The Nordic countries (Denmark, Finland, Iceland and Norway) have multilateral agreements and mutual recognition of teacher qualifications.

Apart from this, there are mobility programmes with France, Germany and Spain.

Significant replies to the survey by teachers who (normally) work in this country:

“What to do with my current home would be a problem for me”: A third feel this is highly applicable to themselves, significantly more than the overall average (16%)

“There are no specialized services for foreign teachers arriving in the host country”: Over a third feel this is highly applicable to themselves, significantly more than the overall average (19%)

“I would have to pay out of my pocket part of the costs attached to moving abroad”: No other issue is regarded as highly applicable to themselves by such a high proportion of respondents (3 out of 5).

30. Turkey

The information received from the Turkish authorities is insufficient to be able to report on obstacles there, and the team has not been able to find most of the relevant information through web sources.

Turkey has signed (1/12/2004) but not yet ratified the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region.

A bilateral agreement with Hungary makes teacher mobility easier and also helps to avoid double taxation.

Slovakia has a bilateral agreement with Turkey in the field of mutual recognition of education acquired in each country.

Significant replies to the survey by teachers who (normally) work in this country:

“I might have problems with social security rights and medical costs in the host country”: One in five feels this is highly applicable to themselves, significantly more than the overall average (11%)

“I would have to pay out of my pocket part of the costs attached to moving abroad”: No other issue is regarded as highly applicable to themselves by such a high proportion of respondents (just over a third), though half of the overall sample regarded it as such.

In contrast, six items were highlighted by fewer respondents in Turkey than in the survey as a whole:

“The administrative services that manage these transfers are inflexible”: only 12% (as opposed to 22% overall) felt this issue was “highly applicable”.

“The authorities at home would not recognise the experience which I would have attained during my stay in the host country”: only 4% (as opposed to 16% overall) felt this issue was “highly applicable”.

“Working abroad could interfere with my relationship with my spouse/partner”: only 9% (as opposed to 20% overall) felt this issue was “highly applicable”.

“Working abroad could interfere with my relationship with my family”: only 7% (as opposed to 20% overall) felt this issue was “highly applicable”.

“My partner would not be in a position to give up his/her current job”: only 22% (as opposed to 40% overall) felt this issue was “highly applicable”.

“What to do with my current home would be a problem for me”: only 6% (as opposed to 16% overall) felt this issue was “highly applicable”.

31% of the sample were men, as compared with 17% in all. This might explain part of these significant differences in perception in items related to the family, though similar findings were not found in equivalent countries (Austria, Germany, UK).

31. United Kingdom

The implementation of the EEC Directive on mutual recognition of qualifications means that England offers European Union citizens a very straightforward process to follow. In England the General Teaching Council (GTC) recognises the qualifications and awards Qualified Teacher Status (QTS). The GTC does not undertake any test of the teacher's ability to speak English.

Once QTS is awarded, the teacher can apply for jobs in state schools. The potential employer (the school or Local Authority) is responsible for checking suitability (including the required level of English).

British teachers wishing to apply to the "Teacher Exchange Europe" programme (for stays lasting from 6 weeks to one full academic year) need a minimum of two year teaching experience, and need to be employed in a secondary school. The programme takes place with France, Germany and Spain. Such exchanges generally last less than a term and rarely exceed five per year.

An important obstacle is that job opportunities for foreign language teachers in the UK are limited: only 44% of primary schools offer some form of primary languages study, while at secondary level, it is not compulsory to study a language beyond the age of 14.

The United Kingdom has signed and ratified (23/5/2003) the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region.

Significant replies to the survey by teachers who (normally) work in this country:

"It would not be easy to find a candidate to substitute for me": Over a quarter feel this is highly applicable to themselves, significantly more than the overall average (11%)

"My superiors would not like the idea": Over a quarter feel this is highly applicable to themselves, significantly more than the overall average (12%)

"I might lose salary and pension or social security benefits that derive from my teaching position if I was absent from my post working in another country": Two out of every five feel this is highly applicable to themselves, significantly more than the overall average (21%)

"It would be difficult to obtain recognition of my professional status in the host country": Over a quarter feel this is highly applicable to themselves, significantly more than the overall average (16%)

"My partner would not be in a position to give up his/her current job": Half feel this is highly applicable to themselves, significantly more than the overall average (40%). No other issue is regarded as highly applicable to themselves by such a high proportion of respondents.

Conclusion

In this chapter we have seen that the Union and its member States have been making strides to facilitate mobility within Europe. Various Directives affect regulated professions, and teachers are in most if not all countries included in the list, at least those wishing to work in state schools.

However, most developments designed to encourage mobility in the education sector have been aimed either at students, so that they can move freely in higher education, with the assurance that their studies abroad will be recognised, or at short-term exchanges for teachers (typically, within the framework of the Socrates programme).

Little if anything has been done to facilitate mobility lasting between a term and several years, and in most countries no special arrangements exempt them from going through the same procedures as long-term migrants.

In some countries, moreover, there still remains confusion about the administrative steps to be taken. Some, for instance, require a teacher to apply in parallel for recognition of his/her academic qualifications and for recognition of his/her professional qualifications, when only the latter should be necessary.

Furthermore, in the specific case of foreign language teachers, virtually no specific measures have been detected, other than some bilateral exchange schemes which affect, with few exceptions, only countries whose (main) language has a considerable language learning market elsewhere. There is more mobility (though it is still limited) among teacher trainees, but this report concentrates mainly on exchanges of serving teachers.

In a few countries foreign language teachers *need not have the same high competence as teachers of other subjects*, in the language of the host country. In others however, the demands are higher, as they are expected to be able to run translation exercises in class with their pupils.

CHAPTER 5: TEACHER SURVEY FINDINGS

1. Introduction

The research design for the study focused upon several sets of dependent variables: the willingness to be mobile, the perceived advantages of mobility, and the perceived obstacles to mobility, both in general and in the particular case of each respondent. The independent variables were very much to the fore in the theoretical orientation that informed the study, though it was not possible to develop a proportional, representative sampling frame for the survey research. The relationship between the dependent and independent variables, in the search for causal correlations, constitutes the basis for the analysis in this chapter. Space does not allow a thorough analysis of the wealth of data that was collected from our 6,251 respondents, but the main findings will be highlighted, at least insofar as they condition the recommendations made in the final chapter. Thus the focus of the analysis will be on variation in the relationship between the targets of any policy, be they age groups, gender, kinds of school, political states or some other sociological category.

The survey generated a total of 6,251 responses across all of the targetted States.

Unsurprisingly, given the prevalence of women in the teaching profession almost 83% of the respondents were women.

The age distribution is shown in table 5.1:

Table 5.1: Sample distribution by age

Age group (years)	Cases	Percentage
<30	1105	17.7%
30-40	1806	28.9%
40-50	2036	32.6%
>50	1304	20.9%
Total	6251	

Just over half of the respondents were married and almost a third were single. Three quarters were employed on long-term, full-time contracts. The majority (82%) worked in public schools and a further 13% in private schools. Again, unsurprisingly, over half the respondents taught at the secondary level, compared with 20% who taught at the primary level. In some states language teachers are trained to teach subjects in addition to languages. Over 40% of the respondents fell into this category.

2. Supply and demand

Before considering the relationship between motivation and obstacles, on the one hand, and the most relevant independent variables, on the other, let us look at one factor that is central to the entire debate: the relationship between the wishes of the potentially mobile schoolteachers, and the demand for visiting language teachers in the respective states. It is one thing to emphasise the importance of sustaining linguistic diversity, it is quite another to place this notion in the context of the demand for a knowledge of languages. It has been customary to leave the reproduction and, especially, the production of languages, to the state. The influence of globalisation and the emergence

of the New Economy on state and international labour markets is beginning to change this. A growing body of highly qualified personnel are internationally mobile, tending to use a limited number of languages in their work. Simultaneously, there is an adjustment in the prestige of different languages, with the international *linguae francae* becoming increasingly prestigious for certain segments of the labour market. This is reflected in the data that derives from the teachers' survey.

Almost 90% of survey respondents (usually) live in their country of birth. It is, perhaps, no surprise that the figure is much lower among teachers from the UK, France and Germany, the countries whose state languages are widely taught abroad.

Over 70% of the respondents were teachers of English. Furthermore, 29% of respondents stated that their preferred target country for mobility was one of the three countries where English is the state language. Given that the states where English is the state language account for less than 12% of the total population of all of the states included in the survey, we must therefore ask ourselves two questions: firstly, which languages would these predominantly English-language teachers be expected to teach, in states such as the UK or Ireland where the demand for foreign languages in schools is limited, and where the demand for the mother-tongues of many respondents is close to inexistent? And secondly, given that the English-speaking countries can certainly not cope with the demand themselves, where else in Europe could these teachers be mobile in order to teach English?

The number of teachers who reported to be teaching French and German were very similar (17.0 and 17.7% respectively), while Spanish (6.6%), Italian (3.5%) and Russian (1.7%) fell well behind.

There would seem to be no special problems facing qualified teachers of Spanish, German, Italian and French from the UK or Ireland wishing to work abroad as teachers of English. There may indeed be a greater demand for them than can be met. This imbalance between supply and demand constitutes a major problem by reference to policy development, especially since any Programme will be voluntary in nature. In the case of the UK at least, there are post-for-post exchange schemes in operation with Spain, Germany, Italy and France.

A further 14% of our sample expressed their preference to go to work in countries whose state language was German, while 11% chose France and 10% chose Spain.

3. Motivation

Respondents were asked whether, having considered the advantages of teaching abroad and the obstacles they would have to overcome in order to accept such a position during the next academic year, they would accept the offer? A remarkably high proportion, 71.5%, of the respondents replied positively. There was no significant difference in this respect between male and female respondents. Neither was there any difference between those who had already had such an experience as part of their training and those who had not. However, the minority (one in nine respondents) who had already enjoyed such a working experience were somewhat more willing to take a positive view than those who had not. The youngest set of cohorts was the most willing to engage in mobility (79.9%), as well as those living alone (84.6%).

When asked for their preference, nearly all stated they would either like to teach their mother tongue (as a foreign language)(45.9%), or to teach the foreign language that they are qualified to teach (43.8%); only a few preferred to teach another subject through a foreign language.

As to the preferred length of stay abroad, slightly more stated a school year (44·8%) than a term (40·5%). Longer options were less popular.

The respondents were asked which one or two of six attractions would lead teachers to work abroad. The positive response rates for the various factors are presented in table 5.2:

Table 5.2: Rate of positive response to motivational cues

MOTIVATION	% +ive
It would improve their knowledge of the language that they teach	86·3%
They would learn about the culture associated with the language	68·9%
They would learn about the education system and teaching practices of that country	32·3%
It would improve their promotion prospects in their own country	17·4%
They would have a break from their routine	13·3%
It would give their family a chance to learn the language	7·6%

As expected, the main attraction pertained to improving knowledge of the language taught. With only 727 out of 6251, that is, 11·6% of the respondents having had the experience of working abroad, and at least some of them not having worked for at least a term in a country which speaks they language they are trained to teach, it is hardly surprising that the response may convey a certain sense of insecurity by reference to a knowledge of the language they teach. For most, their teaching requires a knowledge not merely of the language, but also of the associated culture. A third factor - learning about a different educational system and teaching practices - was chosen by almost a third of respondents. The other motivational factors were relatively weak.

4. Obstacles

The respondents were then asked which two of eight obstacles - chosen on the basis of previous research - would inhibit teachers from working abroad. It is not surprising that members of the profession tend, as we have just seen, to evaluate the motivational factors in a similar way. Their commitment to the principles of language teaching and its relationship to the socio-cultural context make this inevitable. However, in analyzing the perceived obstacles a greater degree of variation by social category can be observed.

Limiting the choice of obstacles therefore accounts for the relatively low incidence of the responses, none being chosen by more than 53% of the respondents. The incidence of response to the eight obstacles offered is shown in table 5.3:

Table 5.3: Incidence of mentioning different obstacles

OBSTACLES	% citing
1. Their absence would cause problems for the school.	22·0%
2. The financial costs would be too great	52·6%
3. Their social security and pension rights would suffer	12·5%
4. They have no/little job security at home.	14·4%
5. It would not enhance their career prospects.	8·4%
6. The education/work situation would be too different	5·4%
7. It would interfere with family responsibilities.	52·2%
8. Their spouse's / partner's employment would make it difficult.	32·3%

These can be categorised into the obstacles that pertain to the working conditions at home (1, 3, 4, 5); those that bear upon conditions in the host country (6); those that pertain to their personal and domestic circumstances (7, 8); and financial issues (2). Clearly, the main concern is with the cost of the initiative and the domestic context. In contrast the concern with the educational environment in the host country is not great. Below we will discuss these obstacles by reference to the main categories.

i. Working conditions at home

The incidence of citing these factors as being significant obstacles is far fewer than the obstacles which pertain to the personal circumstances of the respondent. The most important is a concern about the influence of the respondent's absence on the school where they teach. Again the difference between the rates of response for the main social categories is not large. However, those living alone are more likely to refer to this obstacle. This may be difficult to explain, though the observation that those under the age of 30 are more likely to refer to the absence of job security or tenure at home as an obstacle has a simpler explanation. This is particularly true of respondents from those states where contractual implications are limited. It is also the young who are living alone who express the greatest incidence of concern about the lack of portability of social security and pension rights.

ii. Conditions in the host country

Only 5.4% of the respondents viewed the issue of differences in the education/work situations as an obstacle.

The only groups that choose this item in any numbers are those living alone (7.9%) or with people other than a spouse, a partner or dependant (7.2%). This small difference might be due to the fact that on average these two groups may be younger than the others, the youngest age group selecting this item slightly more than the others.

iii. Personal and domestic circumstances

Evidently the young, single teachers who are living alone are also less concerned about the influence of any absence on their immediate family responsibilities. This is also true of those living with people other than spouses and/or partners. In contrast, those in permanent relationships are much more concerned about the ability of an employed spouse or partner to accompany them on any visit. Nonetheless even among respondents in these categories of respondent more than half claim that this is not a significant obstacle.

iv. Financial issues

While most respondents in all age categories regard the cost of the proposed mobility as an obstacle, those under the age of 30 are most concerned with this issue. Secondly, those that are less concerned with this issue are those who are living with a spouse or partner where, presumably, the household is not entirely reliant on the income of the respondent.

ii. Personal applicability of obstacles:

Having responded to these questions the following item was put to respondents: “Can we now consider the obstacles identified in greater detail? Please indicate the extent to which each of the obstacles are relevant to their current situation.”

What stands out in the responses is the high incidence of ‘don’t know’ in many of the individual items (table 5.4):

Table 5.4. Percentage of respondents responding ‘don’t know’ to cues re different obstacles by item

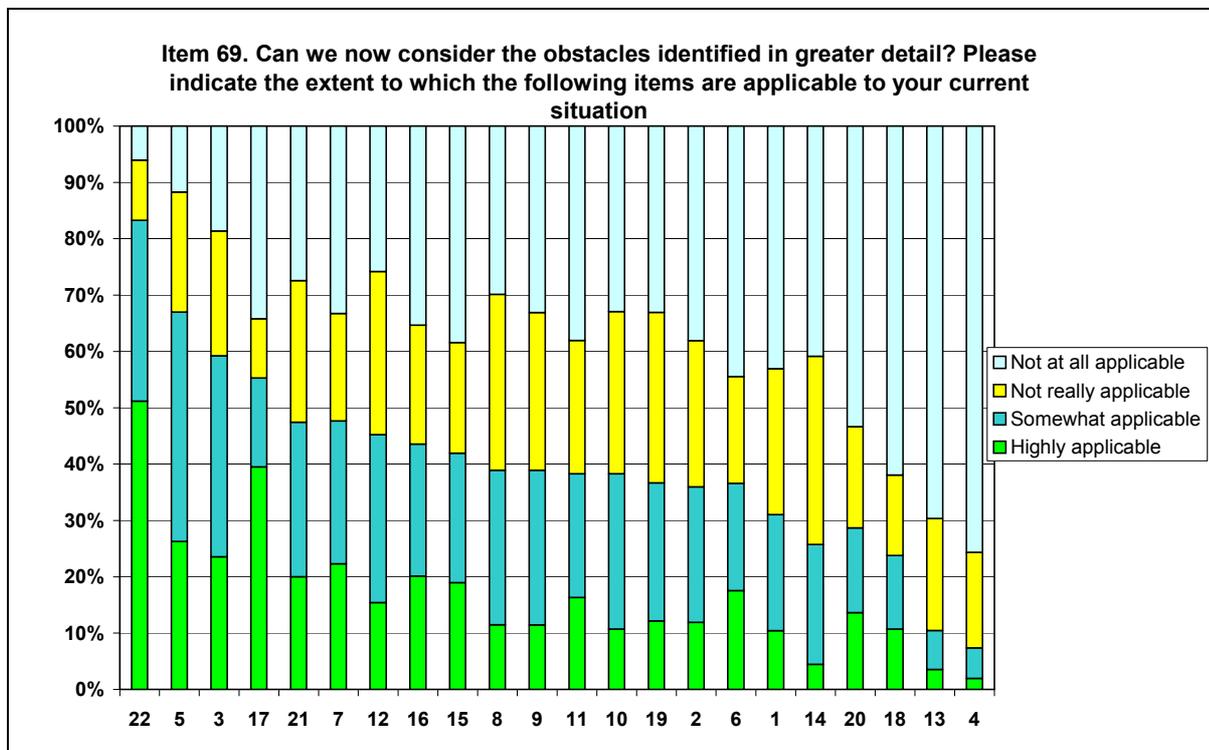
	Don't know
21 There are no specialized services for foreign teachers arriving in the host country	60·6%
5 The process of selecting candidates for mobility initiatives is somewhat vague and opaque	37·9%
12 It would be difficult to obtain a recognition of my professional status in the host country	34·7%
3 The administrative services that manage these transfers are inflexible	33·8%
7 I might lose salary and pension or social security benefits that derive from my teaching position if I was absent from my post working in another country	33·1%
10 I might find problems with insurance cover in the host country	32·7%
9 I might have problems with social security rights and medical costs in the host country	29·8%
11 The authorities at home would not recognise the experience which I would have attained during my stay in the host country	28·1%
22 I would have to pay out of my pocket part of the costs attached to moving abroad	25·6%
19 It would be hard for me to find a place to live in the host country	24·5%
8 It would be difficult for me to obtain the necessary information about the legal and social security requirements for working in the host country	20·7%
18 It would be hard for me to find a school (or preschool education) for my children	19·1%
2 My superiors would not like the idea	15·5%
13 The experience could diminish my work status	12·7%
6 I might lose my present position if I went to work in another country	12·6%
17 My partner would not be in a position to give up his/her current job	10·7%
1 It would not be easy to find a candidate to substitute for me	10·0%
14 I might have problems adapting to the education system and teaching practices in the host country	9·6%
15 Working abroad could interfere with my relationship with my spouse/partner	7·5%
4 After returning, relations with my colleagues might worsen	7·0%
20 What to do with my current home would be a problem for me	6·3%
16 Working abroad could interfere with my relationship with my family	5·1%

Some items generated such a response from as many as a third or more of the respondents. The highest incidence of such responses pertains to knowledge of or information about the mobility process, both in the home and the host country. This conveys a picture of a highly insular profession which is not well served by any agencies seeking to promote teacher mobility. This contrasts with the high value placed on such mobility by the same respondents. In this respect it is also clear that the respondents do have a definite view about their ability to cope with the professional context of such

mobility. The obstacles which pertain to working conditions in the home country and personal circumstances are far less likely to promote this kind of response.

In furthering the analysis of this question we isolated those who responded ‘don’t know’ from those who did have a positive response. Once the percentages are recalculated without the “don’t know”s the results presented in fig. 5.1 emerged:

Fig. 5.1: Personal obstacles by degree of applicability.



The analysis of the incidence of these responses by age and other variables displays some interesting results. Once again let us distinguish between those responses which pertain to personal and domestic obstacles from those that pertain to professional conditions; those that involve a knowledge of the host institutions and society; and those that involve a knowledge of the mobility services.

i. Working conditions at home

The eight items which correspond to this general factor and the responses to them are listed in table 5.5:

Table 5.5: Degrees of concern about the effects of mobility on working conditions at home

	ITEM	HA	SA	NRA	NAA
7	I might lose salary and pension or social security benefits that derive from my teaching position if I was absent from my post working in another country	22.3%	25.4%	19.1%	33.3%

11	The authorities at home would not recognise the experience which I would have attained during my stay in the host country	16.3%	21.9%	23.7	38.1%
2	My superiors would not like the idea	11.9%	24.1%	26.0%	38.1%
6	I might lose my present position if I went to work in another country	17.6%	19.0%	18.9%	44.5%
1	It would not be easy to find a candidate to substitute for me	10.4%	20.6%	25.9%	43.1%
14	I might have problems adapting to the education system and teaching practices in the host country	4.5%	21.3%	33.4%	40.8%
13	The experience could diminish my work status	3.5%	6.9%	19.9%	69.7%
4	After returning, relations with my colleagues might worsen	2.0%	5.4%	16.9%	75.7%

HA = Highly applicable; SA= Somewhat applicable; NRA= Not really applicable; NA= not at all applicable

Clearly the main concern is with the loss of salary and pension rights during the respondent's absence, with two-thirds of the respondents having some concern with this issue. However, there is a greater concern with this issue among the young than the more mature teachers who presumably are more likely to have tenure. Thus almost three quarters of those aged under 30 claim to be concerned about this issue compared with only 62% of those over 40.

There is some concern that the authorities in the home state will not recognise the value of their experience abroad which is a concern for a little less than two thirds of the respondents.

Three issues pertain to a sense of insecurity associated with their present position. Almost two-thirds expressed some concern with receiving the blessing of their superiors while over half were also concerned with retaining their position following a period abroad. This last issue was far more prominent among the younger respondents who tend to lack job security. Over 53% of those under 30 claimed that this issue was either 'highly' or 'somewhat' applicable compared with just a third of those aged 40 to 50. This issue could be ameliorated if a suitable substitute could be found but again over half of the respondents said that this issue was relevant to their situation.

Finally there was far less concern about being able to adapt to the 'foreign' educational context, with fewer than 5% claiming that this issue was 'highly applicable' for them. Unsurprisingly, those who had the greatest length of experience abroad were least expressed such a concerned about this issue. There was little concern expressed about the effect of the experience on either their personal status, or their relationship with colleagues.

ii. Conditions in the host country

The seven items which correspond to this general factor and the responses to them are listed in table 5.6:

Table 5.6: Degrees of concern about conditions in the host country

	ITEM	HA	SA	NRA	NAA
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8	It would be difficult for me to obtain the necessary information about the legal and social security requirements for working in the host country	11.5%	27.4%	31.2%	29.9%
9	I might have problems with social security rights and medical costs in the host country	11.5%	27.5%	28.0%	33.1%
12	It would be difficult to obtain a recognition of my professional status in the host country	15.4%	29.8%	29.0%	25.8%
10	I might find problems with insurance cover in the host country	10.7%	27.6%	28.8%	32.9%
19	It would be hard for me to find a place to live in the host country	12.1%	24.5%	30.3%	33.1%
18	It would be hard for me to find a school (or preschool education) for my children	10.7%	13.0%	14.3%	61.9%

HA = Highly applicable; SA= Somewhat applicable; NRA= Not really applicable; NA= not at all applicable

Evidently these concerns do not have a very high priority for most respondents. Nonetheless, about two thirds of all respondents do express some degree of concern about most of them. The least concern pertains to the need to find schooling for the respondent's children. This is simply a reflection of the fewer number of respondents who have children of school age. There is also a clear correlation between the extent of experience of living abroad and a concern about obtaining relevant legal and social security information, with more of those who had the longest such experience regarding this as an irrelevant issue. Those had spent a period abroad as part of their training were less concerned about obtaining insurance cover. Clearly these are separate but related issues which convey different images to different categories of respondents and which relate to prior experience.

iii. Personal and domestic circumstances

The four items which correspond to this general factor and the responses to them are listed in table 5.7:

Table 5.7: Degrees of concern about obstacles that pertain to personal and domestic circumstances

	ITEM	HA	SA	NRA	NAA
17	My partner would not be in a position to give up his/her current job	39.5%	15.8%	10.5%	34.2%
16	Working abroad could interfere with my relationship with my family	20.1%	23.4%	21.1%	35.3%
15	Working abroad could interfere with my relationship with my spouse/partner	19.0%	23.0%	19.6%	38.4%
20	What to do with my current home would be a problem for me	13.6%	15.1%	17.9%	53.4%

HA = Highly applicable; SA= Somewhat applicable; NRA= Not really applicable; NA= not at all applicable

There is very considerable concern about the implications of mobility for the employment of the partner. These material considerations are followed by a concern about domestic relations. Concern about the domestic residence was relatively weak in comparison.

As expected, these concerns will vary by the factors that influence domestic responsibility - age, marital status, family circumstances... Thus whereas about half of the respondents who were living with a spouse/partner claimed that the occupation of the spouse was 'highly applicable', this figure was much lower (about 15%) among those living alone or with 'dependents'. Similarly, the risk of interfering with family relationships is perceived as higher among those aged 30 to 50 years than the other age categories, especially if married or in a permanent relationship. Yet none of these categories had a majority who expressed a strong fear of this outcome. It is only when we isolate the married or cohabiting from the other categories that we find a large variation with almost half of the married/cohabiting stating that this was highly applicable compared with less than a third of those from the other categories.

iv. Financial issues

The item which corresponds to this general factor and the responses to them are shown in table 5.8:

Table 5.8: Degrees of concern about obstacles that pertain to financial issues

	ITEM	HA	SA	NRA	NAA
22	I would have to pay out of my pocket part of the costs attached to moving abroad	51.2%	32.1%	10.7%	6.0%

HA = Highly applicable; SA= Somewhat applicable; NRA= Not really applicable; NA= not at all applicable

This obstacle, involving the fear of having to pay for the visit or at least part of the costs, was the most important of all 22. This was viewed as highly applicable by over half of those who responded to this item with almost another third claiming that it was 'somewhat applicable'.

v. Mobility services

The three items which correspond to this general factor and the responses to them are listed in table 5.9. There was a greater degree of variation among the responses to these three responses:

Table 5.9: Degrees of concern about obstacles that pertain to mobility services

	ITEM	HA	SA	NRA	NAA
5	The process of selecting candidates for mobility initiatives is somewhat vague and opaque	26.3%	40.7%	21.3%	11.7%
3	The administrative services that manage these transfers are inflexible	23.6%	35.6%	22.2%	18.6%
21	There are no specialized services for foreign teachers arriving in the host country	20.0%	27.4%	25.1%	27.4%

HA = Highly applicable; SA= Somewhat applicable; NRA= Not really applicable; NA= not at all applicable

At the applicant end of the selection process there is considerable concern about the information available and also about the institutions involved in the selection of candidates. Over two-thirds of the respondents felt that the information about the selection process being 'vague and opaque' was highly or somewhat applicable to their particular context. This is hardly surprising given the limited extent of mobility projects in the respective states. The nature of the obstacles makes it clear that mobility demands a high degree of flexibility. It would appear that from the perspective of the language teacher the need for such flexibility falls entirely on their own shoulders, or on their families and their colleagues, and that the same degree of flexibility is not reciprocated by the institutions responsible for administering the relevant programmes.

By reference to the availability of specialised services for teachers in the host country almost two-thirds of those who had spent no time, or up to merely three months abroad during their training, answered that they don't know whether there are specialised services for teachers. The figure is lower (56.3%), though still high, among those who spent at least a year abroad. Furthermore, only 25.6% of those who spent no time, or up to three months, abroad during their training, regard the inexistence of specialised service as not at all applicable to them, compared with 34.7% of those who had spent at least a year abroad. That is, an experience abroad is no guarantee that the language teacher knows about the relevant service which probably means that few such services actually exist.

5. Variation by state

While the preceding analysis has focused on the relationship between social categories and the incidence of responses to various probes about different obstacles, it is also clear that, given the variation in the structure of educational systems and the associated socio-political context discussed in Chapter 3, there will also be considerable variation across the different states.

i. Obligatory placements

An appropriate place to begin is with a consideration of the variation across states by reference to those states which insist on foreign placements as a central feature of their teacher training or language diplomas/degrees. The respondents were asked whether their own training required such a period of residence in a relevant state. This data was then filtered by reference to the place of birth of the respondent and the country where they normally worked. In only four countries have a substantial proportion of the respondents claimed that their training did require such a period of residence: Liechtenstein with 91%, Finland with 88%, the UK with 69% and Ireland with 48% of respondents claiming that this was the case. Since all of the teachers born in Liechtenstein were obliged to seek their higher education outside the country such a period of residence was inevitable. It is perhaps ironic that two of the countries where foreign language teachers are least in demand in schools - the UK and Ireland - expect their language teachers to undertake such periods of foreign residence as a feature of their training/learning. On the other hand this practice derives from an appreciation in pedagogic terms and the low demand for language teachers may well make it financially achievable.

Between a third and a fifth of the respondents claimed to have been involved in such residence in a further six countries: the Netherlands (32.4%), Germany (27.6%), Sweden (27.3%), Hungary (23.9), France (23.2%) and Slovakia (20.5%). These countries include the two languages - French and German - which constitute the two main language markets other than English.

At the other end of the spectrum are those states where such an obligatory period of residence abroad was hardly mentioned - Lithuania (9.0%), Latvia (8.6%), Turkey (8.0%), Italy (7.1%), Greece (5.4%), Malta (4.4%), and Slovenia (0.8%).

ii. Motivational variation:

While there is no large scale variation in the general configuration of views about the motivational factors presented to the respondents there are some interesting variations in the details. Again we divide the six motivational probes into the three categories: teaching, educational system and non-educational. Isolating the five states which score highest and the five which score lowest on each dimension, and grouping the states in accordance to their relationship to EU membership we find the results provided in table 5.10:

Table 5.10: Comparison of the five highest and the five lowest percentages of responses on the six motivational indices for states in groupings which pertain to their relationship to EU membership

	Variable	1. It would improve their knowledge of the language that they teach	2. They would learn about the culture associated with the language	3. They would learn about the education system and teaching practices of that country	4. It would improve their promotion prospects in their own country	5. They would have a break from their routine	6. It would give their family a chance to learn the language
5 highest	EU15	5	3	1	1	3	2
	EU+10	0	0	1	2	2	2
	EEA+ Candidate states	0	2	3	2	0	1
5 lowest	EU15	2	2	2	2	2	3
	EU+10	1	3	1	1	1	1
	EEA + Candidate states	2	0	2	2	2	1

It is clear that language teachers from the older member states are more likely to cite the two language factors - improving their language and cultural competence - highly. Indeed, the five highest responses for the first variable were all by teachers from these states. On the other hand teachers from states which were either members of the EEA or are EU candidate states were more likely to be those who valued the exposure to different educational systems highly while also providing the possibility of mobility within the profession. Given that states from these three groupings appear among those states which scored both high and low on these indicators, we should be aware that there is considerable variation within the categories, and that the findings which we present here are highly generalised. We suspect that a more valuable factor pertains to the nature of the educational system of each individual state and how such systems vary by reference to factors such as job security, promotion structures etc.

iii. Obstacle variation:

In pursuing this issue the states were again divided into three groupings: the 15 member states which have been in existence for some time, the 10 new member states, and the candidate states. The reasoning here has more to do with aspects of social and personal mobility than with educational systems. That is, the higher salaries, coupled with the perceived higher status of education in the older member states were seen as two factors which might account for variations in the construction of the obstacle variables. This did produce some interesting results.

A score was developed to facilitate comparisons: HA (Highly applicable) was assigned a value of 3, SA (Somewhat applicable) was assigned a value of 2, NRA (Not really applicable) was assigned a value of 1, and the average score was calculated.

i. Working conditions at home

Table 5.11: Incidence of responses to viewing obstacles associated with working conditions at home by political context.

	Item	15 EU members	10 new EU members	EEA / Candidates
7	I might lose salary and pension or social security benefits that derive from my teaching position if I was absent from my post working in another country	1·36	1·31	1·27
11	The authorities at home would not recognise the experience which I would have attained during my stay in the host country	1·22	1·00	0·91
2	My superiors would not like the idea	0·99	1·49	1·03
6	I might lose my present position if I went to work in another country	1·02	1·58	1·00
1	It would not be easy to find a candidate to substitute for me	0·89	1·36	1·16
13	The experience could diminish my work status	0·50	0·65	0·43
4	After returning, relations with my colleagues might worsen	0·30	0·50	0·33

There is an interesting contrast between teachers from the older member states and the others. Those from the older (15) member states only displayed a propensity to stand out as viewing one of these variables as more highly applicable than teachers from the other categories: the concern that the authorities would not recognise their experience by reference to their professional status. They were also more likely to view four variables as ‘not at all applicable’ to their personal circumstances: difficulties in finding a replacement, disapproval from superiors, influencing relations with colleagues), and the risk of losing their current position on returning home. This contrasted with teachers from the new member states, who were less likely to disregard the applicability of a decline in their work status, or to disregard the risk of a worsening in relations with their colleagues, while being more worried about the reaction of their superiors, more likely to be concerned about the risk of losing their job at home on their return, and more concerned about finding a substitute. At the same time they seemed not highly

concerned about the prospects of having their work experience abroad recognised at home.

The only significant differences in the replies of teachers from the EEA and candidate states was that more of them disregarded the issues of receiving recognition at home of their work experience abroad and of perhaps losing their present position on their return. However it is important to recognise the diverse nature of this grouping of states which include such different states as Norway and Iceland on the one hand and Bulgaria and Turkey on the other.

ii. Conditions in the host country

Table 5.12: Incidence of responses to viewing obstacles associated with working conditions in the host country by political context.

	Item	15 EU members	10 new EU members	EEA / Candidates
8	It would be difficult for me to obtain the necessary information about the legal and social security requirements for working in the host country	1·13	1·21	1·26
9	I might have problems with social security rights and medical costs in the host country	1·05	1·36	1·42
12	It would be difficult to obtain a recognition of my professional status in the host country	1·27	1·49	1·48
10	I might find problems with insurance cover in the host country	1·03	1·24	1·40
14	I might have problems adapting to the education system and teaching practices in the host country	0·80	0·94	0·91
19	It would be hard for me to find a place to live in the host country	1·07	1·23	1·11
18	It would be hard for me to find a school (or preschool education) for my children	0·74	0·71	0·61

Once again we find significant differences between teachers from the older and the new member states. In this category the respondents from the EU-15 seem more confident and less concerned about obstacles. In contrast respondents from the 10 new member states were significantly more concerned (or fewer stated that the items were “not at all applicable” to themselves) about problems with social security rights and medical costs in the host country; about problems with insurance cover in the host country; about getting recognition of their professional status in the host country (this was also of great concern among Bulgarian respondents); about problems adapting to the education system in the host country; and problems finding a place to live.

iii. Personal and domestic circumstances

Table 5.13: Incidence of responses to viewing obstacles associated with personal and domestic circumstances by political context.

	Item	15 EU members	10 new EU members	EEA / Candidates
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17	My partner would not be in a position to give up his/her current job	1·74	1·50	1·18
16	Working abroad could interfere with my relationship with my family	1·42	1·05	0·87
15	Working abroad could interfere with my relationship with my spouse/partner	1·34	1·14	0·88
20	What to do with my current home would be a problem for me	1·07	0·82	0·66

Here again we find a contrast between teachers from the older and newer member states, though in an opposite direction: those from the older member states were more likely than teachers from the other two categories to claim that these four factors were ‘highly applicable’ to their personal circumstances.

In contrast teachers from the new member states and from the EEA and candidate countries (and especially the latter) were significantly more likely to claim that these factors were less important obstacles than in the case of teachers from the older member States. What we can see here is a relative comparison of the various advantages and disadvantages associated with mobility, with these teachers valuing the experience positively when weighted against the personal sacrifices needed to obtain the experience.

iv. Financial issues

Table 5.14: Incidence of responses to viewing obstacles associated with financial issues by political context.

	Item	15 EU members	10 new EU members	EEA / Candidates
22	I would have to pay out of my pocket part of the costs attached to moving abroad	2·30	2·18	2·16

There were no significant differences between the three categories. Right across Europe this was one of the greatest concerns of the teachers in the survey.

v. Mobility services

Table 5.15: Incidence of responses to viewing obstacles associated with mobility services by political context.

	Item	15 EU members	10 new EU members	EEA / Candidates
5	The process of selecting candidates for mobility initiatives is somewhat vague and opaque	1·82	1·64	1·67
3	The administrative services that manage these transfers are inflexible	1·58	1·66	1·49
21	There are no specialized services for foreign teachers arriving in the host country	1·37	1·39	1·25

The differences here were far less across the different categories of states. Indeed, the only significant differences were that fewer teachers from the new member states saw problems in candidate selection as highly applicable to their personal situation.

6. Conclusion

Limitations of space preclude a thorough analysis of the vast amount of data that derives from the survey. Nonetheless, the preceding has succeeded in outlining the main variations. While language teachers, especially the young, are highly motivated to experience the locational context that will improve their competence in the relevant language and the associated culture, it is clear that there is a profound problem caused by the difference between the very large potential demand for placements and the very limited opportunities that are likely to exist in the handful of member states in which most would aspire to work for a period. In particular, there is likely to be a strong over-subscription associated with English teachers. This may well temper some of the motivation.

The main obstacles involve the potential financial cost and problems associated with family responsibilities, which are in part highlighted by the very high proportion of women in the foreign language teaching sector. However, it would be a mistake to think that these are the only factors of relevance. Most teachers are confronted by a range of obstacles, not least amongst them a widespread lack of information about mobility opportunities (see below). There is variation in their relevance across the various social categories but this does not allow us to simplify the complexity of the problem to any great extent.

There is considerable insecurity associated with the impact of any migration on both professional and personal circumstances. This covers a range of issues including the portability of pensions, salary increments, and tenure. There is evidence that these vary from one state to another as well as by the main social variables. Certainly teachers from the older member states evaluate the obstacles and the relationship between them somewhat differently from their colleagues in the new member states and the EEA and candidate states.

It is also clear that there is a profound absence of relevant information. Given the apparent lack of structure associated with the limited range of migration opportunities perhaps this is not surprising. Nonetheless it is an issue that will require attention.

CHAPTER 6: STAKEHOLDERS' FOCUS GROUP FINDINGS

This chapter aims to present the opinions gathered in the framework of the so-called “Focus Groups” that have taken place in the course of the project and which intended to grasp the understanding of the importance of different factors relevant for mobility from the point of view of teachers’ unions, head teachers, the political bodies responsible for education, teachers’ colleges, Universities etc.

These meetings have been organised in four different countries on the basis of two assumptions: (1) those states which are likely to lose staff from enhanced mobility will view things differently than will those who may gain staff; and (2) centralised states will filter responsibility for teacher mobility differently from devolved political systems.

Following this rationale and its different possibilities or combinations, the four focus group sessions have been respectively held in Barcelona (Catalonia, ES), Sofia (BG), Dublin (IE) and Riga (LV).

A summary of the main concerns and conclusions as regards obstacles to mobility is structured in the following way:

- a. Introduction
- b. Beneficiaries
- c. Obstacles
- d. Incentives
- e. Structure and mobility
- f. Conclusion

Introduction

Beyond the official authorities and the teachers themselves there was another group which had an interest in the topic to hand. This group of stakeholders did not form an integrated group in any institutional sense but did share a mutual interest in teacher mobility. They consisted of such diverse positions as trade union leaders, leaders of language teacher associations, representatives of state bodies such as the inspectorate, teacher trainers and so on. Most of them were or had been language teachers themselves. It was clearly important to solicit their views and opinions on the matter to hand and this was achieved by holding four focus group meetings in different member states. Clearly, in that we have limited the number of such meetings there is a sense in which we feel that the place or position from which these individuals speak has a degree of uniformity regardless of their location. That is, since they represent particular interests groups the interests will have a high degree of commonality. Nonetheless in selecting the four locations we did strive to identify any potential variation. In this respect two factors stood out. First of all, the state languages in the respective locations. Two locations - Ireland and Spain - used state languages which were likely to be the most valued *linguae francae* within the single market. In this respect they contrasted with the other two state languages - Latvian and Bulgarian. Secondly there was a similar split between those states which were most likely to lose teachers within any enhanced mobility structure, and those who were most likely to gain. Finally the locations also represented situations where the so called regional or minority languages played a role in education.

We also found it desirable to have a degree of commonality across the four Focus Groups. Evidently this should not be so rigid as to intervene in the process of discussion

within each group. Consequently we chose to focus on seven themes which were of relevance and which were presented as topics which would guide the ensuing discussion. Each focus group had up to twelve participants and lasted for up to two hours in duration. With the consent of the participants they were taped, transcribed and analysed independently of one another.

In a sense therefore, while these participants may well draw upon their own personal experiences, as representatives of different bodies their comments will tend to represent generalisations about language teachers which involve a substantial degree of reflexivity. As such the comments are qualitatively different from the data that has been gathered from the survey. It becomes clear from these discussions that the problem is complex. Many apparent solutions to identified problems in fact were by no means easy to implement, and would merely generate more difficulties. The conclusion is inevitably reached that any solution must involve all of Europe and should be conceived of at the European level, in all probability through the emergence of new institutional contexts.

Beneficiaries

There was an overall enthusiasm for teacher mobility and an appreciation of its value in all locations. This was put succinctly in the comment by an Irish teacher that it involved a love of language and a passion to be fluent. It was recognised that such experience should be an essential feature of the background of all language teachers and should be of considerable assistance to them within a variety of labour markets. While a teacher could teach a language it required fluency in order to take the extra step that is required of a good language teacher. The value gained from residence in a country where the language taught was spoken involved more than a knowledge of any language and extended to knowing the people and their culture. This could then be transferred to the pupils. Considerable importance was placed on interculturalism among the Latvian and Bulgarian stakeholders who felt they were moving into an entirely new experience. However there was also agreement that there was an added benefit by reference to the teacher being more motivated and also being a more skilled teacher which would rub off on the motivation of the pupils. Beyond that the entire school would benefit from such visits and exchanges. This extended to the teacher becoming a more competent practitioner, not only by reference to the language taught but also by reference to a variety of pedagogic skills. Exchange should provide all teachers with this benefit in that teachers in the host institution would be working side by side with the visitor. Such professional dialogue was highly valued. The enthusiasm that would derive from such a dynamic context would pass on to the pupils.

Both the Latvian and Bulgarian stakeholders emphasised how the experience would instil a greater degree of confidence in the teacher and her colleagues. This would contribute to the heightened status of the school teacher whose experience abroad would provide an international context to the profession. This would spill over to the teacher's Unions and associations and even to the state which would gain from the existence of their teachers in a foreign environment. In some respects the new context for language teaching created a certain sense of uncertainty while also leading to an acknowledgement of the value of periods abroad. It was acknowledged that in both states there was a shortage of language teachers who could handle the new range of desirable languages. In this respect it was felt that the language teacher visiting either state could benefit a broader range of language teachers than merely those in the host school.

It is probable that this overall positive evaluation of the worth of the experience and how it diffuses beyond the individual participant constitutes an ideal since in all cases evidence is offered of less enthusiasm and support than one would expect from the initial evaluation.

Obstacles

In some respects what was claimed by reference to the potential beneficiaries was contradicted in the discussion of obstacles. Thus even though it was claimed that peers and colleagues would benefit from the experience of the mobile individual it was also claimed that there was often an air of envy among colleagues. This was expressed by one Irish stakeholder who referred to exchanges being seen as a nice opportunity to spend time in a warm climate. Similarly, there was considerable concern about the ability and willingness of the individual school to find a suitable replacement. Trade Union representatives in states such as Ireland where the head teacher had the main responsibility by reference to staffing were concerned about the extent of this power and how it could manifest against allowing the individual teacher to apply for relevant opportunities. This general concern was also expressed by the stakeholders from Bulgaria who claimed that school directors do not encourage their staff to apply for opportunities for fear of losing the teacher. For them this meant that the teacher's unions had to be involved in the process.

This was matched by a general concern about job security in the home country with some stakeholders claiming that some teachers would not have the confidence in the authorities to acknowledge their job security. This was particularly true of the Bulgarian stakeholders. In Ireland post primary and related management structures involve promotion paths agreed with the trades unions into 'posts of responsibility'. Periods abroad would affect the prospects of language teachers which would mean that they would be in a worse position than teachers who had not taken the initiative. Promotion is by seniority, the only mobility from school to school being at the higher professional levels involving Deputy and Headships. On the other hand teachers were eligible for career breaks which would provide security and opportunity but these breaks were in some places at the discretion of the school head. It was strongly felt that all seniority should be safeguarded and that the experience should constitute an added value rather than constituting a penalty.

There was also concern about the non-portability of pensions. This was merely one feature of the general claim that anyone involved in periods abroad would tend to lose in financial terms from the experience. This was particularly true of those moving to states with a higher cost of living than in the home state. While some financial compensation was available for teachers from Spain and Ireland this did not seem to be the case for Latvia and Bulgaria. Nonetheless, stakeholders from these two states regarded the experience sufficiently valuable as to view the sacrifice as worthwhile. They expressed their concern merely by reference to 'having enough to live on' rather than being concerned about maintaining a specific level of living.

Reference was also made in Ireland to the difficulties associated with teaching within different pedagogic and cultural contexts. The visiting teacher must be able to cope with the class and this does require a degree of cultural familiarity, especially by reference to making the class interesting when the pupils may not be highly motivated. In Spain this was referred to tangentially by reference to how employing native speakers of a foreign language living locally on a temporary basis often led to failure on account of the person employed being unfamiliar with the culture of the school and the

classroom and not being sufficiently committed to the job. Successful language teaching requires much more than a mere a native-speaker level of competence. It was felt desirable for exchanges to involve a degree of induction and preparation. A poorly defined and implemented programme will cause uncertainty.

Everyone agreed on the personal issues which entered the equation. It was acknowledged that the younger personnel without children were more likely to take advantage of any relevant opportunity. On the other hand there was also some reference to more senior teachers whose children had left the home as potential candidates. Mortgages, family responsibilities, the education of the children and the employment of the spouse were raised as obstacles, time and again. It was widely held that some way had to be found to accommodate these concerns into any future strategy.

Among the Bulgarian stakeholders there was reference to the feeling among teachers that there is no point in applying for the opportunity since they had no faith in the objectivity of the selection process. This contributed to a sense of indifference, a lack of initiative and personal involvement which derived from a lack of belief in the positive results of their efforts. The political process lacked transparency and tended to lack appropriate and up to date information channels. Any teacher seeking employment in Bulgaria is obliged to obtain a work permit and this is a long drawn-out process involving the recruiting school having to prove that it is unable to find a Bulgarian candidate for the position. Things may well be somewhat easier in Latvia but the low wages manifested against such mobility.

Incentives

The State in Ireland has been taking some steps to limit the effects of the obstacles. It now becomes possible to take a five-year career break without penalty. Similarly they have provided two schemes which will provide a financial incentive for teachers of German and French to spend a term abroad. While twelve such places were provided only one French language teacher took the opportunity. It is not known whether this low uptake is a result of a lack of information dissemination or some other combination of causes, all of which may vary across the potential applicants. Certainly the Latvian stakeholders felt that the state was slow in providing information about living and working conditions in other countries and the validity of teaching qualifications, while also needing to guarantee security of tenure. At the same time they did acknowledge that many of the post-independence educational initiatives were for the mobility of language teachers. All stakeholders felt that it was easier for language teachers to move to another country because of the advantage afforded by a knowledge of the language. However, in those states where competence in a particular lingua franca is widespread the teachers of other subjects may well be equally capable of being mobile.

However the main incentive referred to echoed what was claimed about the value of the experience - that these benefits should be sufficient incentives. There was a sense of envy in the Catalan group's reference to how language teachers in the Basque country were given a sabbatical year for such purposes. Similarly the Irish experience suggests that many teachers will not be willing to move simply because they recognise the value of the experience. There was a tendency to put the onus on the state, claiming that 'where there is a will there is a way'. The Bulgarians suggested that schools which encourage exchanges should be rewarded, while such experience should qualify the individual for some form of reward perhaps in the form of involvement on committees or as an advantage when applying for posts.

In Bulgaria it seems that, in spite of the obstacles, it is those who have invested least in the educational system that tend to seek teacher mobility. Those on temporary contracts are keen to avail themselves of the opportunity because they have less to lose. TEFL teachers will also leave, because they can always find work when they return because of the high demand. On the other hand the introduction of early foreign language learning in Grade 2 of the primary schools has led to an increased demand for qualified language teachers.

Bulgarian teachers see Europe, US, Canada, Australia and New Zealand as offering better working conditions, payment, social benefits and higher standards of living. Teachers in Bulgaria are low-paid so many turn to translation work which pays more. Unemployed teachers, e.g. of Russian, see working abroad as a new employment opportunity. Some go to the UK/Ireland as legal interpreters dealing with immigrants. Clearly the motivation for teacher mobility in locations such as Bulgaria where wages are relatively low is somewhat different from that which relates solely to the teaching profession. The incentive involves different conceptions of mobility.

Structure and mobility

Considerable concern was expressed about standardising structures across Europe. The Irish stakeholders expressed a desire to standardise teaching methods and learning structures, especially by reference to the time allocated to language learning. This was not unrelated to a need to consider which languages were being taught. The ubiquity of English in European societies makes it easier to accommodate it within the schools, which means that language teachers from states where English is at least one of the state languages feel at a disadvantage in teaching languages other than English. They also expressed concern about the lack of uniformity by reference to the need for placements abroad for those undertaking teacher training. The stakeholders from Bulgaria and Latvia claimed that the shortage of language teachers led to a lack of enthusiasm for mobility schemes on the part of the authorities. Consequently it was left to the individual to seek the opportunity.

This concern extended to the need to try and structure the timetabling so that any exchanges would not disrupt the teacher/pupil relationships within the home school. It was recognised that this would not be easy but that it was also not impossible. In Ireland, the mismatch between the system and problems caused by mobility is partly due to the fact that most language teachers also teach a second subject, and schools are not administered in terms of subject departmentalisation. Similarly the Spanish stakeholders focused upon the issue of timetabling exchanges, claiming that the longer the visits the fewer the organisational problems, provided the whole process is channelled through a structured procedure which ensures that the profiles of those involved match the needs of the positions offered. The situation could be improved by arranging post-for-post exchanges and by assimilating visiting teachers into the school regime, much as visiting lecturers are assimilated in higher education.

There were also different perceptions of the value and practicality of content and language integrated learning (CLIL). It is not widely used in any of the states covered by our focus groups except in institutions such as international schools. Within such institutions it has been in operation long before its recent emphasis within educational theory and practice. A major obstacle was felt to relate to examinations in that pupils would be examined on the basis of their knowledge of the subject rather than the language in which it is taught. Whereas in most states the language used is English, in Ireland other languages were used and this raised the familiar problem of a lack of

relevant textbooks which were suitable for the particular curriculum. This issue was also raised by the Bulgarian participants. A lack of linguistically competent teachers posed additional problems in Latvia and Bulgaria. Nonetheless there seemed to be a greater enthusiasm for CLIL in Latvia than elsewhere, partly because of how proficiency in English afforded better access to higher education in other states. Interestingly enough, the reference to CLIL in the Latvian focus group focused on its use in schools to teach Latvian to Russian monoglots.

Conclusion

While there was a tendency to perceive the problem similarly across the four locations there were also discernable differences. There was general agreement on the nature of the obstacles to mobility, and also on the desirability of the experience and who the beneficiaries were. However there were differences in the degree of perceived motivation from one state to the other.

The Latvian discussants were tentatively exploring a new direction with great enthusiasm. Their degree of commitment to mobility is very high and there is a claimed enthusiasm for language learning. On the other hand it also seems clear that they desire a sense of leadership. There is a willingness to contribute to the cost of the experience, which seems far greater than the limited degree of sacrifice which those from Ireland and Spain were willing to make. Their needs were discussed in terms of 'having enough to live on' rather than 'maintaining a level of salary'. Similarly Bulgaria stands out by reference to a similar sense of isolation and lack of self-confidence. They recognise the value of mobility but also tend to see this as a possible opportunity for finding permanent employment in the destination. This relates to how they claim that authorities fear the loss of teachers through mobility. However their main complaints pertain to the lack of information offered by those who have access to it, and the lack of power to drive the agenda forward. Participants from both states acknowledge that many of the problems pertain to the political transformation that they have experienced but Bulgaria appear to view this by reference to a certain continuity from the past, whereas Latvia views it as a profound change which is much more positive. That is, the political evolution is different in each state.

The participants from Ireland seemed much more focused upon the lack of incentives for teacher mobility within the Irish system. They pointed to the tenuousness of tenure, the lack of integration of the experience into occupational mobility within the profession, and to how their peers, at all levels of authority, viewed the experience. Given that the state has tried to make provision for teacher mobility, the weak uptake must mean that the personal and professional obstacles inhibit involvement.

In Spain the focus was much more on how an appropriate system could be operationalised in order to overcome the main obstacles to teacher mobility. They argued strongly for a centrally coordinated programme rather than something that is arranged by central or regional governments. A Europe-wide body which would manage the mobility programme would prevent lack of coordination, partisanship and the proliferation of ad hoc solutions. This should link with the professional updating of foreign language teachers by adapting the programme to the needs, gaps in professional knowledge and personal/family circumstances of the individual. This central body should also try and overcome the danger of a lack of coordination with the philosophy/ethos and educational approach of the recipient school by filtering candidates by reference to 'candidate profiles' based on the type of professional required. This would guarantee a warm welcome while telling the teacher what is expected of her. The ultimate goal

should be open labour markets without bureaucratic hindrance, allowing all to work and live in a multicultural environment.

One issue which was constantly raised was the prevalence of English, and the desirability of attaining competence in the language. There was a common concern across the Latvian, Bulgarian and Spanish stakeholders whose implicit point of reference within the discussions was English. The Bulgarian stakeholders claimed that teachers of English, German and French can find work while the teachers of Spanish and Italian have more difficulty. The teachers of any other languages experienced pronounced difficulty in obtaining positions. In Ireland it was treated a little differently in that their point of reference was their own teachers of foreign languages. The predominance of English as an international lingua franca was developing as a threat to the willingness of mother tongue English-speakers to learn other languages. Nonetheless the existence of 400,000 immigrants within such a small state did afford a somewhat different insight into the significance of English. Finally there was also some concern about how the predominant focus on English was likely to influence the goal of cultural and linguistic diversity, especially by reference to the plethora of minority languages in Europe.

CHAPTER 7 - CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Introduction

Before entering into the technical aspects of our conclusions we would like to state very clearly how well the foreign language teacher community has responded, overall, to this study and our calls for participation. Over 6250 teachers completed our questionnaire. This in itself is an indicator of the high level of motivation that teachers have in regard to the prospects for mobility, and also justifies the Commission's decision to investigate this subject more in depth.

The Commission's interest is far from new. While not referring explicitly to foreign language teacher mobility, Section 7.1 of a recent staff working document of the European Commission stated:

The 2004 Joint Interim Report underlined that promoting mobility was a key priority for future action, in particular in relation to the concrete implementation of the European Parliament and Council recommendation of 2001⁷⁶. The Interim Report noted that administrative and legal obstacles persisted in the recognition of competences and qualifications as well as taking into account teacher mobility as part of professional development. The 2004 national reports sent as part of the implementation of the Recommendation on mobility illustrated the efforts undertaken by countries to promote mobility, including the removal of administrative or legal obstacles. However, only certain Member States had clearly defined strategies for mobility or coordination structures. The analysis of the 2005 national reports on Education and Training 2010 suggest that the situation has not significantly improved.⁷⁷

Section 7.1.4 of the same document claimed that "...outgoing teacher mobility is more developed than incoming (contrary to trends reported for student mobility)". Furthermore, it seemed that "...mobility as part of in-service training for teachers or trainers is more developed than for student teachers". The desk research undertaken in this project suggests that this development related to short-term mobility channelled mainly through existing EU Programmes. Nevertheless, some sources⁷⁸ also reported national, bilateral, trans-national or inter-institutional mobility measures, including "post to post" exchanges and the improvement of language capacities. Some states have implemented mandatory mobility in the professional development of teachers/trainers, with periods of study and teaching abroad for trainee teachers and for in-service training⁷⁹. The Commission Report expresses regrets that most states simply report

⁷⁶ Recommendation of the European Parliament and the Council of 10 July 2001 on 'Mobility within the Community of students, persons undergoing training, volunteers and teachers and trainers'.
<http://register.consilium.eu.int/pdf/en/04/st05/st05780.en04.pdf>

⁷⁷ Extract (p. 52) from: COMMISSION OF THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITIES, Brussels, 10.11.2005. SEC(2005) 1415. COMMISSION STAFF WORKING DOCUMENT. Annex to the: COMMUNICATION FROM THE COMMISSION: *Modernising education and training: a vital contribution to prosperity and social cohesion in Europe. Draft 2006 joint progress report of the Council and the Commission on the implementation of the "Education & Training 2010 work programme"* {COM(2005) 549 final}.
<http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/policies/2010/doc/report06staff.pdf>

⁷⁸ Austria, Cyprus, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Norway and Sweden are cited, though in the present study reference is also made to mobility between other Nordic countries, and also to and from Spain and the United Kingdom.

⁷⁹ Germany, Lithuania, Portugal, Poland, Romania and Slovenia.

about outgoing mobility of teachers and trainers, the only form of incoming mobility referred to involving the reciprocal exchange of staff.

In preparing this report the authors were well aware that opening up a particular segment of the educational labour force (foreign language teachers) requires far more than lip service on the part of the State. For many States the school system is a bastion inasmuch as it is the main agent of socialisation; and in such cases the willingness of the authorities to drive a wedge into a structure carefully built up over a period of more than a century may be in doubt.

Turning now to the teachers' standpoint, obstacles to mobility can be in both directions. On the one hand, it may be problematic to enter the education system of another country; on the other, it may be hard to leave - even temporarily - and/or to return to one's own country's education system, without sacrifice.

Given the considerable variation in the ways the various obstacles are perceived, it seems clear that different social groups and even different states demand different policy orientations. Below we attempt to highlight the different factors which any policy development should confront while also seeking to suggest how each policy outcome should relate to different social groups and political entities. The reader is reminded, for instance, of the differences revealed earlier in this report in the perceived importance that some obstacles have for, say, teachers in some east European countries, or for teachers with family commitments to tend to.

1. Opportunities for foreign language teacher mobility

a. Structural Imbalances

The study has served to generate a picture of the structural nature of any potential mobility, albeit that this picture derives from aspirations rather than actual practice. This has allowed us to bring to the fore a serious structural imbalance as regards the supply and demand of posts for mobile foreign language teachers in the primary and secondary schools and vocational education establishments. There is a tremendous demand for teachers of English from all over Europe wishing to work for a year or two in the UK or Ireland, but few opportunities given the weak demand for foreign language courses in these countries. We suspect that much of this demand pertains to mobility out of the profession and relates to the increasing demand for a knowledge of English in both state and international labour markets as the globalisation process intensifies. Be this as it may, it does not refute the structural imbalance.

- A way of allaying this imbalance would be for exchanges into these two countries (the UK and Ireland) from the rest of Europe being generally for a single term, or perhaps two in some cases. However, this would produce very serious organizational problems for the management of the host schools.

b. Bilateral and multilateral exchange agreements

The number and range of bilateral and multilateral agreements specifically contemplating the mobility of foreign language teachers is very limited. Such agreements have an additional advantage, in that they override the need for teachers to go through the daunting process of having their individual professional qualifications recognized in the potential host country before they can legally work there.

- The Commission could encourage member States to increase the number and range of exchange opportunities specifically for foreign language teachers, including the existing exchange schemes (*puesto por puesto*⁸⁰, teacher exchange Europe⁸¹, etc.). Third countries should be specifically included: countries in which in-coming teachers would not be teaching their mother tongue but rather a language they have trained to teach; neither would be a state language in the host country.

As regards the selection procedures employed, our theoretical orientation suggested that there were different occasions in the individual, family and career life cycle which were most appropriate for considering investing in mobility opportunities. These tend to be periods when the obstacles are least relevant for the individual or, at least, when the returns on the investment are greater than the cost measured in terms of overcoming the obstacles. One such period occurs when the individual is young and has no family commitment associated either with children or aging relatives whom they must tend. Thus young teachers (and not just women) are more open to a mobility which is also highly likely to be reinvested both over a longer period of time and with greater flexibility in changing engrained teaching practices. On the other hand they are not well placed to compete against older, better qualified teachers for organized mobility exchange schemes.

Complete command of the language they have trained to teach is also highly valued, yet this will only be an advantage in the classroom, during the period abroad, if these teachers are going to a third country, that is, to teach the language they have trained to teach, rather than their own language.

- Selection procedures for organized mobility based on exchanges (*puesto por puesto*⁸², teacher exchange Europe⁸³, etc.) should reconsider their selection procedures. In particular:
 - Less weight should be attached to the lengthy accumulation of experience, and more to youthfulness and enthusiasm, and the capacity to innovate on their return.
 - Less weight should be attached to the command teachers have of the foreign language they usually teach, since, unless they visit a third country, mobile teachers are usually expected to teach their home language, and part of the aim is that to improve their command of the language they are qualified to teach.⁸⁴
 - Preference should be given to candidates who can attest to a willingness to learn from the experience of living within another culture.⁸⁵

⁸⁰ <http://www.mec.es/programas-europeos/jsp/plantilla.jsp?id=puesto>

⁸¹ <http://www.britishcouncil.org/learning-teach-in-a-european-school.htm>

⁸² <http://www.mec.es/programas-europeos/jsp/plantilla.jsp?id=puesto>

⁸³ <http://www.britishcouncil.org/learning-teach-in-a-european-school.htm>

⁸⁴ The latter is not possible if they already have total command of the language they are qualified to teach, since this would defeat part of the purpose of the exercise.

⁸⁵ In our study the teachers themselves placed considerable emphasis upon having a familiarity with the culture as a precondition for the effective teaching of the associated language.

- Weight should be attached to the level of commitment to the mobility project demonstrated by the receiving institution and the teaching staff in that institution.
- Where governments believe that temporary transnational mobility schemes for teachers of foreign languages might fuel permanent migration, the acceptance of a return clause commitment on the part of applicants for a foreign language teaching post might be included in the selection procedure.

c. Procedures for recognizing the professional qualifications of foreign language teachers

Leaving aside mobility in the framework of exchange agreements between countries, it is true to say that some countries seem to confuse professional recognition and academic recognition. Academic recognition tends to be a drawn-out process, whereas professional recognition, which is sufficient for the medium-term mobility we are discussing, can, in our view, be simplified considerably. This process could be enhanced if teacher training institutions worked more closely together (see below). Nevertheless, the 2005 Directive⁸⁶ might render professional recognition unnecessary for temporarily mobile teachers.

- A working group could specifically study the simplification of procedures for recognizing the professional qualifications of serving foreign language teachers, in the interests of removing one of the obstacles that holds up mobility outside the bilateral exchange agreements.
- The Commission could invite member states to simplify the procedures needed, outside exchange schemes, for trained foreign language teachers wishing to work only temporarily, for say under three years, in the host country.

2. Information as regards foreign language teacher mobility prospects

The study has detected, in at least some countries, a high degree of frustration among prospective mobility candidates, who learn too late about calls issued by the authorities. Furthermore, many complained that the whole process seems opaque and unprofessional. They also lack faith in the transparency of the selection process.

- The authorities should greatly improve the dissemination of information about such calls. Furthermore, some countries would do well to make the whole process much more transparent and professional.

Foreign language teachers seeking jobs in another country without the support of the authorities face an uphill task in many ways. The comment made, no less than ten years ago, in the 1996 Green Paper *The obstacles to transnational mobility*⁸⁷ is equally relevant in this case: “It should be stressed that the obstacles to mobility are necessarily

⁸⁶ Directive 2005/36/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 7 September 2005 on the recognition of professional qualifications. OJ L 255, 30/9/2005.
http://europa.eu.int/smartapi/cgi/sga_doc?smartapi!celexplus!prod!DocNumber&lg=en&type_doc=Directive&an_doc=2005&nu_doc=36

⁸⁷ Green Paper “*Eliminating obstacles to transnational mobility*”. European Commission. Education, training and research. COM (96) 462, October 1996.
<http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/doc/official/keydoc/lvert/lven.pdf>

more difficult to overcome for those who "spontaneously" seek to undertake training in another Member State" (p. 5).

- Teachers, especially if they wish to look for a job outside the channels offered by states for exchange schemes, have nowhere specific to turn if they want to obtain information about vacancies for temporary posts in schools across Europe. A model that might be of use is the European Researcher's Mobility Portal⁸⁸ on the Europa website, a joint initiative of the European Commission and the 33 countries participating in the EU's Sixth Framework Programme for Research.⁸⁹

Some apparently excellent websites have been devised specifically for the job-seeking teachers, and if versions in more widely spoken languages were added, they could serve to promote international mobility (even if knowledge of the language(s) of the target country is a job requirement) e.g. Denmark⁹⁰.

- The Commission might consider drafting a mobility strategy specifically for foreign language teachers, including the setting-up by the Commission, or at its initiative, of a central clearing-house, not just for advertising jobs through such a portal, but even taking direct responsibility, perhaps (and obviously with the member State's acquiescence and participation), for covering vacancies.

3. Personal circumstances

The survey returns, and statistics from a number of countries, suggest that the vast majority of foreign language teachers in Europe are female. Of the survey respondents 83% were women. Statistics from some states suggest that the percentage of women among foreign language teachers is higher than among teachers of all, or nearly all, other secondary school subjects.

It is evident that some obstacles impinge on women differently than they do on men. Several of the obstacles are perceived by many women as personal and family-related. These obstacles, together with the fear of having to self-fund the mobility, were cited most often by the respondents.

- See recommendations on "Selection procedures".
- The Commission might consider special compensatory incentives for women with family responsibilities to help allay the financial and social impact of some obstacles (special travel allowances for weekend visits to family, etc.).

4. Financial issues

Differences in salaries, pension contributions and taxation arrangements have long been a problem and a potential obstacle, especially after enlargement, where in many cases differences in salaries are large. Given the socio-economic imbalances between the

⁸⁸ <http://europa.eu.int/eracareers/>

⁸⁹ The purpose of this Portal is to create a more favourable environment for career development job vacancies for researchers in the European Research Area by providing the necessary structured information as proposed in the 2001 Communication from the Commission, "A Mobility Strategy for the European Research Area". http://europa.eu.int/eracareers/docs/Com_2001_331_en.pdf

⁹⁰ "Folkeskolen": <http://www.folkeskolenjob.dk/index.jsp?userId=0>

former Eastern and Western blocs, mobility may rather be considered as an investment in terms of professional and personal experience (despite the related difficulties highlighted in the present report) by citizens of Eastern European states. Such attractiveness is not as high in the opposite direction, that is, from more wealthy states to those which have recently fully accessed the free market economy.

In 1996 it was pointed out that: “Teachers encounter certain tax obstacles if moving from one country to another for a long period. Studies by the Liaison Committee of Rectors Conferences in 1993⁹¹ demonstrated the difficulties created by the substantial differences in net income caused by differences in national legislation.”⁹²

Nowadays many, if not most, countries have reached agreements to avoid double taxation. Hungary, for instance, has dozens of such agreements.⁹³

- We suggest that funding of long-term mobility channelled through the Commission bear in mind and compensate differentials in salaries, wherever necessary.
- We also suggest that member states agree upon (and adequately disseminate within the teaching profession) systems of ensuring that pension payments and contributions are valid across Europe, especially for mobility of the kind and duration contemplated in this report.

5. Allowances for the mobility of foreign language teachers

a. Specific requirements for FL teachers

During the study few obstacles have been found that relate specifically to foreign language teachers, most of the existing obstacles being common to all primary and secondary teachers regardless of the subject they teach. In a few cases countries do not require foreign language teachers to have as high a command of the language(s) of instruction as teachers of other subjects, at least for temporary placements. In at least one case, however, the foreign language teacher is expected to be able to teach pupils to translate between the state language and the language of instruction, which obviously requires a good command of the respective language(s).

- The Commission might invite the educational authorities in each country to consider ways of overcoming the obstacles highlighted by foreign language teachers either wishing to come to their country or to leave it temporarily to work abroad.

b. Career advancement

A serious obstacle in some countries seems to be that professional teaching experience abroad is only in certain circumstances, such as some formal bilateral exchange agreements, accepted as valid experience at home when it comes to competing for promotion or occupational tenure. The paradox emerges that something that is important in terms of in-service professional experience from the point of view of the

⁹¹ Rectors Conference, Liaison Committee of Rectors Conferences, Brussels, 1993.

⁹² European Commission. Education - Training - Research. *The obstacles to transnational mobility*. COM (96) 462. October 1996. Page 14.
<http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/doc/official/keydoc/lvert/lven.pdf>

⁹³ <http://eracareers-hungary.tpf.hu/index.php?page=elibrary&Itemid=&func=selectfolder&filecatid=4>

professional teacher, is regarded by many authorities as a parenthesis in that person's career.

- The Commission might approach the educational authorities in each country with a view to setting up a system (in some cases, through legislative changes) for validating foreign language experience in schools (at least in state schools) as being equivalent, at the very least, to working at home.
- The Commission could also recommend to member States that they take measures whereby having worked as a language teacher abroad comes to be treated as a tangible and quantifiable asset in terms of professional promotion prospects.

c. Teacher training

Rapid changes are taking place in Europe, both in the demand for languages, the way they are taught, and the demand for delivering subject matter through a foreign language. These changes have not yet been mirrored in initial teacher training, and provision for in-service training is not yet widespread. If, in the spirit of the EHEA and the Bologna process⁹⁴, the academic training of foreign language teachers converged to some generally accepted minimum levels across Europe, then their opportunities for mobility and indeed migration would undoubtedly be enhanced, for administrative obstacles would be reduced or at least simplified.

- The Commission might consider ways of working towards a consensus across Europe on the skills that future foreign language teachers will need, in the context of the Bologna process and in the spirit of the CEFR. This consensus would greatly simplify recognition procedures.
- Moreover, in-service training, which seems to be increasing, could be greatly stimulated if the Commission were to organise and support international workshops and on-site working visits.

Conclusion:

It would appear that in some cases, and despite the positive steps already taken by the European Commission, the enthusiasm for the mobility of language teachers on the part of some member states is, at best, lukewarm. This contrasts with the enthusiasm displayed by the vast majority of those who participated in the survey. This may well be the consequence of a lack of awareness of the nature of the 'new learning' and of the centrality of linguistic diversity for the knowledge economy. There are compelling arguments about how working through the medium of more than one language involves a strong involvement of reflexivity and reflexive learning. This, together with the importance of learning by doing within transnational networks for the future of knowledge economy workflows places a particular emphasis on the role of linguistic diversity in the economic activities of all states. Furthermore, the mobile nature of the larger multinational corporations who will be looking for specific linguistic competencies demands that states pay specific attention to the role of language within the curriculum of their schools. We suspect that only when all states are aware of the importance of

⁹⁴ http://www.bologna-berlin2003.de/pdf/bologna_declaration.pdf

such factors for their respective economies will they adopt a more positive attitude towards the teaching of language and the need for enhanced language teacher mobility.