OM

Ministry of
Education

COUNTRY REPORT

HUNGARY

Ministry of Education, Hungary

Language Education Policy Profile

2002 - 2003

Introduction

In 2002 the Language Policy Division of the Council of Europe set out the principles and methods for the production of Language Policy Profiles in member states. The Ministry of Education of the Republic of Hungary was the first to begin drafting a Language Policy Profile, and it called on the Council of Europe for assistance in the completion of this task.

In the summer of 2002, the advisers to the Language Policy Division, Michael Byram and Jean-Claude Beacco, together with Joseph Sheils, Head of Language Policy Division, visited Budapest to make preliminary arrangements. After this visit, the Ministry of Education commissioned a Hungarian working group to prepare the *Country Report* necessary for the production of a *Language Education Country Profile*. This task was promptly completed within a month. This document served as a basis for discussion with the six-member Council of Europe expert group, during their visit in October, when they met language education policy deciders, experts and representatives of civil society.

The Council of Europe expert group will produce an *Experts' Report* at the beginning of 2003, which together with the Country Report, will be the subject of a roundtable discussion during a subsequent visit with the participation of language education policy deciders and experts, and the representatives of civil society. Following this spring visit, the Hungarian authorities, in close cooperation with the Council of Europe expert group, will complete the final version of the Language Education Profile of Hungary. This Country Report is published separately as a complementary document providing necessary information on the context and framework for the Language Education Policy Profile.

Members of the Hungarian working group commissioned to prepare the Country Report:

Zsuzsánna Darabos	Senior official of Kiss Árpád National Public Education Institute
Katalin Forray R.	Professor at the Faculty of Humanities of the Pécs University of Sciences
Zsuzsanna Horváth	Official of the National Public Education Institute
Zoltán Poór	Senior lecturer at the Teacher Training Faculty of the Veszprém University
Péter Rádai	Teacher at the English Teacher Training Centre of Eötvös Lóránd University of Sciences
Ágnes Vámos	Senior lecturer at the Pedagogical Institute of Eötvös Lóránd University of Sciences

In the course of preparing the basis for the Language Policy Profile of Hungary the following questions have risen:

- What is the definition of language, language competence and language education?
- What should be considered as the context and environment of language education?
- To what extent should we take into account the social, historical, cultural, economic, legal and international circumstances?

Furthermore, although we did not have to prepare a language policy analysis, the interpretation of language policy and the determination of umbrella terms were essential for the foundations as set out in this report.

Due to the limited time available, the edited version of the studies for the Country Report as a starting point for Language Education Policy Profile of Hungary does not rely on a uniform theoretical and conceptual basis, clarifying all details. When describing the various subjects of language education, the authors followed the recommended structure to facilitate international comparison, but they worked autonomously on the content. Members of the working group were free to decide which reference books, background materials, manuscripts, sources, documents, databases, interviews and opinions expressed during conferences would be used to describe different components of language education in Hungary. It was not a requirement to resolve all disputed theoretical issues or all the differing views of groups of researchers and policy developers; therefore the final version is mainly based on the opinions held by its authors, and thus provides a diversity of views. Although the authors wanted to gather the maximum amount of information possible for the analysis of language education policy, it has to be admitted that they could not contribute equally fully to all parts of the Country Report. Variations in coverage do not necessarily reflect the importance of various problems and language education areas, but simply reflect the quantity and depth of information available for the authors in the areas concerned, as no original research could be conducted.

The authors do not refer to developments after the completion of the Country Report in September 2002, such as the amendment of the Public and Higher Education Act and the World-Language Program, because their report applies to language education before 2002. The final document - *Language Education Policy Profile* – will contain a reference to these changes, which are the result of regulations concerning language education and strategic initiatives.

The authors of the Country Report would like to express their gratitude to all those whose background materials, professional opinions, recommendations and collections of necessary data and sources contributed to making the final version of this document more precise, professional, detailed and comprehensive: Mr. Gábor Boldizsár, Mr. Benő Csapó, Ms. András Deli, Ms. Márta Fazekas, Ms. Ágnes Garay-Madarász, Mr. László Gremsperger, Ms. Zsófia Jánvári Lux, Ms. Johanna Kapitánffy, Ms. Krisztina Kolosy Bene, Mr. István Kraszlán, Ms. Zsuzsanna Kurtán, Mr. Tamás Légrádi, Ms. Marianne Nikolov, Mr. Tamás Nyitrai, Ms. Enikő Öveges, Ms. Gabriella Papp, Mr. Antal Paulik, Ms. Andrea Perlusz, Ms. Judit Sárvári, Ms. István Simon and Ms. Edina Vándorffy Lancz.

1   General background to Language Policy in Hungary
Katalin Forray R. — Ágnes Vámos

1.1   Language use

The majority of Hungarian citizens speak Hungarian as their mother tongue or their first language[1]. A much smaller group of Hungarians speak the language of a national or ethnic minority, (or a language that is not classified as a minority language by law), as their mother tongue. For bilingual members of national or ethnic minorities Hungarian is the dominant language[2].

Hungarian is widely used throughout Hungary, at all levels in cultural, economic, religious, and social life. In 2001, Act XCVI/2001 (hereinafter referred to as the "Language Act") was adopted, which provides protection of the Hungarian language. It requires Hungarian language versions to be used in commercial advertising, in the names of retail units and in other public announcements. However, the provisions of this Act, do not affect commercial advertising or names in minority languages, as defined in Section 42 of the Act on Minorities, and as set forth in Section 6(4) of the Language Act, in communities where the minority concerned is self-governed.

Minority languages and foreign languages used in the Hungary show some regional differences; first, according to the geographical distribution of national or ethnic minorities, and secondly, according to the widely used languages of neighbouring countries. National minorities are generally dispersed in Hungary. With the exception of a few fairly homogeneous communities, their average proportion in communities where they live does not exceed 30% of the population. Consequently, minority languages have almost disappeared from everyday communication[3]. Furthermore, the use and appreciation of languages in Hungary has been influenced by history, cultural traditions and various economic and social factors.

Languages used as mother tongue by national minorities in Hungary have universally accepted (standard) variants and regional dialects that are used in everyday communication. Minorities left their original place of residence and communities before the development of a formalised literary variant of their language, therefore, their spoken languages are generally archaic or they are unique dialects spoken only in Hungary (e.g. Ungardeutsch) (Csipka and Mayer: 2002). These languages differ in the size of their technical vocabulary, and in the number of structural elements and styles they possess. This reflects patterns of former use but it also affects the communication possibilities of a given language.

Sociolinguistic research conducted in several countries has pointed out the disadvantages which arise from the restricted use of the majority language or the use of a limited code. In Hungary such surveys have only been conducted among the Roma population. According to

---

[1]   Neither this chapter, nor others in this document contain precise definitions for these concepts or related debates. Instead, definitions will generally be based on those used in academic circles. However, some-exceptional cases justify a departure from this rule, and the definitions of such concepts is included.

[2]   2001 census. KSH (Central Statistical Office).

[3]   The State of Minority Education in Hungary. (Summary of the Ministry of Education for the preparation of a Government Proposal on the situation of minorities living in the Republic of Hungary)

these surveys, those who do not have sufficient knowledge of Hungarian face difficulties at school and will not be successful in their studies and on the labour market. (Réger: 1990).

Naturally, the mother tongues of non-Hungarian citizens are also spoken in the country. These languages or other foreign languages may be used by them as a language of communication. General rules of interpersonal and professional communication or – if appropriate – special provisions shall be applied, e.g. in the case of asylum-seekers and immigrants.

1.2   Human, minority and language rights

In accordance with the general human rights enshrined in the Constitution, the official languages of the Republic of Hungary include Hungarian, the language of the majority population, and the *languages of all recognized national and ethnic minorities*.

Although the Republic of Hungary has signed the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages[4], the Language Act provides protection only for the Hungarian language. Therefore, the government policy concerning minority languages can only be assessed indirectly, based on an analysis of other legal regulations and their implementation.

The personal rights of every citizen of the Republic of Hungary includes the right to a national or ethnic identity, which means that all citizens enjoy the constitutional right to determine their own ethnic identity. This information is considered as highly sensitive data, which is only to be requested and recorded if legal guarantees are provided. Furthermore, the Constitution provides a community right to those national and ethnic minorities that are considered native (i.e. they have been living on Hungarian territory for a minimum of 100 years and have a minimum of 1000 members). A community right is defined as cultural autonomy, i.e. the right of the community to preserve and foster its culture. It cannot involve territorial autonomy since national and ethnic minorities are widely dispersed in the country and their proportion in the population is approximately 10%. Such rights have been granted to thirteen ethnic groups[5]. The so-called *new minorities* who have recently come to Hungary do not enjoy this community right, irrespective of their size; furthermore, as non-citizens their personal rights are also limited.

According to the 1993 Act on National and Ethnic Minorities, an ethnic minority is a community without a motherland. Currently only the Roma community falls into this category. In the legislation of the Republic of Hungary – in contrast to most European countries – the expression "Gipsy" is used to designate this ethnic group, as the majority of their community identifies itself as such.

Minority self-governments, which were organised according to the above-mentioned rights, operate at the same level as local governments and their members are elected according to similar principles.

---

[4]   The Republic of Hungary signed the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages on 5 November 1992, and ratified it on 26 April 1995.

[5]   The thirteen ethnic groups are the following: Bulgarian, Roma, Greek, Croatian, Polish, German, Armenian, Romanian, Ruthenian, Serbian, Slovakian, Slovenian and Ukrainian.

The community right stipulates that the state shall operate institutions to preserve the cultural identity of minorities. These institutions include minority nursery schools, schools, faculties in higher education and teacher training. Due to historical reasons, the size of minorities and other factors, the language and culture of six national minorities (German, Slovak, Croat, Serb, Romanian and Slovene) is fostered by a 12-year curriculum for public education, while the other minorities have only one institution or a Sunday school each. National and ethnic minority education receives supplementary funding, which amounts to an additional 40% per person for the institutions, in addition to the normal subsidy. Nursery schools, schools, Sunday schools, teacher training courses and language learning camps that are not included in the system of traditional minority education are eligible for a special state subsidy.

The right to learn languages is a fundamental human right related to the mother tongue; and it can be exercised collectively or individually. As no uniform regulation exists on Hungarian language education or education of a second or foreign language or languages, a range of regulations determine the choice, number and educational stage of languages, that can be learnt.

1.3 General features of minorities

In the last 1000 years Hungarian communities have been living together with speakers of other mother tongues. Most national and ethnic minorities living on the present territory of Hungary have one feature in common: they have been living in the Hungarian State for centuries. The national and cultural identities of almost all Hungarian minorities have weakened. They have lost their minority language competence to some extent and also their education infrastructure, all of which leads directly to accelerated assimilation. As a result, most minorities living in the Republic of Hungary have dual or multiple cultural identities. Their identification with Hungarian language and culture is as strong, or even stronger, as with their original language and culture.

After the change of the political system between 1989-90, minority language groups have become more active. Minorities that did not officially exist in previous decades of Communism (Romas, Bulgarians, Greeks, Poles, Armenians, Ruthenians and Ukrainians) have set up their own organisations and have actively participated in formulating the principles of a democratic minority policy. It is partially due to their activities that the Act on the Rights of National and Ethnic Minorities was drafted by 1993. This Act provides a definition of a national and ethnic minority, by supplementing the so-called Capotorti definition with those set out by the Council of Europe. According to this definition, major Hungarian minorities are *"all national and ethnic minorities (...), who have been living on the territory of the Republic of Hungary for more than a century, who constitute a minority in the whole of the Hungarian population, whose members are Hungarian nationals but their languages, cultures and traditions distinguish them from the majority population and whose common national identity urge them to preserve these values and to represent and protect the interests of their communities.*[6] It should be emphasised that this definition applies to minority communities so defined, and excludes those individuals whose ability to speak the language is poor or non-existent.

The Republic of Hungary has assumed obligations only in respect of the languages of those minorities that live in one well-defined region of the country (*Romanian, Slovene*) or are

---

[6]   Section 1(2) of Chapter I of Act LXXVII/1993 concerning the Rights of National and Ethnic Minorities.

dispersed in several regions or counties but, due to their considerable size, they have the necessary structures for teaching their mother tongue and promoting their culture (*Croat, German, Serb, Slovak*). Taking the present situation into account, from the 13 minorities listed in the Act on Minorities, Hungary has made a commitment in respect of the languages of the following six minorities: Croat, German, Romanian, Serb, Slovak and Slovene. The languages of other minorities are protected outside the framework of the Language Charter. The Government has been making continuous efforts to promote the Romany and Beas languages in spite of the fact that it has not made any formal commitments to that effect.

The last census in the Republic of Hungary was carried out in 2001. According to the results, the country's population was 10,198,000 at the turn of the Millennium. The proportion of men was 47.6% and that of women 52.4%. The proportion of minors (0-14) was 16.6%; the proportion of adults (15-59) was 63.0%, and the proportion of the elderly (above 60) was 20.4%.

The census questionnaire contained a precise definition of a minority or regional language speaking person. The data was collected on the basis of a free and voluntary admission of minority identity according to the definition in the Act on Minorities. This data was supplemented by the number of those who did not assume an exclusive cultural and linguistic identity to provide a more accurate picture of each Hungarian minority. On the basis of the geographical distribution of minorities, the Government was able to determine on which regions it should focus its minority policy.

The general age structure of Hungarian national and ethnic minorities, with the exception of the Roma, are unfavourable even in terms of the ageing Hungarian population. The age structure of many minorities show a steady deterioration, which is more pronounced for younger age-groups. Households consisting only of elderly people have become the norm, replacing the previous family model of several children.

According to census results, the average level of education of the minority populations is lower than that of the population at large. The main reason for this is the large proportion among them of elderly persons, who achieved lower education levels in previous decades. On the other hand, the average level of education of school-age youths in national and ethnic minority population is generally higher than that of the population at large. According to a survey conducted by the Ministry of Education, indices of Roma students approach the national average, as around 90% of Roma youths finish primary school and around 85% of them conduct further studies in secondary education.

Indigenous minority groups speaking a non-regional minority language live widely dispersed in the country, but they vary according to size, cultural and linguistic possibilities and needs. *(Annex 1)*

The minorities speaking a non-regional minority language are the following: Bulgarian, Roma, Greek, Polish, Armenian, Ruthenian and Ukrainian. *(Annexes 2)*

According to the results of the minority self-government elections, the Roma minority live in all regions of the country. After the elections, a great number of Roma minority self-governments were set up in every Hungarian county (their number in 1998 totalled 766 and by 2002 it rose to 998).

1.4   Non-Hungarian citizens living in Hungary

Foreign nationals may reside permanently (not as tourists) in the Republic of Hungary in accordance with various rights of abode. They may use their mother tongue or the language of their countries of origin for administration, work and education purposes, depending on their status in the country (e.g. they have immigration or residence permits, or they are refugees, asylum-seekers or admitted in the country).

In Hungary the 1990s immigration, triggered by the effects of political changes in Eastern Europe, highlighted the problems of refugees, immigrants and applicants for long-term working permits; but education authorities were slow to react. Data has been collected regularly since 1995 — as far as is known. According to a 2000 school survey and the statistics of the Ministry of Education (Vámos: 2002), while the number of school-age children hardly reaches 10,000, they come from 70 countries and speak more than 40 mother tongues. Hungarian legislators take Hungarian circumstances and Community experience and directives (Forgács: 2001) into consideration during the decision-making process.

2 Regulations on education and language education policies
Darabos Zsuzsánna – Forray R. Katalin –
Horváth Zsuzsanna – Vámos Ágnes

The legislation concerning the whole of language teaching in the Hungarian public and higher education is not unified or harmonised. Legislation on public and higher education regulates access to language education. The 1993 Act on the Rights of National and Ethnic Minorities places special emphasis on the language rights of minorities. This is considered to be the first act to systematically regulate minority language policies.

2.1 The legal framework of language learning in public education

The most important laws directly regulating language education at school prescribe rights and obligations, among others, concerning the Hungarian language, the languages of national and ethnic minorities and foreign languages. Whereas the choice of languages that can be learned is not restricted by law, there are provisions determining the number of languages, the time of taking up a language, the duration of language learning, the number of lessons and the degree of flexibility in these areas. The right to learn languages and to choose languages to learn is only limited by the range of languages offered at schools. The condition for access to national and ethnic minority language education is that a specified number of parents jointly request it.

Generally, any subject may be taught in any language with the exception of Hungarian language and literature, of which the language of instruction and examination must be Hungarian.

2.1.1 *Public Education Act*

The Act[7] determines the qualification requirements for language teachers, and contains provisions that the curricula shall take into account when institutions formulate their education programmes and the content of the education programmes of minority institutions.

The latest amendment of the Public Education Act[8] made it possible to introduce the intensive preparatory teaching of foreign and national or ethnic minority languages in a minimum of 40% of all obligatory lessons in the 9th grade of grammar schools and technical secondary schools. In grammar schools with six or eight grades the preparatory language course may be organised in another grade.

2.1.2 *The National Core Curriculum (NAT)*

Replacing the centrally dictated curricula of the Socialist regime, the National Core Curriculum (130/1995 (X. 26.) Government Decree) prescribed the proportions of obligatory fields of education and other requirements. On the basis of this, individual schools draft their own teaching program, syllabi and curricula for locally taught subjects. *(Annex 3)*

---

[7] The amended Act LXXIX/1993 on Public Education.
[8] Parliament amended the Public Education Act following the completion of the original version of the *Country Report* in June 2003. As the above information is important, it is included in this updated version of the *Country Report*.

A special feature of Hungarian public education is that Hungarian language and literature are taught as separate subjects. This field of education is referred to as *mother tongue and literature* in the National Core Curriculum (Hungarian language and literature, minority language and literature) because the main objectives and requirements of this field of education by definition apply also to the mother tongues and literary education of minorities.

According to the *Decree on the Framework Curriculum* issued in 2000, *Hungarian language and literature* is included as a subject in the subject structure of the framework curriculum, while the locally developed curricula usually include Hungarian language, literature. It is listed among the required subjects for the final examination under the title: Hungarian language and literature, and this title will be apply when the reform of the final examination is introduced in 2005.

As regards modern languages, the National Core Curriculum proposes a proportion of 11-15% in the 5-6th grade; 9-12% in the 7-8th grade; 9-13% in 9-10th grade. It sets a timeframe for the teaching of a single foreign language, and as to requirements, it *"offers a general model without having a specific language in mind"*. It sets general objectives, prescribes the levels to be attained and it has been developed according to functional and notional criteria (Petneki: 1998).

The requirement of only two language subjects (mother tongue and a foreign language) in the obligatory fields of education restricts the programmes of minority schools. The obligation to include the Hungarian language in- one of these categories reflects an approach with is not in harmony with Hungarian circumstances.

2.1.3   The directive on bilingual education

The Directive on Bilingual Education (Decree 26/1997 (VII.10.) of the Ministry of Culture and Education) regulates education if another foreign language is also used as a language of instruction in addition to Hungarian. Concerning the distribution of the languages of instruction there are two requirements: first-, to protect Hungarian as a language of instruction for teaching Hungarian language and literature, and to maintain- Hungarian in 50% of the instruction in primary school; and secondly, to protect- -the foreign language of instruction by setting a minimum requirement for its use (a minimum of 35% and obligatory for at least three subjects), and to set- the requirement that examination subjects shall be taught in the target language for a minimum of two years. The schools themselves are entitled to decide which subjects are to be taught in the target language and the proportion of subjects taught in Hungarian or the target language. While the target language is defined (target language = foreign language), the language of instruction has not been determined. Therefore, - diverse practices are allowed for language use in schools. Multicultural values have been incorporated in the objectives. The directive determines bilingual education as part of education policy.

2.1.4   The directive on the nursery school and school education of national and ethnic minorities

Decree 32/1997 (XI.5.) of the Ministry of Culture and Education regulates education if it is related to national or ethnic minority identity.

Basically, in the five possible forms of education (mother tongue, bilingual, language learning, Roma minority and intercultural), minority languages and cultures can be taught according to three main programmes:

a) as a mother tongue, for those who have it or wish to have it as their dominant language;
b) a language of instruction together with Hungarian, for those who are or wish to become bilingual;
c) as a subject, for those whose dominant language is Hungarian and who do not wish to change this at school.

The directive provides protection for the Hungarian language to varying degrees: in mother tongue education Hungarian is the language of instruction in the subject of Hungarian language and literature; in bilingual education 50% of teaching shall be in Hungarian; and in the so-called language-teaching programme all subjects are taught in Hungarian. The actual distribution of the languages of instruction is within the - competence of the institutions themselves. The directive determines minority education, minority mother tongue education and minority bilingual education in terms of education policy. In addition to the two types of national minority nursery education, this Decree also describes the *nursery schools providing "Roma cultural education"*. It states the following concerning the school education of the Roma: "Roma minority education ensures that Roma pupils get acquainted with the cultural values, history, literature, art, music, dance and traditions of the Roma. Teaching languages spoken by the Roma does not form a statutory part of the program, but the Roma language spoken by the parents shall be offered within the framework of the program, if there is a demand for it."

2.1.5 Examination regulation for final examinations

A Regulation adopted by Government Decree 100/1997 (VI.13.) A 100/1997 (VI.13.) provides for compulsory and optional examination subjects. The traditionally required subjects at the final examination are Hungarian language and literature, and a foreign language (Section 6(3e)). Pupils have the right to choose a foreign language. The language of the examination and the language of instruction are related as pupils are required to take their examinations in the language of instruction (Section 53(2/a)), while the selection of the language of examination is a personal right (Section 53(7)). Minorities have the right to take an examination in their language as a subject of examination or use their language at the final examination (Section 6(4/b)).

2.1.6 Framework curriculum

The Framework Curriculum laid down by Decree 28/2000 (IX.21.) of the Ministry of Education is based on the National Core Curriculum, containing compulsory and optional timeframes in its syllabi, which the schools may use at their own discretion. Instead of fields of education, it offers a distribution according to subjects on the basis of which schools can adjust their local programmes.

The Hungarian language and literature subject is included in each phase and type (school types) of public education. The Framework Curriculum offers 1719 contact hours for education in Hungarian language and literature, beginning from the acquisition of reading and writing skills to taking the final examination. *(Annex 4)*

The Framework Curriculum sets the timeframe allocated for teaching a foreign language at a minimum of 3 hours a week. Foreign language teaching is not introduced before the 4th grade but foreign languages are introduced in all types of secondary schools until the 12th grade, and between the 9-12th years of grammar schools two languages are required. The schools themselves may decide on the selection of foreign languages taught, except for secondary adult education, where English or German teaching is required for 3 hours a week.

The "*Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching and Assessment*" drafted by the Council of Europe has served as a basis for the development of the language teaching programmes and the levels of requirements of the Framework Curriculum.

The framework curricula for national and ethnic minority education determine the requirements for mother tongue (minority language) and literature, and minority culture according to grades, until the end of the 12th grade.

Since September 2002 the application of the Framework Curriculum has not been obligatory, and the National Core Curriculum is currently being revised according to the Act on Education. This revision is expected to lead to the revision of local curricula.

2.2 Acts concerning language education in higher education

According to Section 95(7) of the Act on Higher Education[9], a diploma certifying the completion of higher education studies is issued, provided that the relevant qualification requirements determined by a Government or a Ministerial Decree for the given first degree (BA) and second degree (MA) are satisfied. According to the qualification requirements in force, it is a prerequisite for the final examination to obtain- an accredited intermediate language certificate or its equivalent.

---

[9] Amended Act LXXX/1993 on higher education.

3 Language learning opportunities in public education
Zsuzsánna Darabos — Zsuzsanna Horváth — Ágnes Vámos

3.1 Facts and trends in Hungarian language teaching

3.1.1 The names of fields of education, subject areas and subjects

Dividing Hungarian language and literature, and teaching it as two separate subjects is a characteristic feature of Hungarian public education. This field of education is called mother tongue and literature in the National Core Curriculum (i.e. Hungarian language and literature or Minority language and literature), as the main goals and requirements in this field of education -also apply to the teaching of minority language and literature. In the Framework Curriculum the name of the subject is Hungarian language and literature, and in local curricula it is Hungarian language, literature. At the final examination, it is listed among statutory subjects as Hungarian language and literature. The name will be maintained even after the introduction of the final examination reform in 2005.

3.1.2 Dilemmas related to the teaching of Hungarian

Since the mid-1990s as the underlying principles of local curricula have to be devised and agreed, all teachers of Hungarian language and literature have had to take a role in shaping the structure and content of their subject to some extent.

However, new challenges have arisen, especially in mother tongue education, due to a growing demand for the development of communication skills, and deficiencies in reading comprehension at class level identified in Hungarian and international research (Horváth: 1996; Vári: 2001). These challenges have been met in the schools with a variety of local problem-solving methods, and new subject areas and functions have been introduced. The reasons that led to these processes go beyond the internal, pedagogically motivated changes of the functions of subjects, and they are more of a social character: the phenomena of cultural transfer raise questions concerning literary and linguistic knowledge in the mother tongue in schools among others (e.g. high and mass cultures, functional texts), and the transferability of literary and linguistic knowledge. Cultural transfer, as it is generally understood, dos not relate only to cultural differences between the needs of teachers and pupils but also to differences between the needs of teachers, mediators, pupils and recipients. Just as knowledge and interpretation of the role of a teacher varies between teachers, taste and differs between pupils as well. Literature has already become an all-inclusive subject; and Hungarian language teaching has also integrated several interdisciplinary topics. Examples are: the whole of interpersonal and social communication, text linguistics, the basics of rhetoric, information management, linguistic and social skills, and competencies required for learning and social success. Another development is the inclusion of functional texts into the subject matter of schools. Furthermore, various genres of mass communication, advertising, writing for practical purposes, electronic communication are being used for pedagogical purposes. Linguistic knowledge and the mother tongues have been affected by these changes, which alter normative requirements, include problem solving in language use, and oral and written communication. The programme for lifelong learning, that has been accepted both internationally and in Hungary, will develop critical and autonomous thinking, and a pragmatic and flexible attitude. Being aware of the fact that linguistic competence has become

the prerequisite for acquiring learning skills and achieving success at school, pupils, parents and society at large have high expectation from mother tongue education.

3.2 Facts and trends in foreign language education

3.2.1 Before 1990

Russian language learning was obligatory at all levels of education. In eight-grade primary schools Russian was taught from 4th grade, usually with 2-3 obligatory 2-3 classes a week, or from 3rd grade in 3-3-4-4-4-4 classes a week in the framework of a specialized curriculum. Students could choose another foreign language from the late 1960s, taking up the same hours. Where two languages were learned, the language studied for the longest period of time and the most classes was considered to be the first second language of the student. (The difference between the concepts and categories of the *first and second foreign language* was an education policy issue.) Studying two foreign languages was highly regarded; therefore indices of participation and achievement were high.

Content was regulated by specific national language curricula (1978) aiming to promote language use. In compliance with the curricula, the National Schoolbook Publisher Company supplied cheap Hungarian schoolbooks and other educational materials, like teachers' manuals.

At fourth grade, grammar schools students were obliged to study two foreign languages and one or two languages in technical secondary schools. Where one language was learned it had to be Russian and it was taught for two classes a week. In vocational and technical schools, foreign languages were not offered.

National curricula were aligned with different structures of classes. The most important versions were the obligatory 3-3-3-3 hours a week, the optional 3-3-5-5 hours a week, the specialised 8-6-6-7 hours a week and the so-called advanced learners' groups generally studying in 4-5 classes a week after graduation from a specialised primary school. One of the remarkable features of the current education system is that these regulations concerning the curriculum have not yet been abolished.

Since the second half of the 1980s, the wide range of class structures made the use of imported German, English and French language textbooks, together with books published in Hungary. The monopoly of Russian language teaching methodology was broken by new methods and new materials, e.g. audiovisual, used in language courses. The Cultural Departments of Embassies helped students, who specialised in French and Italian, to gain prioritised access to training courses abroad. Students who specialised in English could participate in training courses organised in Hungary and students who specialised in German could also go abroad to attend courses in order to become advisers, senior teachers or methodology instructors in higher education.

From this time, bilingual grammar schools have offered more opportunities for intensive language learning and opened up new vistas in higher education. The so-called "zero grade" – a preparatory year – was a unique initiative in Europe. During professional meetings concerning the new six-language education (English, French, German, Italian, Russian, Spanish) a wide range of language teaching visions had been put forward. It became apparent

that languages have their own characteristics, e.g. they have diverse cultural backgrounds and methodological traditions. Foreign languages can only be discussed individually.

3.2.2 The transition in 1989/90 and its consequences

<u>The previously uniform structure of public education has changed</u>

In addition to the eight-grade primary schools and four-grade secondary schools, the structure of 4+8 grades used before the Second World War has reappeared and a new structure has also emerged: 6+6 grades. After the period of hegemony of public schools, several religious and foundation schools have been created. Most of them maintained the 8+4 grade structure. Schools with new structures started several progressive trends, e.g. by locally developed new curricula.

The effects of the abolishment of Russian as an obligatory foreign language in primary school language education

Schools where two foreign languages had been taught were in a better position from the point of view of foreign language education because, after Russian was abolished as an obligatory language, the other language was still taught with the same intensity and group structure. On the other hand, since that time language-learning opportunities decreased as generally only one language was taught.

In schools, the teaching of new languages to replace the Russian language "inherited" all the problems associated with Russian learning: learning the new language was also obligatory, the number of classes was insufficient, groups were generally too large and the necessary curricula were missing. The frustration of teachers, who lacked adequate training, did not improve the situation.

In many cases, English and German teachers were provided with unfettered teaching opportunities but not well-trained teachers of French, Italian or other languages. This trend is due to the fact that public opinion, and therefore parents, regarded language learning as equivalent to English learning, even though the number of available English teachers was insufficient and they were lacking adequate training. At the same time, Russian teachers were forced to undergo retraining to earn a teacher's degree - in English and German mostly.

At the same time the system of institutions providing professional support for schools (teaching services and consultation) has been transformed several times. The range of textbooks published abroad has become much wider whereas the range of textbooks published in Hungary narrowed significantly, with the exception of English and German language books.
It can be concluded that the politically ordained monopoly of the Russian language has been replaced by the continuous learning of one foreign language. Due to social, economic and cultural expectations this single foreign language is almost always English. The teaching of only one language has both negative (it is like an obligatory subject, the number of lessons have been steadily decreasing, there is an unequal supply of teachers, and the teaching of other languages is increasingly neglected in contrast with European trends, etc.), and positive impacts (new methods, participation in European professional activities, developments, research, wider range of teaching aids, etc.).

3.2.3   After 1990

Statistical data concerning foreign language education in the 1993/94 and 1999/2000 school years are compared in the following section.

Foreign language teaching before 1994

The importance of Russian has been declining sharply. The number of learners of German and English languages has steadily increased, together with the proportion of learners in the student population. The number of French learners has declined but their proportion has slightly increased. *(Annex 5)*

Data on secondary schools show that in the 1987/88 school year the number of students studying Russian roughly corresponds to the number of English learners in 1993/94. During the same period of time the number of German, Italian and other language learners trebled and the number of French learners grew 1.5 times. The extremely small number of Spanish learners increased slightly before declining. *(Annex 6)*

Foreign language teaching before 2000

The trend in language education of 6-14 year olds shows that in the eight-grade the number of languages taught dropped to only one, and the proportion of foreign languages offered in the first years in six- or eight-grade grammar schools changed. *(Annexes 7-17)*
- Most students have chosen German as a first foreign language. By the year 2000, the number of English learners had grown by 24% and that of German learners only by 0.5%. In the case of students of both languages, the number of students studying a second foreign language has decreased at the same rate.
- Russian language learning was pushed from third to fourth place. The number of students choosing Russian as a first language has fallen to one tenth and the number of those who chose it as a second foreign language has halved.
- French language has moved from fourth to third place, while the number of those who chose it as a first foreign language has dropped sharply.
- The number of Latin learners has almost doubled and Latin as a second foreign language has become even more popular.
- The number of Italian learners has dropped sharply, especially as a first foreign language.
- While the number of Spanish learners has slightly increased, it still remains at a very low level.

The breakdown of primary school data according to regions reflect changes caused by the transition more clearly.

Secondary school (grades from 9 to 12) data *(Annexes 18-19)* show the following:
- The importance of English compared to German has further increased. French has suffered a slight setback. Even Italian has got ahead of Russian. The number of Latin learners has started to drop.
- In 2000, the English-German ratio was the same in grammar and technical secondary schools. Technical secondary schools rarely offered other languages.
- The number of English, German and French learners who study in optional classes or according to a special curriculum has stagnated and the number of English and German learners in bilingual education has grown, but it has dropped in the case of French.

18

- In vocational schools, twice as many students have studied German, compared to English. Only 0.5% of language learners have been studying a language other than German or English.
- The division of classes into smaller groups was still a general practice.

<u>Foreign language education in 2001/2002</u>

English is the most popular foreign language for 6-14 year olds in all grades. Trends in learning other languages have been also changing. Four languages are offered from the 1st grade[10]. French is only offered for less than three hours a week. Generally, in the first four grades foreign language lessons did not exceed three hours a week. From the 5th grade on, the number of classes increased to 3-5 per week. Russian language education had almost disappeared. The distribution of new learners suggests this could be the fate of all foreign languages, with the exception of German and English. *(Annex 20)*

Summary: a welcome increase in the number of classes and a regrettably narrow range of languages offered.

According to data from the 2001/2002 school year, the number of classes in 9th to 12th grades in had increased, but the range of languages offered remained practically the same. English is increasingly more popular than German, and interest in Spanish and Latin has been growing in grammar schools. *(Annex 21)*

3.3 Fact and trends in minority nursery school and school education

3.3.1 *Trends in minority school education in the last 15-20 years*

Six national minorities are offered education in minority schools. Since World War II, the Ruthenian, Ukrainian, Armenian and Polish minorities have not had schools because their members are few in number and/or dispersed. After the changeover to democracy in 1989 no other minorities were included in minority school education, and so-called Sunday schools, municipal language courses and cultural events were organized for those who were interested, in order to create, preserve and strengthen their national identity. In the past fifteen years the proportion of minority primary and secondary educational institutions increased by 2-3%.

Historically, three types of minority education have been introduced: in two of them the minority language is the language of instruction, while in the third one it is taught as a foreign language. Bilingual education was abolished in the 1960s, then reintroduced in 1981, and given new impetus after the political changeover. The role of mother tongue education decreased in the previous decades and it has not expanded after the political changeover either. On the other hand, in the past ten years there has been a growing interest in learning a minority language as a foreign language. This is due to the fact that it is legally impossible to distinguish between pupils learning German as a minority or as a foreign language, because on entering school they are not required to state their national identity. These trends are related to language policy changes within the entire formal system of education: when there is a shortage of language learning opportunities within the system, members of the majority population will enter minority schools, if they offer (socially, economically, etc.) attractive

---

[10]   In the case of Spanish: group of 20 members.

languages. This trend is less characteristic of secondary education as there is ample supply at that level.

<u>Pupils in minority education</u>

Although the number of pupils entering minority education has steadily increased, the total number of minority school pupils has not increased at the same rate, because a larger proportion of minority school pupils leave minority education compared to the proportion of non-minority pupils leaving public education. According to a 2000 survey conducted by KÁOKSZI[11] (Vámos: 2003) 35% of pupils who leave minority education will join another class with non-minority education within the same school; 10% of them will leave for another class offering minority education in another school; and the others (55%) will leave both school and minority education at the same time. Most of the pupils who fail and have to retake the same year will leave the minority class and the school as well. In all types of education, most pupils drop out from bilingual programmes in primary schools and from language teaching programmes halfway between elementary and intermediate levels. Of primary school pupils who participate in language teaching programmes, 70-80% chose a non-minority secondary school. This is partly due to the fact that some parents chose minority schools for language learning purposes, and a new language and new perspectives will be preferred for the secondary school. (Imre: 1999). In minority education system as a whole, the loss of pupils is even more substantial: 7115 pupils entered the 1st grade of minority primary schools in the 1994/95 school year but only 7%, or 491 pupils, still studied in minority education in 12th grade in 1999/2000. On the other hand those who entered minority secondary schools continued their studies there until passing the final examination. (*Annexes 22-23*)

3.3.2   Minority nursery schools

There is an extensive network of minority nursery schools with more than 20,000 children, in the care of more than 1000 teachers in roughly 400 institutions. More than 90% of minority nursery schools have opted for a bilingual education program. In most communities with minority schools there is a minority nursery school. Nursery schools are responsible for the preservation and fostering of minority identity, and for the preparation for primary school. The relationship between schools and kindergartens will be affected by the type of education offered by schools: enrolment in mother tongue and bilingual programmes can often be traced back to experiences in the kindergarten.

3.3.3   Minority primary school education

In the 1999/2000 school year, 55,013 pupils studied in the grades 1-10 of 413 minority primary schools. The minority with the largest number of pupils (47,293), representing 84% of the total, was the German minority. Furthermore, 4418 Slovak, 2526 Croatian, 1198 Romanian, 275 Serb, 116 Slovene and 83 Greek pupils study in minority education. No formal education is available for the other minorities due to their low numbers, dispersed locations and lack of interest. The Bulgarian and the Hungarian Governments finance a 12-grade primary school in Budapest for the Bulgarian minority. *(Annexes 24-28)*

---

[11]   Kiss Árpád National Public Education Institute

Eighty percent of minority education institutions offer language courses in the given minority language, while the rest offer the other two types of education: mother tongue and bilingual programmes. In the school year 1999/2000, from 7844 pupils enrolled in the 1st grade, approximately 1000 participated in a mother tongue or bilingual program, while 6787 participated in a language-learning program.

Primary school education institutions for minorities are generally located in areas where minorities live in large groups: Slovene minority schools are located next to the Slovenian border, Croat and Serb schools near the southern border, Slovak schools near the northern and north-eastern border and Romanian schools near the Romanian border. Most German minority schools operate in the counties of Baranya and Pest. Generally, minority education is only offered in a few counties, but German minority schools are evenly distributed in the country.

3.3.4   Minority secondary school education

Approximately 80% of school-leavers from minority primary schools will continue their education in non-minority schools. This is partly due to the fact that the system of minority education is incomplete; the structure of secondary education is not aligned with non-minority secondary education; the choice of programmes is limited. Vocational training only offers a limited range of skills, and the number of minority secondary schools is relatively low in terms of the number of pupils completing primary education. Another problem is that the regional distribution of secondary schools does not follow the distribution of minorities. The German minority has the highest number of secondary schools (18). Roughly 70% of minority secondary school pupils study in these schools. The Serb, Slovene and Romanian minorities have the fewest institutions: one institution each, with 4% of all minority secondary school pupils in each. There are 215 Croatian, 2242 German, 128 Romanian, 126 Serb, 97 Slovak and 10 Slovene pupils in minority education programmes. (*Annexes 29-31*)

All three types of minority education (*mother tongue, bilingual and minority language as a foreign language*) are offered at a secondary school level. Mother tongue education is provided only by a Serb secondary school in Budapest as a continuation of primary school. Bilingual education is offered to all minorities, except for the Serbs and Slovenes: the total number of schools is 14 with 2074 pupils. Language education is offered in seven schools with 743 participants. Most of these schools offer German language courses and a single Slovene language-programme is also offered. Therefore, the proportion of bilingual schools and pupils is higher at the secondary school level than in primary schools. Most of these schools consider education offered in bilingual schools as the foundation for their program.

The number of students in minority secondary schools is generally low in all schools with the exception of German minority schools. Due to the absence of relevant survey data, it is not clear if the secondary education offered by these schools is simply not attractive for students, the minority members are too few in number or students are simply not interested. The 1999 Amendment of the Act on Public Education tried to deal with this problem by introducing *supplementary minority education*. The amendment makes it possible for non-minority secondary school students to take up minority studies as well, and pass a final examination in minority subjects[12].

---

[12]   The State of Minority Education in Hungary. (Summary of the Ministry of Education for the preparation of a Government Proposal on the situation of minorities living in the Republic of Hungary)

Those who are interested in minority higher education can choose from minority nursery, primary and secondary school teacher training programmes in Hungary and can apply for scholarships to the country where the language is spoken as mother tongue.

3.3.5 *Extra-curricular activities*

The role of minority education is to preserve, foster and develop minority languages and identity. Minority schools are centres of minority cultural life in the communities and they maintain local traditions. They use various means to achieve these purposes: minority theatres, clubs, houses of games, maintenance of local and school museums, recording traditions, poem and prose recitals, folk dance clubs, minority orchestras, minority school news, etc. Minority schools keep close contacts with schools in the mother country: there are regular exchange programmes, camps and competitions for regional or national minority children or youths. The funding of these projects is provided through applications submitted to the Office of National and Ethnic Minorities, the Ministry of Education or the Ministry of Children, Youth and Sport.

3.4 Roma children in public education

Some so-called 'model' institutions have undertaken to promote the languages of Roma and their culture, and to raise level of education among the Roma. These institutions are generally foundation-schools funded by the Government on a per capita basis and with additional funding from various sources. From these schools only the Gandhi Grammar School and Kalyi Jag Minority Vocational Training School have undertaken to integrate one of the languages of Roma into the curriculum, therefore data collected by the Ministry of Education show fewer pupils learning in their mother tongue now (approximately 120). *(Annexes 31-33)*

The secondary school has been organised along the same lines as minority grammar schools, which shows that the Roma population is an ethnic minority with an independent culture and language, similarly to other Hungarian minorities.

- The Gandhi Foundation's Grammar School in Pécs recruits talented and disadvantaged Roma pupils from the primary schools in southern Trans-Danubia. This six-grade grammar school offers both languages of the Roma communities and two major foreign languages. The Beas Roma, the majority of whom reside in this region, can take a final examination in their mother tongue, which is equivalent to a national language examination.

- The Kalyi Jag Minority Vocational School recruits pupils from the inner city slums of Budapest to offer them a preparatory course for vocational training. Romany is offered and emphasis is put on both folklore and high culture. In addition, English is also taught here.

- The "colleges for the talented" are based on a similar principle but follow a different practice. A good case in point is the Collegium Martineum in Mánfa near Pécs, supported by the Roman Catholic Church and other churches abroad. The main objective is similar to that of the former people's colleges: the institution compensates for deficiencies in socialisation and family education, and pupils can attend any grammar school in the

region. Pupils living in the college attend an organised Beas language course and a foreign language course as well, which is provided by their own teachers.

- Extra-curricular and remedial programmes are offered also by the Józsefváros Tanoda (school) in Budapest, within the framework of preparatory courses preceding secondary or higher education courses. This school is located in the biggest district of Budapest, which is considered by some as a ghetto for the Roma people, and it aims to prepare disadvantaged Roma pupils for further studies. Although Romani is not taught in this school, a great emphasis is laid on strengthening ethnic identity. Currently a tailor-made English language course is being developed for Roma pupils with PHARE support.

A second alternative is offered by other model institutions which develop the intercultural paradigm by promoting joint education programmes for Roma and non-Roma youths in disadvantaged socio-cultural situations.

- The programme and practice of Hegedűs T. András Foundation School (Szolnok) is geared towards cultural cooperation between the Roma and the majority population. It is directed towards various target groups of disadvantaged Roma and non-Roma pupils. Prospective pupils are informed that Roma culture and language is an integral part of the training programmes (including symbolic actions, like singing both the Hungarian and Roma national anthems). Pupils are offered the Romany language and one foreign language. Language education is not part of the official curriculum.

- The Don Bosco Primary and Vocational School, supported by the Roman Catholic Church, operates according to similar principles. The demand for such an institution is shown by the fact that within a few years after its establishment, it started to offer vocational training courses and secondary education as well as primary education. The Roma language is not offered but pupils who participate in more academically intensive training programmes and secondary education can choose a foreign language (English and/or German).

In spite of disagreements about these models, there is a demand for both, as was borne out in the 1990s and the two can function side by side.

In addition to the above models and the ones described in the annexes, there are some other public education institutions in which attempts have been made to teach the languages of Roma. These attempts are usually undermined by the above-mentioned problems and the shortage of trained language teachers.

3.5 Foreign languages as languages of instruction in public education

3.5.1 Trends in the past 15 years

The history of bilingual education in Hungary goes back to the Middle Ages, with some interruptions. Recently, it has gained prominence, due to a growing demand for people with foreign language skills. Therefore, it has become an education policy issue to introduce foreign languages as languages of instruction. From 1987, English, French, German, Italian and Spanish have been offered as languages of instruction. The linguistic distribution of the programmes in Hungarian-foreign language (bilingual) schools was centrally planned in the 1980s, and arbitrarily sustained until the political changeover. The three Russian-language

schools that were established at the end of the 1980s, based on a political rationale, had to be closed down by 1992-93 for lack of interest, and only one Hungarian-Russian grammar school, which has been operational since 1974, was able to survive the political changeover in Budapest. (Vámos: 1998). The linguistic preferences of the public are reflected by the languages on offer: demand has suddenly soared for schools with Hungarian-German, and at the end of the 1990s Hungarian and English were mostly the languages of instruction.

Bilingual education was first provided by grammar schools. Later, technical secondary schools offering qualifications requiring language skills (tourism and catering) followed their lead. Since the political transition, primary schools promoting long-term effectiveness, followed by technical secondary schools offering technical and industrial skills have launched bilingual programmes. The increasing expansion of bilingual education is due to the following factors (beside internal motives e.g. a drive for effectiveness and multiculturalism):

- latent language policy in public education (schools generally offer only a limited range of languages);
- society's attitude towards language learning (parents do not trust traditional language teaching);
- the competition for children between schools is increasingly fierce (schools can attract children by offering higher-prestige education);
- scarcity of funds in education (local governments financing these schools are entitled to additional support when launching a bilingual program).

The network of bilingual schools was developed in the 1980s with a view to proportionate geographic distribution and giving a preference to disadvantaged areas, in line with the intentions of the Ministry of Education. The programme was affected by market forces however, which strengthened the position of professional and funding organisations, and transformed the system of bilingual schools accordingly, giving way to regional tendencies. For instance, in both the primary and secondary schools in Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén county bilingual programmes have been developed with great efforts.

Starting from a pilot project in the 80s, bilingual education has become an integral part of public education. However, providing the necessary human resources and facilities through teacher training and development for primary and secondary schools, and a regular supply of teaching aids remains problematic. The special knowledge acquired by minority pupils could not be properly integrated into the subject matter of the national competitions for secondary school pupils, and appropriately assessed in the final examination. While bilingual education has been integrated into public education; it has lost its innovative momentum in language teaching.

3.5.2 Hungarian–foreign language primary schools

The aim of bilingual primary education is to provide an opportunity for early and intensive foreign language learning within the framework of public education, and to ensure both foreign language and mother tongue development related to the courses administered. Language requirements in the foreign language are higher than the average requirements in public education as pupils are required to attain level B1 by the end of the 8th grade. Intercultural values have been included among educational aims, but according to our information the amount of such content does not exceed that of foreign language learning in general.

Twenty programmes were running in the 1999/2000 school year, which amounts to less than half of one percent of the total number of schools. Half of them were offered in Budapest, 30% in regional centres (e.g. Miskolc, Szeged), and the others in various towns, and one is maintained in one of the larger villages (Hajdúhadház). Due to various reasons, there is a growing interest in some regions in this type of education, both for providers (e.g. northern Hungary) and sponsors (e.g. France). This provides better national coverage and therefore better access to bilingual primary school education. *(Annex 34)*

Bilingual primary education is provided in English and German. Their proportions are approximately 50-50%. There is no significant difference between the contents of pedagogical programmes. There is no special educational programme for bilinguals, as schools autonomously decide on the courses to be delivered in a foreign language, depending on the language skills of their staff. Courses offered in a foreign language are the following, in the order of frequency: music, physical education, art, environmental studies, history and biology. Instruction is provided in two languages taking turns every second semester. Even in so-called foreign language phases the two languages are both used, and the Hungarian mother tongue is not only used for supporting the language of instruction but as a target language in its own right. In bilingual primary schools, foreign languages are taught for 5-6 hours a week from the 1st grade on, and bilingual education is offered in a minimum of 3 subjects (35% of all weekly lessons).

3.5.3   *Hungarian-foreign language secondary schools*

Bilingual secondary education aims to provide an intensive framework for learning a foreign language in a school that prepares for higher education studies, either by continuing with a language taken up at primary school or by taking up a new language. The requirements set for foreign language proficiency surpass the requirements that generally apply in public education, as by the end of the twelfth year pupils are required to attain the C1 level. Intercultural knowledge is also included among educational requirements, although there seems to be great differences among schools in its implementation.

Bilingual secondary education was provided in around 150 schools (15% of all secondary schools) in the 2000/01 school year. Half of them were technical secondary schools and half were grammar schools. This differs from the general public education distribution seen(64-36%). Technical secondary schools usually offer courses in tourism, catering and commerce. Most bilingual secondary schools operate in Budapest and in other regional centres.

In bilingual secondary schools, Hungarian is one of the languages of instruction while the others may be English, French, German, Italian, Russian and Spanish which are target languages of instruction. Eighty percent of learning opportunities are offered in English and German. Between 5 and 18 classes are usually offered in a foreign language, divided among an average of three subjects. In grammar schools the most frequently chosen subjects taught in a foreign language are history, geography, biology and physics, while in technical schools specialised subject are usually chosen (e.g. geography for tourism, hotel industry). In schools where the command of the target language is not a requirement for admission, a one-year preparatory programme is offered, 70-80% of which consists of language learning. The choice of the language of instruction is not determined by theories concerning the language of instruction. The interpretation of bilingualism is experience-based, therefore the functions of foreign language and mother tongue in education may widely differ from school to school. In some schools the mother tongue will be spontaneously used to support foreign language

courses, while in others Hungarian is not used for any purpose at all in the foreign language components.

3.5.4 Migrant pupils in the Hungarian public education

Children of foreigners with long-term residence permits, work permits or refugee status are legally entitled to participate in public education under the same conditions as Hungarian citizens. In the 1999/2000 school year two thirds of the foreigners in Hungary were citizens of neighbouring countries. In the last five years the number and proportion of arrivals from far-away countries has been growing but the number of persons coming from the European Union or other European countries has also been on the rise. Foreign pupils have come from various continents and from almost 70 countries, speaking at least 40 different languages, as a mother tongue[13]. The number of migrant pupils in the 1999/2000 school year was less than 8000 persons, 5-8 pupils per school on average. The proportion is largest in Budapest. There are foreigners with Hungarian as a mother tongue in the neighbouring countries. Due to the fact that only a few foreigners are admitted to the same class, their problems are not considered group problems inside the class but individual ones. Crisis situations are considered personal and not intercultural problems. *(Annexes 35-38)*

Currently there is no public education curriculum or teaching aids for teaching Hungarian as a foreign language. It is generally taught a) as an optional subject; b) in a language club; c) individually after school; d) individually at the same time as Hungarian language and literature. There are not any language preparatory grades or host classes. Hungarian is generally taught according to the mother tongue requirements and methods. Despite the absence of any tradition in this area, the low number of learners and the geographical distribution, the Ministry of Education wants to determine the requisite conditions for learning the language and culture of the host country, and for incorporating the language of the country of origin in education.

3.5.5 Foreign language schools

In Hungary, there are schools that are operated according to the regulations set by the public education systems of other states. These schools have been established in order to provide an education to their own citizens residing in Hungary which is similar to education in their home countries and, depending on their surplus capacity, provide an opportunity for Hungarian citizens or those of third countries to conduct their studies there. Some of the schools are members of international networks. These institutions are generally 12-year schools. Some of the schools where the language of instruction is a foreign language are maintained jointly by Hungary and another state, and while others have no institutional relation with the Hungarian Government. Information about the latter type is not fully reliable. In some foreign schools, there could be several languages of instruction.

---

[13]   Afghan, Albanian, English, Arabic, Azerbaijani, Bulgarian, Bosnian, Czech, Estonian, Farsi, Finnish, Flemish, French, Greek, Georgian, Hebrew, Hindi, Dutch, Croatian, Indonesian, Yiddish, Japanese, Kazakh, Chinese, Korean, Polish, Lithuanian, Mongolian, German, Italian, Russian, Armenian, Pashtu, Persian, Portuguese, Romanian, Ruthenian, Spanish, Swedish, Serbian, Slovakian, Turkish, Ukrainian, Vietnamese.

In foreign schools, teaching is conducted in the mother tongue, according to the requirements and teaching methods related to the language of instruction. Pupils with Hungarian as a mother tongue may learn Hungarian as a required or optional course for 2-6 lessons a week, provided the school has concluded a public education agreement. Foreigners can learn Hungarian as a foreign language and Hungarian culture in optional courses.

4 Foreign language education in higher education
Péter Rádai

4.1 Before 1990

In higher education the strongest motivation for learning a language remains the requirement set forth by law and Government decrees, which determines the type and level of language proficiency and language examination documents necessary for obtaining certain types of diplomas and degrees. That is the case when applicants to higher education institutions are awarded additional bonus points for their language proficiency, as confirmed by language examination certificates, when entering the system[14]. This is not a statutory requirement, but bonus points may be awarded. It is a statutory requirement, however, to award degrees to students only if they can provide as evidence of their language proficiency the necessary certificates as set forth in the relevant decrees.

After the 1990 political changeover, the Russian language has gradually lost ground, although in higher education language learning Russian as a foreign language (apart from students majoring in Russian) had never been of great importance for various reasons. Firstly, before 1990 students could apply for a waiver from learning Russian in higher education, e.g. students majoring in two foreign languages were not required to learn Russian. All the other college and university students had to learn Russian for four semesters at the beginning of their studies, and they also had to take a final examination in Russian – of questionable standard and at a level that is impossible to determine. All this amounts to the fact that the majority of college and university students were required to learn Russian for a total of ten years, including primary and secondary school studies.

The same is true for the second foreign language: students were required to learn it for four semesters and take an in-house final examination at the end of the fourth semester. Students were poorly motivated by the set of requirements and the standard of language teaching provided by the language teaching departments of higher education institutions. Students considered the learning of a foreign language as an unpleasant duty that had to be performed in order to complete their university studies successfully. At the time, the idea of lifelong learning had not yet been formally established, and it did not exist at a subconscious level either.

4.2 After 1990

Russian as a required first foreign language has lost its dominance in higher education just as in public education. However, it was replaced by other foreign languages faster and in a more flexible manner than in public education. The main problem was that the language teaching departments in higher education institutions did not have the necessary number of language teachers at their disposal. After all, the majority of them had Russian as their first foreign language, although they could also have had a second foreign language as their minor

---

[14] The rating system varies according to institutions and lacks transparency: 2-5 bonus points are added by the higher education institutions to a maximum of 120 points, if applicants present the certificate of at least an intermediate C type accredited language examination. In certain institutions the knowledge of English may be more appreciated than other languages, or it may be the only language to be taken into account. In accordance with the principle of multilingualism, students applying for language majors can only be awarded such bonus points if they hold a language certificate from another foreign language.

subject[15]. These latter were considered instant winners, because they could continue teaching their second foreign language – if they had not done so already – in a larger number of classes or they could start teaching it if they had not done so previously.

Since 1994, the raison d'etre and status of language teaching departments has been strengthened indirectly by Government measures making language examinations of certain levels and types part of the output regulations, depending on the type of training. At the same time language teachers working in foreign language teaching departments have always been at the bottom of the higher education hierarchy, and were generally held in low esteem, therefore their professional self-confidence was at a very low level. This was borne out by the measures taken during the Government's austerity programme in 1995, in the course of which most higher education institutions tried to protect their lecturers by dismissing language teachers, and closing down whole foreign language teaching departments.

Although after 1996, these departments were gradually revitalised, due to strict HR policies less than 50% of the language teachers work full-time with long-term contracts in most of the institutions. The efficiency of language teaching was gravely affected by the fact that until the end of the end of the 1980s, language teachers did not have modern textbooks, recordings, etc. at their disposal, and mostly they had to rely on their own materials, which contained illustrations and exercises of grammatical structures in 90% of the cases, and texts used did not reflect real life usage. Undoubtedly, these university textbooks were cheap. The situation has significantly improved since the beginning of the 1990s, and luckily, the language teaching departments of universities have caught up now with private language schools as regards infrastructure, teaching materials and training the trainers programs.

4.2.1 *Current trends*

This study analyses the following: the present situation of foreign language teaching provided to students with other major subjects; trends and changes in output regulations, and teaching languages for special purposes.

<u>Foreign language teaching to students with other major subjects</u>

The available statistical data indicate which languages are offered by language teaching departments in higher education institutions, but unfortunately there are no statistics which indicate the levels at which the chosen languages are being taught.

The statistical data for 2001 were the first to show the distribution of institutions, in addition to the breakdown by languages, which may be important for drawing conclusions and making recommendations. *(Annexes 39-40)*
Since education policy chose to determine the requirements related to foreign language teaching through output regulations (by various Government decrees since 1994), there is no legislation concerning the formal requirements of language teaching. Since 2000, a State Secretary's circular has been in effect, stipulating that schools shall offer free language teaching for at least four semesters to their students, the costs of which are to be paid from the per capita government subsidy paid to schools. According to a non-representative survey completed in the autumn of 2000 (Fazekas-Kárpáti: 2000), 90% of the institutions concerned met these requirements. The Ministry of Education, however, should not accept the present

---

[15]   Before 1990, students were generally obliged to have two majors in higher education institutions, which means that after graduation students had two college or university diplomas.

level of implementation at the otherwise autonomous higher education institutions. In fact, the quoted survey has already pointed out that the situation should be analysed and 100% implementation achieved by providing at least four semesters of foreign language teaching. Institutions find it more difficult to comply with the requirement of providing at least four hours per week for teaching each language, although 80% of the faculties who were contacted were able to offer at least three hours of language teaching a week.

As for the 1999-2000 and 2000-2001 school years, data are available for seven languages. All other languages come under the heading of "others".[16] Language teaching is offered only to full-time students, therefore data in the table should be compared to the total number of full-time students (1999/2000: 171,612; 2000/2001: 176,046). *(Annex 39)*

Consequently, while the number of full-time students increased by less than 3% by 2000/2001, the number of participants in institutionalised language teaching increased by at least 12%. As the requirements set by output regulations did not change significantly during the two semesters, the following conclusions can be drawn:

- Students, who had been learning a single language in a higher education institution, started to learn a second foreign language.
- Beginning from 2000, several higher education institutions managed to get accreditation for the language examination systems they have developed, so they can offer in-house examinations for their students. This also serves as a motivation for students to continue their language learning in courses offered by their universities instead of opting for external language courses offered at market prices (the language examinations accredited by the institutions will be discussed when describing the issue of teaching other foreign languages).
- In order to profit from this new opportunity, students approaching the completion of their studies scrambled to join one of the in-house language courses in order to obtain the language certificate locally as fast as possible, as this is necessary as a prerequisite for obtaining their degree.

Taking into consideration the principles set out by the Council of Europe, the distributions in the above data according to languages and institutions seem even more important. It is obvious that English and German take the leading role but students may choose from four other modern foreign languages[17], and they do so in a relatively high numbers. With the exception of the Russian language, at least 1.5-2.5% of full-time students were learning a foreign language in 2001. Data should be interpreted in the light of the fact that the dominance of English and German at secondary school will also be maintained in higher education but to a lesser extent (approximately 80% of the students learn English and/or German). This may be considered understandable as the majority of students who have passed a language examination, before admission to a higher education institution, have done so in either English or German. Another explanation for the continuous presence of English and German could be that in economic, commercial and technical training most vocationally oriented language courses are offered in English and German.

---

[16] For the distribution of languages, see the Statistic Information of the Ministry of Education (1999/2000, p. 30; 2000/2001, pp. 57-58).

[17] Latin falls in a different category, as it is a statutory foreign language in the case of various types of training and subjects (medical training, history, archaeology, divinity, Romance languages, etc.). Therefore, the number of Latin learners is relatively high.

The above-mentioned survey conducted by the Ministry of Education in November 2000, produced some data that differ from the above: approximately 90% of students learn English and German, and this survey gives a higher number than the "Statisztikai Tájékoztató" (Statistical Information) for language learners choosing Romance languages or Russian (Russian: 4.8% and French: 8%). According to the survey, international and European trends are stronger than the efforts of institutions trying to persuade language learners to opt for "minor languages"[18]. This trend cannot be reversed in the near future unless the motivation of students is affected by some external factors.

Coming back to the so-called "less widely used languages", the rate of increase of learners of the three most important Romance languages has exceeded the increase of the total number of students. The most probable explanation is that there was growing demand for certain training programmes for popular professions at the beginning of the 21st century. This is borne out by the Statistical Information booklet of 2000/2001 stating that French, Italian and Spanish are almost solely taught at the universities of arts and sciences (in greater numbers only at the Szeged University) and at higher education institutions with economic and technical profiles, where several hundred students learn such languages in each institution. *(Annex 40)*

Considering that the knowledge of a foreign language (mostly English or German), or a language examination, is a prerequisite for admission to higher education institutions, it follows that students will be required to learn another language, attain a higher level in the chosen foreign language or add a specialized language competence. The choice of languages offered can be influenced by the foreign relations or orientation of universities or colleges.

The above-mentioned institutions with economic and technical profiles are ranking high among the institutions where foreign languages are learned by a relatively great number of students. Although there are no statistics on this issue, based on our data it can be stated that the most commonly taught languages are the Portuguese, Scandinavian languages, Arabic and Japanese. The growing role of Romance languages in some of the institutions offering economics or technical training has been partly due to the fact that the first three institutions in the above table became accredited examination centres in 2000 or 2001, so they can organise accredited in-house language examinations and issue certificates. This activity had an impact on language teaching in other higher education institutions, as accredited language examination centres in 14 other institutions offer the set of language examinations accredited by the Budapest Business College, they offer the opportunity to prepare for and take a language examination in the institutions.

It is interesting to note that among the institutions teaching "other" languages the following are ranking high: the Budapest Semmelweis University (493 students, especially medical students) and two colleges of divinity: the Szeged College of Divinity (240) and the Sárospatak Academy of Protestant Theology (224 students). In addition to Latin, another classical language, ancient Greek is also given preference here and is a required language for most of the students.

The choice of languages offered by language teaching departments of the different universities is naturally dependent on the language teachers available. Even if many languages are offered, they can't be expected to offer the same number of languages as the language departments at the faculties of humanities. On the other hand, even though

---

[18]   Based on Hungarian language learning preferences French, Italian and Spanish fall in the category of *less frequently taught* languages.

statistics[19] suggest that a total of 28 languages[20], were taught in the 1999/2000 academic year, there is no institution where all these languages could be offered at the same time. However, it seems rather reassuring that according to data from the Fazekas-Kárpáti survey (2002), three or more languages are taught at the language teaching departments of almost 80% of higher education institutions, and more than 20% offer six or even more languages.

4.2.2 Output requirements

Before discussing output requirements, input should be examined. The survey of Fazekas-Kárpáti (2000) shows the rate of students holding a state language certificate before enrolling to the first year in the selected faculties between 1997 and 1999. *(Annex 41)*

Except for the rate of students with language certificates, no statistically useable data are available concerning the foreign language proficiency of students on enrolment. The above data shows that approximately 15-16% of students have an intermediate C type language certificate (C type means taking both oral and written examination), which is the minimum requirement on enrolment. This is a very low proportion if we take into account that the majority of examinees at various language examination centres are secondary school students, and those who pass successfully may get bonus points when applying for admittance to most of the higher education institutions.

As pointed out earlier no output requirements had been drafted in higher education before the mid-1990s. In 1994, for the first time, both the type of language examination and the level of proficiency have been set in the training requirements for primary school teachers, nursery teachers and conductors, and they became prerequisites for getting a diploma[21]. The other haphazardly adopted regulations show a lack of comprehensive regulation and overall strategy, while the delayed introduction of accredited language examinations on the market has aggravated the situation.

According to 2002 requirements, language proficiency requirements have been set for each form of training, major subject and specification, and in most of the cases, an intermediate C type certificate is generally the prerequisite for taking a final examination. Business type training forms show a marked difference in this respect: most of them require two intermediate C type certificates of vocationally oriented language skills. Such examinations are offered by the Budapest Business College and the Budapest University of Economics and State Administration, and at approximately 20 accredited examination centres maintained by the latter two institutions, where thousands of students are able to take these examinations at their own schools. Due to the wider range of requirements, it is not surprising that the Fazekas-Kárpáti survey (2002) has come to the conclusion that "the linguistic output of training requirements shows a chaotic picture in all respects".

---

[19] Although Hebrew studies are offered in many institutions, the Hebrew language is not included in the list. Nevertheless, Hebrew language courses offered by the Hungarian Rabbi Training and Jewish University are not included as language majors in statistics, therefore, the number 118 falls in the "others" category for this institution.

[20] English, Arabic, Bulgarian, Czech, Esperanto, Estonian, Finnish, Finno-Ugrian, French, Greek, Croatian, Japanese, Chinese, Latin, Polish, Mongolian, German, Ancient Greek, Italian, Russian, Portuguese, Romanian, Spanish, Serbian, Slovakian, Slovenian, Turkish, Ukrainian.

[21] It should be noted that two forms of training in this category – minority primary school and nursery school teacher training – do not require a language examination. In the case of all other training forms a language certificate is a prerequisite of graduation.

4.2.3   *Vocationally oriented language education*

<u>Teaching languages for special purposes</u>

Specialized foreign languages were already being offered in the 1980s in several higher education institutions especially those with business, technical, medical and legal courses. According to experts, by the 1990s the language proficiency of applicants had improved, and it became possible to put more emphasis on the languages of various professions. Therefore, more institutions offered more specialized languages than before. In the Fazekas-Kárpáti survey (2002) published by the Ministry of Education, 27 participant faculties stated that one third of the teaching activity in language teaching departments was geared towards vocationally oriented language teaching. In the current situation the 2/3–1/3 distribution is justified, although as input requirements are expected to become stricter in the future, more emphasis could be put on specialized languages in language teaching.

<u>Training forms in a foreign language</u>

Training forms falling into this category were introduced at the beginning of the 1980s, with the objective of recruiting foreign students who would pay in foreign currency. The situation has changed completely, as a wide range of programmes are offered in various fields and languages both to Hungarian and foreign students. The introduction of foreign language teaching was a milestone in the process of ensuring the equivalence of diplomas, because from that time on requirements, contents, means and processes of assessment, etc. could be easily compared to those used abroad (Kurtán: 2002).

Similarly, at the beginning of this process, courses in foreign languages were offered by institutions with technical, economic and medical training. Although courses are mostly provided in English, as this is the most in demand by foreigners and, therefore, such courses are the most marketable, courses in German and French were also offered. These courses can also be categorized according to target groups. They fall into one of the following three categories:
- Foreign-language training provided only for Hungarian students (either state-funded or fee-paying);
- Foreign-language training provided only for foreign students (fee-paying);
- Foreign-language training provided both for Hungarian and foreign students (mostly fee-paying).

4.3   Teaching Hungarian in higher education

Before 1990, in teacher training (independent from subjects) students were required to attend a training course on correct Hungarian usage on an ongoing basis. This requirement has been abolished and students (the intellectuals of the future) rarely have the opportunity to attend such communication practice in their mother tongue in order to prepare for their future profession. Their communicative competence is now developed on an ad hoc basis.

Foreign students who wish to study in a Hungarian higher education institution are first provided with an intensive preparatory language course at the Balassi Bálint Hungarian Language Institute, and then they may continue learning Hungarian as a foreign language in the higher education institution of their choice.

Due to the growing number of ERASMUS scholarships, an increasing number of institutions also offer Hungarian as a foreign language to foreign students who pursue short-term studies in the country.

5 Adult language education
Zoltán Poór

5.1 Activities of language schools

Service providers offering language courses for adults are present everywhere in Hungary. From the total of around 500 language schools, 220 are located in Budapest, but only a few of these institutions (64, of which 30 in Budapest) are members of the Professional Association of Language Schools (NyeSzE), which offers guarantees for the quality of work done by its members, as a result of an accreditation process. There are 17 accredited language schools in Budapest and 4 in the countryside.

Most language schools draw up their curricula according to the criteria of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching and Assessment, because most of their students will try to pass an accredited language examination with the levels of competence set down in the Common Framework of Reference. The institutions providing language courses elaborate their methodology according to the pedagogical principles of adult education. Besides motivation, their teaching activities are focussed on development monitoring, feedback and self-assessment, i.e. they are centred on student autonomy.

5.2 Teaching Hungarian as a foreign language for adults

The majority of foreigners living and working in Hungary take Hungarian language lessons from private tutors, but in the capital and in larger cities an increasing number of language schools offer courses in Hungarian as a foreign language and advertise their activities on the international language education market. There is even some language learning tourism especially in the summer months.
The Balassi Bálint Hungarian Language Institute plays the most important role in this respect, since it supports and coordinates institutionalised Hungarian language education abroad, the activities of Hungarian assistants in foreign universities and university courses in Hungarian studies. The Debrecen Summer University, which has been operating successfully for 75 years, offers language and methodology training for teachers of Hungarian working abroad and offers Hungarian language courses for foreigners at all levels of competence. Hungarian language courses for foreigners have also been offered by the University of Pécs in the past couple of years. Other successful educational workshops in Hungarian as a foreign language have been offered by the Budapest Technical University, the Budapest University of Economics and Administration, the Eötvös Lóránd University of Sciences, the Szeged University of Sciences and approximately 15 private language schools, 4 of which have been accredited by NyeSzE.

6 Results in language education
Zsuzsánna Darabos– Zsuzsanna Horváth - Ágnes Vámos

6.1 Functional indices of performance in public education

Based on the new regulations concerning the content of the programmes, a growing number of schools have included the assessment of progress in their local curriculum. The frequency, content and form of assessment set down in the teaching programme may differ according to institutions.

6.1.1 Competitions in Academic Subjects

Competitions at school, local or national level have long traditions in Hungarian public education. Although the main objective of such competitions is scouting for talent, good results contribute to the professional prestige of schools educating prominent pupils.

National Competition for Primary School Pupils (OÁTV)

The prestige of a field of study will increase if a national competition is held. Naturally, Russian was the first foreign-language in which a competition has been held for primary school pupils. It was followed by French (1987), German (1988) and English (1990) language competitions for 7-8th grade pupils attending primary schools with foreign language teaching. In the 1992/93 school year, a separate competition was held for pupils learning a language for less than 3 hours a week. Since the 2001/2002 school year, the Ministry of Education has appointed the pedagogical institutes of certain counties, as a result of an open competition, to organise national competitions for primary school pupils in one of the languages (e.g. Veszprém: English; Jász-Nagykun-Szolnok: German; Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg: French; Hajdú-Bihar: Russian).

National Competition for Secondary School Pupils (OKTV)

For more than eighty years the OKTV has formed an integral part of Hungarian public education. The finalists in the competition get exemption from taking a final examination in the given subject, are awarded top grades, and they are admitted to several higher education institutions without having to take an entrance examination. The competition could become even more prestigious if it was accepted as equivalent to an accredited language examination. The introduction of the two-tier final examination will make this possible.

The competitions consist of two or three rounds, encompassing all linguistic competences. The first round consists of written tests, while in the second and third round pupils are given oral tests as well. The proportion of the oral tests increases in each round. The tests are devised and revised by committees. Although the tests are not standardised, their level of difficulty is between A2 and B2, according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching and Assessment, and in the case of major languages, the required level may even be higher.

The first data were gathered during the school year when Russian was abolished as a compulsory language. Although the number of learners of English was significantly higher than those learning Russian, the structure of the competition followed the traditional form.

There were three categories set for learners of Russian, depending on the number of classes per week. In the case of three other languages, two categories were set up for pupils who had previously learned English, German and French in the primary school at intensive courses and for those who learned these languages in secondary school at regular or intensive courses. While Russian was mostly taught at intensive courses, English, German and French was learned by most pupils in regular classes. *(Annex 42)*

Four years later, only two kinds of competition were held in Russian. The number of learners increased significantly in all languages except for Russian, where it fell to a quarter of the previous figure and the majority of the learners attended regular courses by this time. In English, there was a marked increase in the number of pupils taking intensive courses. In German, there was an even more significant rise in the number of learners at intensive courses, while a decline could be seen in those attending regular classes. A similar trend could be observed in French, where the number of pupils at intensive courses showed a more significant rise. *(Annex 42)*

Since the 1995/96 school year, learners of Italian could also compete in two categories. The ratio between categories remained the same as in the previous year in German and Russian. The number of competitors studying at regular courses fell, whereas the number of those who studied at intensive courses increased. The proportion remained more balanced in the case of French. *(Annex 42)*

In the 1997/98 school year, Russian continued to loose ground, while English, German and Spanish gained in importance, French and Italian was stagnating, and Latin was declining. Classification according to categories was no longer possible in the case of English. Due to the restructuring of English teaching, no universal criteria could be applied (years of language learning, hours/week, requirements set by the curriculum, etc.). Experience shows that the divide between curricular and extracurricular language learning became blurred. It is regrettable that German was taught less intensively then before. From this year on, minority languages have also been included in the national competition. *(Annexes 42-43)*

The last two sets of data indicate a trend of fewer classes in German, French and Italian. Although English retained its leading position, it has not grown significantly in popularity as compared to German. The rest of the languages, except for Russian and Latin, maintained their position. The fact that the number of beginners had not decreased shows that the conditions required for high--quality language teaching continued to be provided. *(Annex 42)*

In the past few years it has also been possible to participate at the competition in philosophy in a foreign language. This could provide an excellent opportunity for bilingual schools. Regrettably, this possibility has not yet been used by the schools concerned, either in philosophy or in any other subject.

Pupils studying in bilingual schools have not been able participate in a competition similar to the OKTV yet. For learners of French who are to participate in the latter competition, the Kölcsey Ferenc Grammar School in Budapest organises a national competition, the written part of which is held simultaneously at the schools and contains the same tests as the second round of the OKTV competition. The oral part of the examination is held after the OKTV, with the participation of some of the board members at OKTV. A great benefit of the competition is that once a year language proficiency attained at different schools can be assessed and compared on the basis of an external examination, and the performance of schools can be assessed against the

national language examination standards. This initiative could serve as a model for other languages as well.

6.1.2 Final examination

The current system of the written part of final examinations is expected to change in 2005. Until last year, the drafting of the written tests for the final examination had been the responsibility of Kiss Árpád Public Education Institute (KÁOKSZI) and the National Vocational Training Institute. Since 2001-02 all written tests for the final examinations – seven versions for each language – have been prepared by KÁOKSZI.
There are three different types of tests for each foreign language:
- Target language tests (translation into and from a foreign language and essay writing with the possible use of a dictionary, allotted time: 240 minutes);
- Special tests (test and essay, 90+90 minutes, without a dictionary);
- The so-called core curriculum tests (test without dictionary, translation into Hungarian with dictionary, 90+90 minutes), of which there would be several versions as the dates of final examination in foreign languages vary according to the type of school.

The series of tests are developed by committees, without conducting pilot tests or providing keys. The teachers correct and assess the performances according to the received guidelines for correction and the grades awarded have to be approved by the chairman of the examination board. The types of tests vary from year to year and from language to language, in accordance with changes introduced in the curriculum (communicative language use, text-based competences). The experts devising the tests have no feedback whatsoever about the results of the written part of the final examination.

The comparison of two years' data suggests a few conclusions. Among foreign languages, Russian is lagging behind. The number of pupils taking the final examination according to the special curriculum has decreased in all languages. The number of pupils choosing English as a final examination subject at secondary technical schools has been on the rise. The number of pupils taking the final examination, according to the curriculum devised within the framework of vocational training-development programme supported by the World Bank, has increased in all languages, except for Italian and Spanish. An especially steep rise has been seen in the case of English.

The range of language examinations offered do not always correspond to the choice of languages offered at schools, as pupils who have passed the end-of-year examinations in a given language may take a final examination in that language. *(Annex 44)*

Data should be assessed in the light of the following:

- The number of pupils who are exempt from language learning, and therefore not obliged to take a final examination in a foreign language;

- The number of pupils exempt from the final examination in a foreign language because they have passed a language examination or they have been among the finalists of the National Competition for Secondary School Pupils.

Unfortunately, there is no data available concerning the number of pupils taking a final examination in more than one foreign language.

A new final examination system will be introduced in 2005, according to which students will be tested in five subjects: Hungarian language and literature, a foreign language, history, mathematics and an elective subject. Pupils will be able to take the final exam at either ordinary or advanced level. Since the new final examination will also serve as an entrance examination to higher education institutions, the applicants will be able to decide on the level and content of their examination, in accordance with the entry requirements of the chosen university or college.

At the final examination in a foreign language, the communicative competence of the applicants will be assessed, with respect to oral and written skills, according to the A2 or B1 levels of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages on intermediate level and according to B2 on advanced level.

6.1.3   Other indicators of performance

The results of entrance examinations and the popular national competitions serve as useful indicators for the comparative assessment of secondary schools. It should be kept in mind, however, that indicators of efficiency, being output indicators, can show only certain correlations, therefore, social and educational achievement of admitted pupils (input indicators) should also be taken into account for a more accurate analysis. The calculation of so-called "added value" involves several theoretical and methodological problems.

According to a survey (Neuwirth: 2003) the most closely interrelated indices of performance are the following:
- Family background and preparedness indicators (input data): average grades at primary school; education of the parents; the rate of unemployment among parents;
- performance indicators (output data): rate of admittance at entrance tests, language examinations and written tests.

After processing the data of several years (1991-2001), the following conclusions were drawn about the efficiency of language education at secondary schools:
- The number of applicants to entrance tests, who had previously passed language examinations, considerably increased over the eleven year period. Although in 1991 only every third applicant had a language certificate, now every second applicant has one. However, students holding more than 90% of these language certificates come from only 29% of the schools. From 71% of schools (703 secondary schools) applicants had a total of 17,394 language certificates, which means that only every 8th or 9th student from the total of 151,039 students had a language certificate. In about 30% of the schools only every 11th student had a language certificate.
- The number of language examinations is highest in the capital and the lowest in towns with 10-15,000 inhabitants.
- The number of language examinations is highest in Győr-Sopron-Moson county and lowest in Somogy county,
- The number of language certificate holders is highest in state funded schools, followed by religious schools and it is lowest in schools of local governments and foundations.
- Between 1992-2001, 78.4% of language certificates were acquired in grammar schools, 11.5% in mixed type secondary schools, 8.1% in technical secondary schools and 2% in secondary schools specialised in arts.
- The number of language certificate holders depends on the levels of education of the parents.

6.2 Language examinations

On the 1st of January 2000 a Government decree entered into force[22], according to which several language examination centres may apply for accreditation for their elementary, intermediate and advanced level language examinations, the levels of which correspond to those defined by the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching and Assessment[23]. Initially, accreditation was provided for the most commonly taught languages in Hungary. Once the decree entered into force, the Ministry of Education provided funding for establishing officially approved language examinations in Bulgarian, Croatian, Polish, Roma (Beas and Romany), German, Romanian, Serbian, Slovakian and Slovenian. The set of requirements is being developed and accreditation of examination centres for Modern Greek, Ruthenian and Armenian languages is under way. Although the majority of examination centres are located in Budapest, since the beginning of 2002 several other language centres have opened all over the country in order to enable learners to take examinations in the most commonly taught and learnt languages and the minority languages spoken in their regions.

According to the statistics of the Language Examination Accreditation Board, in 2002 157,294 persons passed language examinations in 25 languages in 278 examination locations of 19 accredited examination centres. *(Annex 45)* The majority of these people passed the examination in English (58.7%) and German (31.2%). The numbers of examinees in Esperanto, French, Lovari (Romany) and Italian languages are below 3%. None of the other 19 languages reaches 1%. *(Annex 46)* Ninety percent of the examinees passed the general examination and the rest passed the examination in specialized languages. *(Annex 47)* Twenty three percent of the examinees applied for elementary level examinations, 71.7% for intermediate and 5.6% for advanced levels. *(Annex 48)*

6.3 Hungarian and international surveys and diagnoses about Hungary

6.3.1 *Hungarian language*

In 1996, some surveys were conducted by the Centre for Assessment and Final Examination of the National Public Education institute among young adults who have completed secondary education (19-29 years), teachers and employers, in order to find out how often they carry out certain linguistic activities (speech, comprehension, reading writing), how they assess their communication skills, and how far they were satisfied with their reading comprehension, writing and speaking skills and listening comprehension of public speaking. The survey was aiming to explore how the Hungarian public saw acts of communication in terms of: knowledge, frequency and importance. Findings show that oral skills were considered important by the participants, and in some cases, they considered it more important than writing skills.

The survey also showed that communication in public was rather problematic for secondary school graduates, teachers, and employers i.e. the appropriate understanding and presentation of formal written communications in situations where the quality of the communication was considered important (e.g. proposals, applications). Due to the difficulties of understanding formal and official speech the public is often not properly informed, and therefore the

---

[22] Government Decree 71/1998 (IV.8.)
[23] Elementary level corresponds to B1, intermediate level to B2-C1 and advanced level to C1-C-2 levels.

citizens' need for information are not fulfilled. The participants usually found it difficult to grasp conflicting views, positions, either in writing or in oral expression. They mostly thought that their comprehension difficulties and their success in public life were undermined mostly by their lack of competence.

Within the group of secondary school leavers, this was also coupled with the need to participate in education. Apparently, informal conversations carried on with friends and family members, or during recreational activities done individually or in groups, played an important role in releasing the tensions of everyday life. On the other hand, electronic media and communication restricted to short text massages and instructions play a more important role today. Apparently, secondary school graduates are experiencing great difficulties in writing, even at the level of words and expressions. The lack of writing skills hampers full understanding of texts, and reduces the frequency and the number of initiatives in written communication.

Since the 1986, Monitor surveys have been carried out regularly, based on a representative samples, to assess comprehension, mathematical problem solving abilities and information technology literacy of different age groups. There are great differences in the comprehension of Hungarian language texts, depending on the size of the community where the given school is located and the socio-cultural background of the participants.

6.3.2 The OECD–PISA 2000 survey on schooling outcomes

The OECD–PISA programme is an assessment of school performance among 15-16 year old pupils with the aim of assessing their cultural literacy every three years. Instead of factual knowledge, it assesses cultural skills that are necessary on the labour market and for daily life in the 21st century, and is independent from the level of education and country. PISA analyses the results against international standards, which help to determine the participants' problem solving abilities at different levels. Main areas of the survey:

- Skills and abilities: reading and text comprehension, mathematical literacy, science literacy, information technology literacy and skills;
- Self-assessment by pupils;
- Learning skills and habits.

The central subject of the PISA 2000 survey was the acquisition of written information and the speed of information processing, i.e. reading literacy. The survey also focused on mathematical and science literacy, learning strategies of students (e.g. cooperative versus competitive learning, control strategies, memory, elaboration), self-assessment of pupils about their abilities, interests, reading and learning habits, library and computer use, homework preparation, relationships with teachers and schools, and satisfaction with the spirit of the school.

The number of pupils in the highest performance zone (5th level) in Hungary is only half of that in an average OECD country. There are twice as many pupils who have reading difficulties or who are functionally illiterate (reading skills at 1st level or below) than in an average OECD country. The average is almost four times higher in the best OECD country.

6.3.3 *Foreign language*

In 2000 a national representative performance assessment survey was carried out in respect of English and German education in the 5th, 9th and 12th grades with the objective of identifying factors that exert an impact on the efficiency of language learning. (Csapó and Nikolov: 2002). The survey concluded the following:

- girls achieved better results in written tasks than boys;
- early childhood language education has an impact during the second half of primary education, and foreign language education started in the second half of primary education has an impact in secondary school;
- self-assessment and the intention to enter higher education are closely related to language education results.

6.4 Development

6.4.1 *National competence assessment with the aim of improving competence levels*

In 2001 a national competence assessment was carried out in the 1st, 5th and 9th grades in order to improve the situation reflected in the relevant surveys. This was a unique opportunity, even on an international level, to assess Hungarian public education and develop comprehension. The assessment was justified by the following:

- comprehension problems, which had worsened in recent decades (see: IEA and Monitor surveys);
- the widening gap between schools in respect of basic competences;
- a new approach reflected by the curriculum, which is development-oriented and based on student activity;
- supporting schools with standard elements;
- concentrating on cross-subject comprehension exercises in 5-12th grades in line with the principle of "learning to learn" in order to avoid failure at school;
- development of the teachers' knowledge of assessment;
- development based of professional diagnoses;
- expansion of secondary education taking into consideration that secondary school pupils have different levels of education and socio-cultural environments;
- identification of pupils with comprehension problems and their development.

6.4.2 *Final examinations*

The development of final examinations has been going on for several years now and many experts and experienced teachers have been involved in the process. This project has taken into account: trends in international (especially European) examination practices; performance criteria and results of Hungarian and international surveys (Monitor, IEA, TIMSS); increased and changing social needs for secondary education; changes in the interpretation of general knowledge; and new requirements in higher education and in the labour market.

The demand for applied knowledge and problem-solving skills, reflected by the new types of final examination tests, is a radical change from previous practice. The new system of examinations makes it possible to use current specific examples in the series of tasks having a fixed structure. Therefore, the final examination requires not only the reproduction of

previously learned knowledge, but also its application in new situations. That is why, beside specific tasks, competences will be given much greater emphasis than in the past.

The new final examination system has two-tiers, so the examinees may decide themselves whether they want to pass the ordinary or advanced level, which are both standardized and independent from school types.

The final examination system to be introduced in 2005 has two main objectives: on the one hand it concludes studies in public education as an output assessment and, on the other hand, an advanced level final examination is equivalent to an entrance examination to a higher education institution. During the exercise of these functions it influences public education and enhances the development of skills.

Required subjects at the final examination: Hungarian language and literature, history, mathematics, and one foreign language.

The procedure of the intermediate foreign language final examination will be similar to the practice in recent years. The test sheets and the correction guidelines are prepared centrally; the completed sheets are corrected and assessed by the teacher of a given pupil according to the correction guidelines. The listening comprehension exercise, which is part of the written examination, is a novelty. In accordance with the relevant Ministerial Decree, teachers are still responsible for the design of oral exercises and for the assessment of the results based on prescribed criteria.

Two independent persons are responsible for the assessment of the centrally issued advanced test sheets completed in schools, whereas the oral part takes place in front of an independent, centrally appointed examination board.

Successful foreign language final examinations at both levels have two conditions:
- an average performance of 20%,
- at least 10% performance in each part of the examination: reading comprehension, correct language usage, listening comprehension, written and oral communication.

The minimum requirement for the highest grade is 80% at intermediate and 60% at advanced level.

After 2005 national language certificate holders will not be exempt from taking a final examination in a foreign language, on the other hand, achieving 40% or more at an advanced level final examination will be equivalent to an accredited language certificate:

- between 40%-59% an elementary C type certificate;

- above 60% an intermediate C type language certificate will be awarded.

6.4.3   European Language Portfolio

The European Language Portfolio aims to increase language-learning motivation. Following initial tests conducted in Hungary (1999-2001) the Ministry of Education recommended the introduction of three versions of the Protocol, previously accredited by the Council of Europe, from the 2002 school year. The recommendation is supported by the fact that from the 2003-2004 school year the Portfolio has been included in the official list of teaching aids. Central and regional demonstrations have been organised to promote the Portfolio with a focus on foreign and minority languages. From the 2003-2004 school year, a school monitoring network helps the modelling of its use in practice.

6.5   Language competence of adults

According to surveys concerning levels of competence, sociology of reading, and the consumption of mass communication products, a great number of people hardly ever participate in communication where the information is coded in writing after finishing school. In 1996, Tamás Terestyéni did some research into this problem. A representative survey based on questionnaires was conducted with a sample of 1000 persons at least 18 years old, classified by sex, age, schooling and place of residence..

The need for information processing in the course of work, such as reading, writing, arithmetics, drawing, which are beyond oral interaction, is an important indicator of the communication culture. The survey showed that the majority of persons above 18 (approximately 75%) never or hardly ever read, 47% read at least one printed matter (news paper) on a regular basis, 44% of them do not write any private letters at all. In general, the higher the age and/or lower the schooling the less people read or write in their private lives, 44% of those asked do not use any of the communication skills in the course of their work, 26% only rarely rely on one of those skills and 30% quite often. Reading, and especially writing, is much less frequently needed in the course of work than arithmetic and handling visual information.

In conclusion, it could be stated that functional illiteracy in Hungary is a socio-cultural problem, which is a threat to large groups of the population. A deep and ever widening gap could open within the society between those who can keep up with the requirements of new information and communication needs and those who are left behind. If we compare this with previous findings, the conclusion can be drawn that the phenomenon of illiteracy will not go away over time and such problems will only reproduce themselves. (Glatz: 1999)

In 1999, an international adult literacy survey (IALS) was carried out among persons between 15-65 years, which showed that there are four factors affecting the abilities of adults following the initial phase of education and training:
- Education has a decisive influence on the person's participation in the labour market and especially on the prestige of his or her occupation.
- Depending on how far certain skills related to education are needed at the workplace this could promote or undermine the process of getting educated, due to differences in the employment structure and labour organisation.
- The extent of participation in adult education will also have an impact on the acquisition, maintenance or loss of abilities.
- Differences in social expectations concerning the use of skills related to literacy may either strengthen or undermine the acquisition and maintenance of education.

From the international survey, it is clearly shown that text comprehension skills of both the 15 year old age group and the adult Hungarian population are equally poor, not only compared to other countries or to the requirements set by the curriculum in Hungary but, which is even more important, also from the point of view of efficient participation in the modern distribution of labour.

The results of Hungarian degree holders show that increasing the duration of schooling in itself would not significantly improve the present situation, unless it is coupled with better learning skills and self-education to adjust to later needs. It is an important educational goal

held by many governments that schools have to prepare their students for the continuous development and enhancement of their knowledge, independent from the career they choose or the time and level of their primary education.

7 Language use of the deaf: sign language in Hungary
Zoltán Poór

According to the latest census, 43,475 deaf persons live in Hungary. Most of them use Hungarian sign language. Sign language is the natural language of the deaf, and it plays a central role in the life of the deaf community: it determines their way of thinking, their identity and serves as a foundation of their culture.

In the last two decades doctors and teachers of children with special needs believed that deafness was an illness and they tried to heal it. In the last 50 years the education of children with special needs has considered hearing disability a condition, which can be improved at an early stage or compensated with various aids and therapies. The main objective in the case of deaf children has always been the acquisition of written and spoken Hungarian language competence.

In 90% of cases deafness is not hereditary; therefore, deaf families are relatively rare where language competence (sign language competence) could be handed down from one generation to the other. Consequently, very few deaf persons realize that due to their disability they can acquire cultural values that should be developed and preserved for future generations. This is the reason why it is especially important to teach deaf children their own language and to share with them information about their culture at schools.

Beginning school is a turning point for deaf children with hearing families. At primary school they are taught both spoken and sign language simultaneously, but the methods of instruction are radically different in both cases. Although spoken language is taught during special classes in an intensive way for 10 years, sign language is only acquired informally, meaning that children from deaf families teach others during the breaks. Education is centred on learning to speak and hear, and the language of instruction of the subjects is the spoken Hungarian language.

In Hungarian public education sign language is not an obligatory subject even for the deaf, but it is offered as an optional subject in 7th and 8th grades. However, by that time the majority of the children have mastered the sign language in the deaf community.

Several Hungarian institutions and organisations offer training for sign language interpreters who can facilitate the communication between the hearing and deaf communities.

8   Teacher training, teacher supply
Zoltán Poór – Péter Rádai

8.1   Language teacher training

8.1.1   Before 1990

The model of language teacher training before 1990 was similar to most western European models. Language teachers received a philology-oriented training at universities and colleges. The underlying idea was to teach them everything about the target language and the related culture or cultures. Irrespective of subjects, the title of the course always included the words "language and literature", and the teacher training qualification was only and exclusively documented in the degree: "secondary school/ primary school teacher with the subject of x language and literature". In practice, it meant that the teacher-training element of the training programme became obvious for the student in the 3-4th academic year, when the teacher training courses began. The fundamental differences between the college and university courses were the following:

- In the colleges the teacher-training element was taken for granted from the start even though such courses were offered from the third year of the four-year training, following four semesters of courses in language and culture, and especially philological studies.

- Universities relied on philological studies even more heavily, and students were offered teacher training and methodological studies from the 7th semester or even the 8th semester, once they had decided whether they wanted to become a philologist or a language teacher, without any previous knowledge or preparation.

8.1.2   After 1990

From the point of view of language teacher training, the 1990s are a real success story. Three national programmes were launched, two of which were served explicitly quality objectives. In 1990, Russian ceased to be the first foreign language and, with this move, decision-makers of the Government and professional bodies set the objective of providing training and employment in public education to increase the number of teachers of English and German in the following ten years to 15 and 10 thousand respectively. The success of the programme does not mean that the target numbers have been achieved, it is a great achievement however that innovative structures and programmes for teacher training and development have been introduced, which have been internationally recognized by the profession.

The retraining the teachers of Russian

As the Russian language was loosing ground, thousands of Russian teachers became redundant in public and higher education. Although almost all of them had teacher training in another subject, if their second subject was not another foreign language the institutions concerned were not able to employ them any longer, as the schools needed language teachers urgently, but supply was lagging behind demand in the labour market. Therefore, one of the large-scale programmes launched in 1990 aimed to retrain Russian language teachers. This retraining programme was not the only one in the former satellite states of the Soviet Union;

similar training programmes became necessary everywhere where Russian used to be a compulsory foreign language.

This programme provided retraining for 5000 Russian language teachers between 1990-96, the majority of whom earned a three-year college diploma in English or German. In spite of the impressive number of retrained language teachers, the programme has provoked a lot of criticism. As the programme was centrally funded, all higher education institutions were encouraged to participate in the retraining programme and draft their own curricula and teaching material. At the same time, there was no professional coordination between the institutions; each college and university designed its programme according to its own ideas.

In conclusion, it should be pointed out that the retraining programme of Russian language teachers has been successful from the point of view of quantity. At the same time it also helped to avoid a grave crisis in the labour market, as thousands of teachers would otherwise have become unemployed without the retraining program, thus increasing the already high rate of unemployment in Hungary. The results achieved are less convincing from a professional point of view, but it must be admitted that thousands of trained language teachers became involved in a long-term retraining and educational development process, the main beneficiaries of which will always be the current language learners.

Three-year training programmes for language teachers

Another large-scale programme, running from 1990 to the first half of 2000, offered a three-year, relatively fast training programme for language teachers, with the intention of easing the shortage of language teachers within ten years. This was the first initiative in teacher training, which was left to be devised by experts on language teaching. With the launching of the three-year programmes in colleges and universities a new first-degree course has come into existence. The institutions concerned began a previously unprecedented cooperation, and they managed to integrate each other's professional achievements and findings into their own programmes in a short time. This cooperation was launched and maintained by the national cultural institutes[24], which had gradually withdrawn from programme financing when they saw that the new training programmes could become self-sufficient from a professional point of view.

Although explicit targets as to the number of language teachers were reached in the course of years, public education has primarily benefited from the three-year programmes from the point of view of quality. Relatively early, it was discovered that this flexible training form had become an internationally recognised area of professional innovation[25]. The following list describes the most important elements of the innovative character of the training, which are all the more important because they had an irreversible effect on the current trends in language teacher training, even if this is not always recognised by the philological, academic elite of the profession:

---

[24] Four institutes have been conducting activities in Hungary in the past decades (Alliance Française, British Council, Goethe Institut and Instituto Italiano).

[25] One example of international recognition: The Heinemann Publisher Company (Oxford) asked the Training Centre for English Teachers at the Faculty of Humanities of ELTE University to prepare a case study on its own teaching experience: Medgyes, P. – A., Malderez. (eds) (1996) *Changing Perspectives in Teacher Education*. Oxford: Heinemann. This work is still unique in international publishing.

- *Specialised teaching methodology:* the methodology of language teaching has gained more importance than ever before in each institution. A total of 40-60% of the full training programme is made up by courses on language teaching or classroom activities, which could vary to some extent from one institution to the other.

- *Teaching practice:* Teaching practice was given the attention it deserved, as the institutions followed the principle that teaching can be learnt if the trainee has the necessary professional skills; and is provided with ample opportunities to gain the essential experience, confidence and practice; receives the necessary professional and personal support in order to stay in the teaching profession. Depending on the individual institutions, teaching practice with a trained mentor had become widespread. Its duration may vary from one to two semesters (in some cases it amounts to 180 classes of teaching). This prolonged teaching practice has been a success; therefore, it has been maintained even after the introduction of the credit system in 2002 in some of the institutions, although the three-year programme itself will end by 2004.

- *Mentor training:* for the successful completion of the teaching practice, thousands of language teachers have participated in mentor training courses where they can learn new communication and mentoring approaches, and methods. Thus, they can provide efficient mentoring to promote the professional development of trainee teachers. Another great benefit, from the education policy point of view, is that a great number of teachers can obtain a training of high prestige who had not participated earlier in teacher training or in mentoring work to support teacher training[26].

- *Classroom research:* As the three-year programme considers the classroom to be one of the most important sites of language teacher training, it has become essential to present both the teachers and language learners and trainees with the most accurate, detailed and realistic picture possible, about the classroom processes which determine the efficiency of language teaching. Therefore, most of the institutions have set up their own structures. By providing the necessary theoretical background, hundreds of classroom research projects could be undertaken by teachers and students, together and separately, in the course of which they can learn to apply the research methodology and the means of data collection, etc. The implementation of these projects has resulted in an unprecedented mass of knowledge, the processing of which is still under way.

However, the 111/1997 Decree entered into force, which has undermined several innovative achievements. The Decree has determined a timeframe for teacher training courses, which would significantly reduce the length of courses in teaching methodology and the required teaching practice for the three-year programmes.

- The Decree limits the number of contact classes for compulsory psychological and pedagogical courses to 330 hours for students participating in any teacher-training program. This timeframe means an increase compared to the previous number of classes in all institutions, but this increase has been made at the expense of the language pedagogy element.

---

[26] Hungarian mentor training courses have attracted international attention since the 1990s, and Caroline Bodóczky and Angi Malderez, the two persons who devised and launched this type of further training, published their practical experiences and methods in an international award-winning book: Bodóczky, C. – A. Malderez. (2000). *Mentor Courses*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- The total timeframe for teaching methodology and teaching practice is 300 hours, which include much fewer theoretical and practical courses and actual teaching practice in language pedagogy than before. According to experts, the number of classes provided is insufficient for improving the quality of the teacher training (Csapó-Nikolov, 2002:4).

The first language teachers completing the three-year course graduated in 1993, and the number of new graduates increased in the following years as a growing number of institutions participated in the program[27]. There is data available about graduates in 2001, thus making it possible to compare the number of graduates from the three-year programme to the number of those graduating from other language courses. *(Annex 49)*

Although the Ministry of Education does not have comprehensive data, estimates lead to the same conclusion. While in the past years approximately 1200-1400 language teachers graduated from colleges and universities, only 20% of them will seek employment in public education. Instead of supplying public education with well-trained language teachers who consider language teaching their vocation, language teacher training programmes, although efficient, produce teachers for the private market, and provide highly qualified job-seekers for practically all areas of the economy with a high foreign language proficiency, communication and IT skills, who can be retrained easily. Although this unfavourable situation cannot be attributed to the weaknesses of teacher training it may question the raison d'être of teacher (and partly philologist) training programmes, which produce a high number of language teachers every year.

8.1.3   Current practice

Language teacher training in a credit system

As a result of the qualification requirements set in the teacher training programmes of the Hungarian higher education institutions, and based on the credit system introduced in 2002, the teaching methodology component was reduced to a minimum, and the timeframe for teaching practice was generally determined to be 15 hours[28].

The university level training enables students to add the teacher training qualification to their philology-type language and literature degree course. In a college level training, philology subjects can be taken up only together with teacher training courses. Professional requirements are to be fulfilled in compliance with the 111/1997 Decree, the credit system, and the recently introduced qualification requirements for philology subjects.[29]

Details of the requirements that have just entered into force contain the following features:

---

[27] All Hungarian universities and teacher training colleges participated in the launching of the three-year teacher-training programme for a certain period of time, with the exception of primary teacher training institutions.

[28] This figure can be considered favourable in international comparison (e.g. in Romania obligatory teaching practice is 4 hours), but professionals are not satisfied as a 15 hour practice is insufficient to gain self-confidence as a teacher.

[29] In numbers: in the 8-semester university programme there are 1350 specialised classes with 140 credits and in an 8-semester college programme there are 1200 classes with 95 credits.

- Among the credits related to a major subject[30], which are to be earned during the first-degree courses, required courses, and the period of specialisation, non-philological courses include only the language, specialised language, and cultural courses, but they make up only a small part of the total number of credits both at college and university level.

- In the description of all training requirements a code number is used to indicate to what extent the course would be practice-oriented, and how much importance would be given to less interactive, academic-type lectures which require only passive listening from students[31]. They could offer positive or negative examples for students who are interested in pedagogy and language teaching, concerning class work design and communication strategies during seminars, and especially language and cultural courses.

In addition to negative indicators, some positive development should also be noted: there has been a high number of courses in modern languages or other courses related to them, which can be launched in the credit system.

The proportion of modern languages or subjects related to modern languages is relatively high among the philology courses. 62 degree-courses have been registered at university level, and 39 are directly related to a modern or ancient language, while 28 degree-courses focus on a modern European language. 24 of them also offer teaching qualifications, which is an important indicator even if we can take it for granted that relatively few students will opt for becoming secondary school teachers of modern Greek or Japanese language and literature. *(Annex 50)*

Nursery and primary school teacher training with language specialisation

Minority nursery and primary school teacher training has been offered in Croatian, German, Romanian, Serbian, Slovakian and Slovenian languages for several decades in the Hungarian teacher training institutions.

In accordance with the National Core Curriculum, teacher training has been established for various fields of education, training teachers qualified to teach one of the modern languages (English, German, French or Italian) after graduation from the college. The training is based on intensive language enhancement, and then cultural studies and intensive studies in language pedagogy follow. From the beginning of the training, trainees regularly attend classes at one of the public education institutions, so they are faced with real life problems of language learning and teaching early on.

Minority teacher training and development

In Hungarian higher education institutions training is offered only for teachers of minority language and literature, minority primary school teachers and minority nursery school teachers due to the lack of professional infrastructure. Programmes of independent departments and sections of minorities in various Hungarian higher education institutions

---

[30] In numbers: in the 8-semester university program there are 1350 specialised classes with 140 credits and in an 8-semester college program there are 1200 classes with 95 credits.

[31] Primarily due to funding concerns, the Government and the institutions wish to maximise the proportion of lectures in courses. In order to increase the total amount of the normative subsidy, the main objective is to minimise the number of teachers and maximise the number of students.

have recently been accredited. Based on bilateral agreements, native speaker language instructors teach at minority departments.

With the exception of the German minority, the number of students in minority courses is generally low, therefore unit costs are higher than average. In the framework of the normative funding of higher education institutions, minority subjects have been reclassified into a higher category last year. Although this regulation eases the operational problems of minority departments and sections with few students, it is not the final solution. Minority teacher training requires more reorganisation and increased funding, especially on the long run.

Based on bilateral agreements, scholarships are offered for courses and terms in the mother country. In addition, the mother country of certain minorities (Slovak, Serb, Croatian, and Romanian) offers other options.

With the support of the Ministry of Education, several higher education institutions have introduced Roma studies in department programmes, elective courses or independent programmes. Beside teacher training, the Romology Department of the Faculty of Humanities of the Pécs University of Sciences has taken a key part in the development of teachers of Roma children and in the research on teaching the Roma minority.

Four minority higher education institutions offer training for language teachers, six institutions offer training for primary school teachers and four institutions for nursery school teachers. Thirteen institutions offer training for Roma teachers. Few institutions offer development courses for minority teachers and practically no training is offered in certain areas (such as bilingual education)[32]. *(Annex 51)*

The training and development of teachers in Romology

By establishing a first-degree course in Romology and defining the training requirements in a Government Decree, a new course in philology was launched at the Pécs University of Sciences in 2000, which offered comprehensive knowledge in the theory and practice of Romology. Students must be familiar with the social, political, legal, linguistic, cultural, educational, demographic and labour market aspects of the Roma population in Hungary, as well as the international position papers and recommendations intended to improve the living conditions of the Roma. With this knowledge, students will be able to do research in the history and culture of the Roma community, analyse their situation and accomplish various tasks related to the Roma in local and minority self-governments, their institutions and other organisations.

Languages form the key element of the training: in addition to linguistic courses, command of both Roma languages is required and national language examinations must be passed in both languages. Currently, 25 students attend the first-degree course, while 120 students participate in the postgraduate training - 40% of the students are members of a Roma community.

First-degree optional courses, specialised optional courses, and specialised development courses or intensive courses for teachers are currently established in Romology in several teacher-training institutions, as the Ministry of Education has granted special support to the

---

[32] The State of Minority Education in Hungary. (Summary of the Ministry of Education for the preparation of a Government Proposal on the situation of minorities living in the Republic of Hungary)

further education of teachers in Romology, and especially to preparatory courses for teaching Roma cultural knowledge, in the past two years. *(Annex 52)*

<u>Training for teachers of Hungarian as a foreign language</u>

Training for teachers of Hungarian as a foreign language has been offered at two universities in Budapest and Pécs, as a postgraduate type B degree course since 1994, and as a type A degree course since 2001. A total of 100 persons have graduated from the Central Hungarian Language Teaching Department of ELTE University, and most of them work in adult education in the private sector, in institutions offering Hungarian language education for foreigners who are to begin higher education studies, or they work as teachers of Hungarian studies abroad and as researchers.

8.2   Professional development of language teachers

According to Government Decree 277/1997 (XII. 22.) concerning "teacher development, final examination for teachers and the benefits and advantages of participants in development courses", teachers in public education shall take part in 120 hours of development courses every seven years. Development courses for teachers shall include a minimum of 30-hour modules accredited by the Board for the Accreditation of Teacher Development Courses.

The Centre for Teacher Development, Methodology and Information has registered 295 development courses (30, 45, 60, 75, 90, and 120 hours) for teachers of Hungarian and foreign languages. Subjects of these courses include: measurement, assessment, examination, use of communication and IT skills in language teaching, bilingualism, bilingual education, curricula, role-playing, simulations, projects, teaching young children, and vocationally oriented language teaching. Courses are offered for mentors and teacher trainers for development courses. Subjects of development courses include: minority theories, anthropology of minorities, Roma studies, culture of the target country, and intercultural communication. Development courses are offered to teachers of English, French, Latin, German, Italian, Russian, Spanish, Croatian, Romanian, Slovakian, and Slovenian as minority languages and Hungarian as a mother tongue and a foreign language.

9 The role of the civil society in language learning and teaching

Zsuzsánna Darabos – Katalin Forray R. –
Zsuzsanna Horváth – Zoltán Poór – Péter Rádai

9.1 The role of non-government organisations and movements in the protection and cultivation of the Hungarian language

Currently, there are several local, regional and national movements organised for the cultivation of the Hungarian language, which have developed from various competitions launched partly by the media (radio, television), e.g. Kazinczy Competition and Péchy Blanka Movement for the fostering of the Hungarian language.

In spite of the high number and, in some regions, significant activities carried out by the Roma non-governmental organisations, these organisations are usually not aiming to cultivate a language or languages. They mostly intend to improve especially the socio-cultural, schooling and legal situation of the Roma in accordance with their special interests. Several grassroots organisations have been formed in the areas of art and culture, to promote Roma folklore, folk music and dance. So, civil organisations may exert only an indirect influence on the protection of their language, although some pop and folk ensembles performing in the Roma language are extremely popular. No government plans are known which would give a bigger role to civil organisations in shaping issues related to language policy.

Young people and adults learning or speaking modern languages organised several discussion clubs in the 1980s, in order to maintain and develop their linguistic competence in English or German. These have been mostly grassroots initiatives. To a limited extent some language practice and the development of inter- and multicultural competence was made possible by the Soviet-Hungarian Friendship Societies, which were operated with a political agenda, as well. Nowadays, such programmes are less popular.

English, French and German language drama clubs are also popular. Every year a foreign language drama festival is organised. This movement serves as a cohesive force for groups of young people learning the same language. A similar role is played by the annual Italian language festivals. A Romany language drama club is being established.

The efficiency of learning the English and German language is increased by quizzes and competitions, which are organised by schools, professional organisations at municipal and county level, and various publishers. The young generation of language learners is motivated by such events and improve their linguistic expression in the target language.

Language resource centres set up by foreign cultural associations are becoming widespread, which collect and provide access to printed and electronic material for learning English, French and German. Such initiatives are taken also by towns or schools where a media library in foreign languages may be set up as part of the library. Such centres offer a forum for Internet-based independent language learning.

9.2 Associations of teachers

Since the fall of Communism, language teachers have set up their associations. They organise regional and national events, publish and support publications, and organise development

courses for teachers. Their tasks include: collection and sharing of information, and some associations efficiently represent the interests of their members.

9.3   The role of mass communication in linguistic development

The national and ethnic minorities have their own printed media, and programmes in the Hungarian radio and television. Although opinions differ concerning the efficiency of the media, they provide an opportunity for practice and pass on the language knowledge from one generation to the other. The Roma community has several newspapers, most of them in the Hungarian language, but they also have a journal in which Lovari and Beas language texts are regularly published (Amaro Drom). It is an important achievement that a Roma language radio (Radio C) has been operating for two years as a grassroots initiative with government support, although these programmes can be received only in Budapest. The prominent national journal on pedagogy (Iskolakultúra) published by the Pécs University of Sciences devotes every year a complete issue to problems related to the education of the Roma, including linguistic and language teaching issues.

Channel 1 and 2 of the Hungarian public television, Duna Television, and the commercial and local stations are the main sources of the cultivation of the Hungarian language, either directly or indirectly. Programmes, which are aiming to cultivate the language are especially important. Due to the democratisation of television, it gives a forum to all kinds of language users and it is not always the standard version of the language that will be promoted.

Currently, an English language programme is aired on MTV, which is edited and presented by a prominent teacher of English.

Hungarian television generally shows the dubbed versions of foreign language films, and subtitles are relatively rare. The same applies to cinemas, although a large number of films are shown in the original languages with Hungarian subtitles. There are some cinemas where films are always subtitled.

Thanks to the spreading of cable television networks and satellite dishes, programmes can be received in an increasing number of languages. The selection, however, is geographically determined. English, French, Polish, German, Italian and Russian language programmes are theoretically accessible via each cable television network. The national televisions of neighbouring countries, e.g. Croatian, Romanian, Serbian, Slovakian and Slovenian can be generally received only along the borders of Hungary.

With the dynamic expansion of the Internet, subtitled films on video and DVD are becoming increasingly popular.

II Comparing Hungarian language education policy with European standards in the context of multilingualism and the diversity of language learning and language teaching

Zsuzsánna Darabos – Katalin Forray R. – Zsuzsanna Horváth
Zoltán Poór – Péter Rádai – Ágnes Vámos

1 The European Charter for Minority or Regional Languages

The legal provisions regulating Hungarian minority education comply with most of the points in Article 8 of the Charter adopted in 1992:

- Preschool education (i.e. nursery school, care and education), has become accessible to all children in communities where Greek, Croatian, German, Romanian, Serbian, Slovakian and Slovenian minorities live. Furthermore, at particular locations, Bulgarian language education is also offered. (1.a.i-iv)
- Primary school education in minority languages has become available to all children in villages in towns where Greek, Croatian, German, Romanian, Serbian, Slovakian and Slovenian minorities live, and furthermore, at particular locations, Bulgarian language education is also offered. (1.b.i-iv)
- Members of the German national minority can pursue secondary school studies in their mother tongue at several schools, while other minorities, e.g. Bulgarian, Croatian, Polish, Romanian, Serbian, Slovakian, Ukrainian and Roma, can do so in at least one school in Hungary. (1.c.i-iv)
- The conditions have been provided to enable members of a specific minority, and others, to learn national and ethnic minority languages, and cultures in the course of their university studies: e.g. Bulgarian language and literature, modern Greek language and literature, Croatian language and literature, Polish language and literature, German minority language and literature, Romanian language and literature, Romology (Beas and Romany), Serbian language and literature, Slovakian language and literature, Slovenian language and literature and Ukrainian language and literature. (1.e.ii.-iii)
- National and ethnic minority languages and related cultures are being regularly taught in further education courses and in adult education. (1.f.ii)
- The history and culture of national and ethnic minorities has been integrated into the curriculum at various levels of public education, to be taught to children of the majority, as well as the minority population. (1.g)
- First degree and further education for national and ethnic minority teachers has been provided in both Hungarian and international institutions. (1.h)
- Minority languages and cultures can be learned outside the regions where national and ethnic minorities traditionally live, if the need arises. (2)

Problems include the following:
- Minority teaching programmes are offered in a few places as part of the German language programme at secondary technical schools. Only a limited selection of options is available (e.g. tourism, catering industry, commercial vocational training). (1.d.i-iv)
- Vocational training is only available for members of the Roma community within a minority cultural framework. (1.d.i-iv)

- Members of the German national minority can pursue higher education studies in their mother tongue in only one institution (Andrássy Gyula German Language University, opened in 2002). (1.e.i).

Shortcomings include the following:
- Adult and further education have not yet been provided in the languages of national and ethnic minorities and regional languages in Hungary. (1.f.i, iii)
- In Hungary, there is no supervisory body responsible for introducing and developing the teaching of regional and minority languages. The rights and responsibilities of the provider of schools include the monitoring of its lawful operation, including the supervision of the approval and implementation of the local curriculum.

According to the Article 12 of the Charter, Hungarian language policy fulfils the requirements set by the Council of Europe on all three points:
- Minority history and culture are being explored and knowledge disseminated to the majority population both at the level of education and research (1).
- Minority teachers are being trained, textbooks are being published and distributed, and relationships with the mother country maintained.
- Serious efforts are being made to provide an opportunity for most minorities to participate in education and programmes in their mother tongue.

Pursuant to Article 13, minority organisations and natural persons are entitled to take the initiative in order to establish an educational institution in their mother tongue (1). If the institution performs a public education function, it will receive normal financing (2).

In Hungary, all conditions are met for the fulfilment of the requirements set in Article 14 as members of each minority can learn the language of their ancestors, and can even pursue secondary school studies in some of those languages. As has been pointed out above, higher education studies can only be pursued at faculties of humanities, as fully-fledged minority higher education programmes are offered only in the German language. The teaching of the languages of national and ethnic minorities, and minority language-education generally, is not conducted at the expense of learning Hungarian, the official language. In many instances the relatively small size of minorities, and the fact that they are generally dispersed in the country, are important factors.

2   Recommendations of the Committee of Ministers

With regard to the R(98)6 Recommendation of the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe, the language policy and regulations concerning the curricula made by the Republic of Hungary make it possible to implement fully the general principles laid down in Point 1 (Chapter A). As regards the promotion of plurilingualism, language education policy and language teaching, efforts are generally satisfactory, but there are deficiencies in certain areas. The situation is less clear concerning foreign language education in early childhood: although the teaching of the first foreign language begins before the age of 11 (i.e. before the 4th grade), an earlier start is possible but not required by the regulations. The decision depends on the financial situation of the controlling organisation and other considerations. In the last couple of years the number of Hungarian-foreign language schools has increased, where intensive language training is offered from 1st grade onwards. Although there is teacher training in some fields of education in modern languages, the number of language teachers taking up employment as school teachers is still limited. For the linguistic education of young children,

however, linguistically and methodologically well-qualified teachers are needed. A continuous supply of qualified teachers cannot yet be taken for granted. (Chapter B)

As regards upper primary grades and secondary education, the current situation has not yet complied fully with the recommendations (Chapter C). As communicative teaching gains ground, the communicative competence of pupils will improve overtime (C 8). Legal regulations allow for the possibility of learning two foreign languages but only one is required by the National Core Curriculum. Therefore, the supervisory bodies of schools are obliged to provide the conditions for learning only one foreign language. Accordingly, the pupils' rights and the provider's obligations do not correspond to each other (C 9). A relatively wide range of languages can be learned in Hungarian schools, but in the majority of schools only English or German is offered, and occasionally French, Italian or Spanish in some larger schools.

This is due to the fact that there are fewer teachers for less widely learned and taught languages, and parents and pupils are mostly interested in the two dominant languages (C 10). On the other hand the choice of a language to be learned at schools is not a personal right according to legislation; therefore schools "allocate" languages to children. Sometimes this practice has a negative impact on the motivation of children to learn a target language and culture. In the upper grades of the secondary school the proficiency in previously learnt languages can be further improved, at least in theory. An unfavourable practice is becoming widespread, according to which pupils who have passed an accredited language examination at intermediate level, will be granted exemption from attending language classes in the secondary school. In the 10th, 11th and 12th grade, it is becoming common practice that students who have passed language examinations successfully do not attend language classes at all as the school is unable to provide the conditions for either learning a new language or improve the existing language skills (C 11).

The pedagogical attitude needed to improve secondary competences has not yet become widespread among Hungarian language teachers (C 12). A favourable trend to be noted is that an increasing number of secondary school headmasters, teachers and pupils participate in European educational projects and their intercultural and pluricultural competence will also improve as a result (C 13). In the course of these projects, they have an opportunity to recognise the role and importance of foreign languages in real life situations (C 15), and to try various communication strategies, which may prove to be useful later for autonomous learning. The application of communication and information technology in these projects opens up new perspectives for autonomous and lifelong learning (C 14).

Language teachers and schools involved in vocationally-oriented language teaching and adult education have acquired the methodology, professional network and experiences in cooperation with their counterparts in other countries, due to participation in international projects. Therefore, the requirements set out in Chapters D and E are met in most of the cases.

The advantages offered by multilingualism and multiculturalism in the border regions of Hungary have been utilised in only a few places to disseminate knowledge among schoolchildren about the language and culture of the neighbouring country or people. Although there have been promising initiatives, involving all neighbouring countries, they have attracted hardly any publicity. (Chapter F)

The Hungarian translation of the "Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching and Assessment" is available, and a professional development course has been organised to help absorb the approach and the teaching philosophy reflected by the Portfolio (European Language Portfolio). The policy objective in Hungary is to enable language teachers to work according to the European system of assessment. (Chapter G)

The sub-clauses related to teacher training and development could be applied only to some languages within language teacher training in most of the cases. An important point is to ensure transferability between languages, i.e. the teaching philosophy and teaching methods applied in one language should be transferable to other languages as well.

3 Recommendation to ensure linguistic diversity

The 1383 (1998) Resolution of the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe makes recommendations concerning linguistic diversity, which shows that Hungary is open to plurilingualism and pluriculturalism, as borne out by legal and curricular regulations. However, Point 6 has not been fully implemented because the process is hampered by the existing tensions between the Act on Education and the National Core Curriculum and the lack of coordination between regulations.

The introduction of the „Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching and Assessment" and the "European Language Portfolio" is under way. (7.iv)

The requirements covered by Point 8 will have to be addressed by the Hungarian language policy in the future as
- Regional planning for languages and language learning has not yet been completed, although there are long traditions for forging relations between sister cities, villages and organising cultural exchanges (i);
- There is no intention to organise mutual language learning projects in the border regions (ii);
- The teaching methods for distance language teaching have not yet been developed (iii);
- Institutional relations required to offer less widely taught languages have not yet been developed (iv);
- The number of bilingual schools is on the rise, academic subjects will be learned in a foreign language and the final examination may be taken in that language (v);
- Although international inter-institutional relationships, and staff and student exchanges are becoming more widespread, they do not play a sufficient role in the promotion of language learning (vi);
- The number of foreign visiting teachers has fallen in the recent years and continues to be limited to language teachers coming from target language countries or teachers of specialist subjects visiting bilingual schools. It rarely happens that a visiting teacher who is not a native speaker would teach the given language in a Hungarian school or vice versa (vii);
- Methodologically highly qualified teachers of minority languages are usually employed by minority schools, it seldom happens that a minority language is taught to pupils or students who are member of the majority population (viii);
- There are long-standing traditions of utilising audiovisual media in support of language learning and teaching in Hungarian language education (ix);

- There are few good audiovisual teaching aids for the languages of national and ethnic minorities (x);
- Most of the language teachers are just becoming aware of the culture specific aspects and the role of inter- and pluricultural competence in language learning and teaching (xi);
- Quality assurance for private language schools has been in place for years now as the Professional Association of Language Schools has undertaken the task of accrediting language schools.

4 Recommendations concerning the European Year of Languages

The Hungarian Project Committee has assessed the experience of the European Year of Languages, and has joined the 1539(2001) Parliamentary Assembly Resolution with a commitment to organise a European Day of Languages every year. Guidelines for the programmes to be implemented in the coming years have to be devised within the framework of the project to be managed by them, and they should also offer advice in the course of implementation.

III   Visions and tasks

Zsuzsánna Darabos – Katalin Forray R.– Zsuzsanna Horváth
Zoltán Poór – Péter Rádai – Ágnes Vámos

1   General language education policy issues

a) Attitudes to plurilingualism and cultural diversity should be developed and strengthened, so that they will be considered as values at all levels, from the Ministry to the local authorities; from nursery school to teacher training, and among all participants of education, from pupils to teachers, and support staff

   b) The command of languages, and knowledge gained through informal and formal channels, have to be considered as valuable assets. Each institution should test the existing knowledge of applicants, and it should try to adjust its structure to the needs of individuals or special groups. The *European Language Portfolio* provides the most suitable means to achieve this goal.

   > The linguistic and cultural knowledge of pupils coming from a minority group has to be treated as an asset to be further developed, and it must be considered as valuable both in the immediate environment and by the majority population. This is especially important in the case of the language and culture of a minority carrying a social stigma.

   c) Ways must be found, and the forms, methods and possibilities elaborated, to provide recognition within the formal education system for knowledge gained through informal channels. The *European Language Portfolio* provides the most suitable means to achieve this goal.

   > Competence in the mother tongue of migrants' children has to be acknowledged within the educational system.

   d) The cultivation of their mother tongue and the improvement of mother tongue competences are fundamental human rights, not only of the majority population and national and ethnic minorities but also of the small groups of migrants. For this purpose, the necessary conditions have to be ensured at various levels and institutions of public, higher and adult education. Initiatives of civil organisations to this effect should be supported.

   e) Each pupil participates in language education based on a set of requirements laid down by education policy for each specific educational context, and cannot receive exemption from completing this task.

   > The requirements set accordingly are sufficiently tailor-made to be attainable by the various groups of pupils, e.g. those attending vocational training, having special needs or attending bilingual schools.

f) Everybody should have the right to be assessed according to his or her competence, and results should not be undermined by permanent or temporary problems with language skills, learning or use (e.g. disadvantaged linguistic environment, not having a mother tongue, mother tongue is a foreign language, dysgraphia, dyslexia, speech impediments). The best way to achieve success at school should be found for everybody with hereditary or acquired language problems.

g) When teaching languages, or related competences, the user's interest should be given priority. Personal rights should be respected to a greater extent when learning minority or foreign languages, the mother tongue and second or additional languages.

h) In addition to Hungarian, a formal certified qualification has to be obtained in at least two other languages by the end of public education.

> For pupils coming from bilingual or minority groups, the other or minority language could become such a language provided that they get the necessary formal qualification.

i) In order to ensure plurilingualism, the choice of languages offered by the schools should include at least two modern languages in the primary school (in addition to the minority language if they have one); and a least three modern languages in secondary school. It is desirable to give the right to choose at least the second foreign language to the pupils. If the school is unable to ensure the teaching of the chosen language, pupils should be provided with the possibility to study it in another institution.

j) The structure of language education curricula should be devised in such a way that it ensures the acquisition of subcompetences, e.g. in a modular system, and formal qualifications should be developed accordingly.

> e.g. oral competences may be rated as A1 (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages), while written competences may be C1 in another language.

k) The timeframe for language education (frequency, duration, time of day) should be determined according to age groups and their optimum capacity.

l) Language education has to be conducted under conditions which accommodate the requirements of communicative language teaching and skill development (i.e. size of groups, size of classroom, teaching aids, the availability of teaching material)

m) Teaching aids, necessary for fulfilling the requirements, should be provided in at least six modern languages and all minority languages for primary and secondary school pupils. Migrant pupils should be provided with teaching aids for learning Hungarian as a foreign language and the history and culture of Hungary.

n) When curricula and teaching aids are designed and approved, it is an essential element in the learning process that the principles of the language of instruction are respected, i.e. according to which language is in question (mother tongue, second language, foreign language)

o) Language education has to be provided by teachers who have the necessary linguistic, cultural and language teaching qualifications and knowledge. Furthermore, they have to have a positive attitude to pupils, target language and culture, and be ready to offer maximum support to the pupils so that they can learn the language and the related knowledge within the context of teaching a foreign language.

p) It is highly desirable that participants in the educational process should have the possibility to develop autonomous learning strategies and apply self-assessment methods. However, students should be assessed in a formal way as well. The six-level scale of five competences in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages should be used for the assessment and acknowledgement of language skills.

q) The organisers of the education process have to monitor, support and analyse the language learning processes, relying on a network of experts and civil organisations.

r) (Hungarian) sign language should be an available means of communication for everybody with a hearing disability. It should be taught in deaf communities, and teachers of sign language should be trained in first-degree and development courses.

s) In order to increase social cohesion, courses in (Hungarian) sign language should be offered to students with no hearing disabilities. Furthermore, those who will deal with people during their work (teachers, health care workers, priests, shopkeepers, civil servants, etc.) should be obliged to learn sign language. Therefore, the training of teachers of sign language as a foreign language is seen as a very important task.

2   Public and higher education

a) At no level of public education may a language teacher be employed without having the minimum qualification required for teaching a certain age group. This is even more important in preschool institutions and the first four years of the primary school: language education can only be offered by an institution if qualified teachers are available. This principle has to be applied even if the institution is under great pressure by the parents to start language courses.

b) Only well-trained teachers should be allowed to teach subjects, parts of subjects and fields of education in a foreign language.

c) At each level of public education, a skill and communication-based language education has to be offered, which prepares the pupils for usable communication skills in real life situations while sufficient attention is paid to the development of the required cognitive factors as well. The same approach is taken by the key elements of the output regulation (e.g. two-tier final examination, national language examinations).

d) Persons understanding or speaking the languages of Roma used in Hungary have to achieve at least an elementary level of communication skills. School education and language teacher training, therefore, should be focused on the acquisition of linguistic competences related to real life situations, mobilising the mostly passive language knowledge learnt in the family and the organisation of acquired knowledge.

e) A new structure should be formed which provides free or significantly cheaper language learning possibilities for teachers in public education who do not have language subjects so that they can obtain a qualification accordingly.

f) In addition to general language teaching, intermediate language education should seek to make significant progress in the following two areas:
- Following the completion of their linguistic training, teachers with subjects other than languages will be able to teach some part of their subject in a foreign language. Teachers working outside bilingual teaching programmes can obtain the necessary teaching material with the support of the education authorities.
- Vocationally oriented language teaching, which has been taken for granted in vocational training, is gaining ground also in institutions offering general education (especially grammar schools). The objective is to teach languages for special purposes, and specialised language skills in accordance with potential career trends and the general requirements of the international labour market at the beginning of the 21st century. The basis for the implementation of this programme has to be provided by the professional development courses for teachers. (The above objectives can be considered as priorities by the TEMPUS Public Foundation, and for the teacher mobility actions of both Leonardo and the Socrates programme.)

g) The vocational orientation of language teaching in vocational training is considered self-evident. In addition to this, the training also reckons with the special demands of the European labour market; the linguistic requirements necessary for the free movement of labour, which may or may not be vocationally oriented; the linguistic features and communication techniques of international projects based on professional cooperation. The new content and methods in the professional development programmes for teachers provide support for the implementation of the above.

h) The institutionalised cooperation between language teaching and information technology should be established in public education. The harmonisation of various elements of the curriculum in public education, and the arrangement of language and IT classes makes it possible to swap the classes according to actual needs and organise them in a flexible fashion so that the potential of the two subjects could be put to full use, and the expertise of the teachers be better exploited. A flexible system like this can make an important contribution to professional development, as the IT experts will be motivated to participate in other, more intensive language teaching programmes in addition to English, while language teachers will be motivated to acquire versatile IT skills. This will create further responsibilities for teacher training and professional development programmes.

i) Language classes are provided in the so-called zoning system, which is an important initiative in itself, and its success has been acknowledged in each public education institution where it has been used for a long time. But it has not become widespread practice yet. The introduction of the zoning system of language classes could become a key instrument in achieving continuity and uniformity, and the ideal group size for language teaching if this is considered desirable by language policy experts.

j) An intermediate language certificate should be the minimum requirement in higher education at the start of the fifth term, which means that certified intermediate language competence should be considered a credit. A language learning opportunity should be offered to students without such a certificate as an integral part of the training.

k) Language education policy defines the set of requirements for the formal recognition of vocationally oriented language knowledge in the output regulations related to higher education language teaching, instead of general language teaching objectives and requirements. Necessary conditions should be provided (number of classes, teaching material) to meet these requirements, as a continuation of the students' previous language training. It should be made possible for students with a B2-C1 level of knowledge of two languages by the time they finish secondary education to take up a new language.

l) Language teaching in higher education should provide vocationally oriented language teaching. Therefore, participants should be able to choose from a wide variety of languages for special purposes offered, according to the most popular subjects and specialisations, thus improving the chances of finding employment on the labour market. Objectives related to vocationally-oriented language learning can be based only on plurilingual, general linguistic foundations, which will be ensured by the output requirements set for secondary schools.

m) Within the framework of higher education a high number of fully bilingual programmes should be launched (in addition to foreign language programmes offered to foreign students or organised here in Hungary), or some courses or modules of programmes are offered in a foreign language, which are also fully accredited.

n) Future teachers of Hungarian language and literature should be trained to teach Hungarian as a mother tongue or as a foreign or second language.

o) All teachers should be aware of the features and roles of languages of instruction.

p) Students of bilingual schools should be offered a special competition at the OKTV.

3   Adult education

a) Education and labour policy experts have elaborated a common system of needs and funding, which provides language education for participants in adult education free of charge or at a reduced price, thus contributing to the training of more highly qualified workforce.

b) Language education offered within the framework of adult education provides not only a general proficiency in a language, which is compulsory, but also the teaching of vocationally oriented language skills and knowledge. Foreign language, minority language and bilingual education should be offered, and subjects and fields of education should be offered in foreign languages as well.

c) Language teaching in adult education should enable graduates to undertake self-study or retraining later on.

d) The language courses, vocationally oriented language courses and intercultural, etc. training programs in adult education will be published in a centrally devised document at the end of the accreditation process, similarly to the course offered for professional development for teachers. Potential applicants can select from this list, which is compiled according to professional and labour market requirements, and apply for grants. Accreditation enables participants to take a formal accredited language or knowledge testing examination after completing the course, which is different from the national language examination.

4 Requirements and the system of assessment

The uniform system of requirements and assessment are those developed by the Council of Europe in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching and Assessment. This has to serve as a frame of reference for the assessment of language proficiency in each area and level of language learning. Transparency has to be ensured in defining and approving the requirements by adopting the six levels of proficiency in five competences. The European Language Portfolio is excellently suited to serve this objective, and its recognition and wide application is highly desirable. The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages should serve as a basis for the set of requirements that form an integral part of the optional curricula, and for the standardised means of assessment in public education (advanced-level final examination) and on the market (national language examinations, levels of assessment used by private language schools).

5 Teacher training

5.1 First-degree training

a) The requirements related to teacher training take account of the importance of skill-based language teaching, therefore, the timeframe determined for specialised methodology and the amount of credits will be increased as a form of positive discrimination, at the expense of philological, pedagogical and psychological courses. In addition to this the number of classes required for teaching practice has been determined as a minimum of 30 hours by the relevant decree. In order to achieve this, the 1997/111 Decree and the related qualification requirements for teachers should be amended without delay, also taking into consideration the achievements in the teacher training programs, which won international acclaim in the 1990s.

b) In the language teacher training programs, in addition to the usual professional content, new elements will also be included, e.g. intercultural learning, EU studies, the common European levels of assessment, the standardised means for language assessment, vocationally oriented language teaching methodology, which are essential within the current European educational system in the process of closer integration.

c) In the training of nursery and primary school teachers, more emphasis will be put on the complementary linguistic training necessary to promote the linguistic development of 4-10 year old children, taking into consideration special needs in early language teaching and the special abilities of the age group. The profession of language teachers

and teacher trainers has to become fully aware of the fact that language teaching in the lower grades of the primary school is not an easy task or of lower prestige for the teachers but a highly qualified teaching assignment mobilising special pedagogical skills, and which is of fundamental importance for the future success of language learning.

d) Subject to their progress and academic results, students of colleges and universities attending language teacher training programs may spend some time at a chosen higher education institution in a target country as part of their training (based on bilateral agreements and/or other funding). The credits awarded during training abroad will be formally recognised in the course of their studies in Hungary on the basis of credit transfer agreements.

e) By the end of the teacher training program each language teacher with a single language will have to obtain a language certificate for another language.

f) In higher education and teacher development courses emphasis should be placed on the development of a student- and learning-oriented teaching attitude, on the acquisition of necessary teaching skills by learning to teach language learning strategies, tailor-made methods, and techniques. Schools with well-trained teachers in these areas should be able to create jobs for teachers offering "learning assistance".

5.2 Professional development programs for teachers

a) A key element of professional development programs for language teachers is the application of modern information and communication technology in their teaching. The main objectives are the following:
- To help language teachers to develop new teaching materials that satisfy the needs and interests of the students, and learn about ways of applying and processing this new material.
- To promote attitudes among language teachers which help motivate students to find and process information on their own that is relevant for their language learning process, thus promoting autonomous student behaviour in order to achieve the students' language learning objectives.

b) The main objectives of the professional development programs for language teachers:
- The acquisition of skill and communication-based language teaching methodology and innovative roles of teachers required by changing demands.
- The knowledge of the means of assessment for skill and communication-based language proficiency, and the acquisition of assessment requirements, practice and skills needed for assessment.
- The development of learning strategies, language learning techniques
- The methodology of vocationally-oriented language learning – language teaching
- Studies related to languages of instruction, linguistic issues of teaching a non-language subject in a foreign language
- Setting and strengthening the psycholinguistic foundations of teaching
- Basic issues in language sociology
- Propagation of general teaching culture, reinforcing the foundations of teaching
- Increasing teachers' motivation, prevention or dealing with exhaustion.

c) Development courses for language teachers should include issues related to the language component of teaching and learning (development of comprehension, teaching concepts, etc.) even in the case of development courses in mother tongue teaching. This is especially important in development courses for national or ethnic minorities and bilingual education.

Sources

Csapó, B., Nikolov, M. *Proposal on the Development of Foreign Language Education*, Ministry of Education (manuscript). (Budapest, 2002)

Csécsi Máriás, E. (ed.) *Statistical Information 2000/2001,* Ministry of Education. (Budapest, 2002)

Csécsi Máriás, E. (ed.) *Statistical Information 2001/2002,* Ministry of Education. (Budapest, 2002)

Csipka, R., Mayer, É. (ed.) *Minorities in Hungary*, Office of National and Ethnic Minorities. (Budapest, 2002)

Fazekas, M., Kárpáti, T. *Survey conducted by questionnaires among students not majoring in languages in higher education instritutions*, Ministry of Education (manuscript). (Budapest, 2002)

Forgács, A. *Free movement of persons and education*, in: Migration and the European Union. Ministry of Social and Family Affairs, pp.233-256 (Budapest, 2001)

Forray, R. K., Mohácsi, E. (ed.) *Opportunities and limits. The Hungarian Roma community on the turn of the Millenneum,* A report of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (Budapest-Pécs, 2002)

Glatz, F. (ed.) *The Hungarian Language in the Age of Information Technology,* MTA. (Budapest, 1999)

Halász, G., Lannert, J. (ed.) *Report on Hungarian Public Education in 2000*, OKI. (Budapest, 2000)

Horváth, Zs. *Texts and Readers,* in: Monitor '95. OKI. (Budapest, 1996)

Horváth, Zs. *Knowledge of the Mother Tongue*, OKI – Centre for Assessment. (Budapest, 1998)

Imre, A. *The Impact of Foreign Language Teaching of Minority Language Teaching,* in:Vágó, I. (ed.) *Changes in the Curricula in the Public Education of the 90s,* OKKER. (Budapest, 1999), pp.175-197

Kurtán, Zs. *Foreign Language Education in Hungarian Higher Education Institutions.* (manuscript) (Veszprém, 2000)

Neuwirth, G. *Indices of Performance at Secondary Schools*, National Public Education Institute. (Budapest, 2003)

Petneki, K. *Curricula and the Final Examination,* in: Einhorn, Á. (ed.) *Examination Subjects and Models I*, National Public Education Institute. (Budapest, 1998) p.74

Réger, Z. *Ways to Language,* Akadémia Publisher Co. (Budapest, 1990)

Terestyéni, T. *Information on the role of Written Communication in Hungary,* Mass Communication Research Centre. (Budapest, 1987)

Vágó, I. *Teaching Modern Languages – the Success Story of Modernisation,* in. Vágó, I. (ed.) *Changing Contents in Public Education,* OKKER Publisher Co. (Budapest, 1999) pp.135-173

Vári, P. *Study on Adult Literacy,* Iskolakultúra (2001)

Vámos, Á. *The Hungarian Map of Languages of Instruction,* Keraban. (1998)

Vámos, Á. *Foreign Students in Hungarian Public Education,* Ministry of Education. (Budapest, 2002)

Vámos, Á. *The System of Minority Education,* final report of a survey, Kiss Árpád National Public Education Institute. (Budapest, 2003)

The second preliminary report of the Government of the Republic of Hungary on the fulfilment of obligations related to the accession to the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages of the Council of Europe. Office of National and Ethnic Minorities, (Budapest, 2002)

PISA 2000, Új Pedagógiai Szemle, (December 2001, January 2002)

Statistical Information. Secondary Education in 1990/2000, Ministry of Education. (Budapest, 2001)

Homepage of the Centre for Language Examination Accreditation: http://www.nyak.hu

Annexes

Annex 1

2001	Number of minority members			
Minority	**Mother tongue**	**Minority identity**	**Minority cultural identity and respect of minority traditions**	**Language spoken with family members and friends**
	According to responses			
Croat	14,345	15,620	19,715	14,788
German	33,792	62,233	88,416	53,040
Romanian	8,482	7,995	9,162	8,215
Serb	3,388	3,816	5,279	4,186
Slovak	11,816	17,692	26,631	18,056
Slovene	3,187	3,040	3,442	3,119

Annex 2

2001	Number of minority members			
Minority	**Mother tongue**	**Minority identity**	**Minority cultural identity and respect of minority traditions**	**Language spoken with family members and friends**
	According to responses			
Roma	48,689	190,046	129,259	53,323
Bulgarian	1,299	1,358	1,693	1,118
Greek	1,921	2,509	6,140	1,974
Polish	2,580	2,962	3,983	2,659
Armenian	294	620	836	300
Ruthenian	1,113	1,098	1,292	1,068
Ukrainian	4,885	5,070	4,779	4,519

Proportion of the mother tongue and a modern foreign language in the National Core Curriculum

Field of education	1-4th grades	5-6th grades	7-8th grades	9-10th grades
Mother tongue and literature (Hungarian language and literature, minority language and literature)	32-40	16-20	11-13	11-13
Modern foreign language	—	11-15	9-12	9-13

Annex 4

Number of Hungarian language and literature lessons in the Framework Curriculum in each grade

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	
296	296	296	259	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	128	Grammar school
								148	148	148	128	Technical secondary school
								111	111			Vocational school

Annex 5

*Trends in teaching languages to **6–14 year-olds** between 1991 and 1994*

	English	German	French	Russian	Italian	Spanish	Others	Latin	Total
1991/1992	198,541	280866	12503	275185	3177	487	8732		**779,491**
	25.5%	36%	1.6%	35.3 %	0.4%	0.01%	1.1%		
1992/1993	245,662	346,646	14,204	141,909	2861	845	9606		**761,733**
	32.3	45.5	1.9	18.6	0.4	0.01	1.3		
1993/1994	273,558	364,536	13,329	57,324	2857	455	7737	3652	**719,796**
	38	50.6	1.9	8	0.4	0.01	1.1	0.5	

Source: Statistics of the Ministry of Education

Annex 6

Trends in foreign language teaching in grammar and technical secondary schools

	1987/88 Number of pupils %			1991/92 Number of pupils %			1992/93 Number of pupils %			1993/94 Number of pupils %		
	Grammar school	Technical school	Total	Grammar school	Technical school	Total	Grammar school	Technical school	Total	Grammar school	Technical school	Total
English	46,484	20,905	67,389	81,774	64,782	146,556	94,083	77,149	171,232	100,673	85,350	186,023
	no data	no data		25.5	33.5		32.3	40.3		38	43.7	
French	8,909	4,227	13,136	18,696	9,055	27,751	20,307	9,073	29,380	19,992	9,058	29,050
	no data	no data		7.8	4.7		8.2	4.7		8	4.6	
German	37,006	16,501	53,507	64,051	64,207	128,258	72,159	76,763	148,922	77,086	83,989	161,075
	no data	no data		26.7	33.2		29.2	40.1		30.8	43	
Russian	105,605	130,070	235,675	52,018	49,541	101,559	33,080	23,577	56,657	27,729	12,537	40,266
	no data	no data		21.7	25.6		13.4	12.3		11.1	6.4	
Italian	2,403	735	3,138	7,106	1,641	8,747	8,171	1,769	9,940	8,529	2,171	10,700
	no data	no data		3	0.8		3.3	0.9		3.4	1.1	
Spanish	571	75	646	2,283	394	2,677	2,673	266	2,939	2,606	183	2,789
	no data	no data		1	0.2		1.1	0.1		1	0.1	
Others	3,147	3,792	6,939	14,291	3,652	17,943	17,032	3,016	30,048	13,721	2,113	15,834
	no data	no data		5.9	1.9		6.9	1.6		5.5	1.1	
Total	**204,107**	**176,305**	**380,412**	**240,219**	**193,272**	**433,491**	**247,505**	**191,613**	**439,118**	**250,336**	**195,401**	**445,737**

Source: Statistics of the Ministry of Education

Annex 7

Teaching the first and second obligatory foreign language to 6-14 year old pupils in the 1993/94 and 1999/2000 school years

		1993/94		**1999/2000**	
English	first foreign language	255,169		331,602	
	second foreign language	18,386	274,555	15,824	347,426
German	first foreign language	350,522		347,802	
	second foreign language	14,486	365,008	9,845	357,647
French	first foreign language	11,477		6,553	
	second foreign language	1,852	13,329	1,793	8,346
Russian	first foreign language	55,586		5,248	
	second foreign language	2,018	57,324	1,064	6,312
Italian	first foreign language	2,218		1,081	
	second foreign language	672	2,890	714	1,795
Spanish	first foreign language	308		212	
	second foreign language	12	320	210	422
Latin	first foreign language	1,457		1,260	
	second foreign language	2,195	3,652	5,136	6,396
Others	first foreign language			6,429	
	second foreign language		628	2,966	9,395

Source: Statistics of the Ministry of Education

Annex 8   Teaching the first and second foreign language at primary schools (1999/2000) according to counties

	German		English		French		Russian		Latin		Italian		Spanishl		Others		Total	
	1.	2.	1.	2.	1.	2.	1.	2.	1.	2.	1.	2.	1.	2.	1.	2.	1.	2.
Budapest	29,667	2226	73,708	2069	1535	476	87	430	689	1616	476	192	186	173	360	601	106,708	7783
Baranya	20,137	656	10,500	1307	513	207	31	27	45	102	58	200	-	-	686	48	31,970	2547
Bács-Kk	20,423	434	17,516	598	66	88	67	-	-	136	-	-	-	-	380	397	38,452	1653
Békés	11,118	155	13,039	657	100	51	-	86	31	62	38	32	-	-	1783	250	26,109	1293
B-A-Z	21,157	538	31,986	445	614	46	252	38	-	562	-	-	-	-	174	64	54,183	1693
Csongrád	7603	385	18,544	933	765	190	99	88	83	214	296	28	-	24	117	62	27,507	1924
Fejér	18,065	174	12,205	686	285	18	170	4	-	375	-	9	-	-	-	70	30,725	1336
Gy-M-S	25,675	200	5653	1154	-	95	-	20	72	354	-	-	-	-	196	247	31,596	2070
Hajdú-B	15,688	781	23,239	374	314	88	545	114	20	95	14	76	-	-	139	87	39,959	1615
Heves	7978	421	12,940	337	206	122	116	14	-	267	-	12	26	-	30	-	21,296	1173
J-N-Sz	13,066	488	16,265	311	36	9	177	-	-	365	-	-	-	-	-	-	29,544	1173
K-E	14,402	549	8077	508	30	26	-	67	-	93	-	13	-	13	769	47	23,278	1316
Nógrád	6391	104	7337	78	-	69	193	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	91	721	14,133	972
Pest	32,892	830	38,199	2371	486	15	71	-	263	466	104	7	-	-	1007	13	73,022	3702
Somogy	14,346	252	7516	313	47	128	-	-	-	-	-	10	-	-	112		22,021	703
Sz-Sz-B	21,532	202	17,327	440	867	11	3436	140	57	6	70	16	-	-	31	98	43,320	913
Tolna	16,048	27	3377	569	6	5	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	19,435	601
Vas	15,493	768	2332	1254	34	28	-	-	-	48	11	95	-	-	227	150	18,097	2343
Veszprém	19,156	429	7187	598	131	115	-	36	-	321	14	13	-	-	-	-	26,488	1512
Zala	16,965	226	4655	822	18	6	-	-	-	54	-	11	-	-	327	111	21,965	1230
Total	**34,802**	**9845**	**331,602**	**15824**	**6553**	**1793**	**5248**	**1064**	**1260**	**5136**	**1081**	**714**	**212**	**210**	**6429**	**2966**	**699,808**	**37,552**

Source: Statistics of the Ministry of Education

Gy-M-S	Győr-Moson-Sopron	Sz-Sz-B	Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg	B-A-Z	Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén
Bács-Kk	Bács-Kiskun	Hajdú-B	Hajdú-Bihar	K-E	Komárom-Esztergom
J-N-Sz	Jász-Nagykun-Szolnok				

Annex 9

Obligatory language education in primary schools in 1999/2000 ENGLISH

Editor: Híves, T., Education Research Institute, 2002　　Source: Darabos, Zs., KÁOKSZI

Kötelező nyelvoktatás az általános iskolákban 1999/2000
ANGOL

%
58 - 70
46 - 58
34 - 46
22 - 34
10 - 22

Szerk.: Híves T. Oktatáskutató Int. 2002.　Forrás: Darabos Zsuzsánna, KÁOKSZI
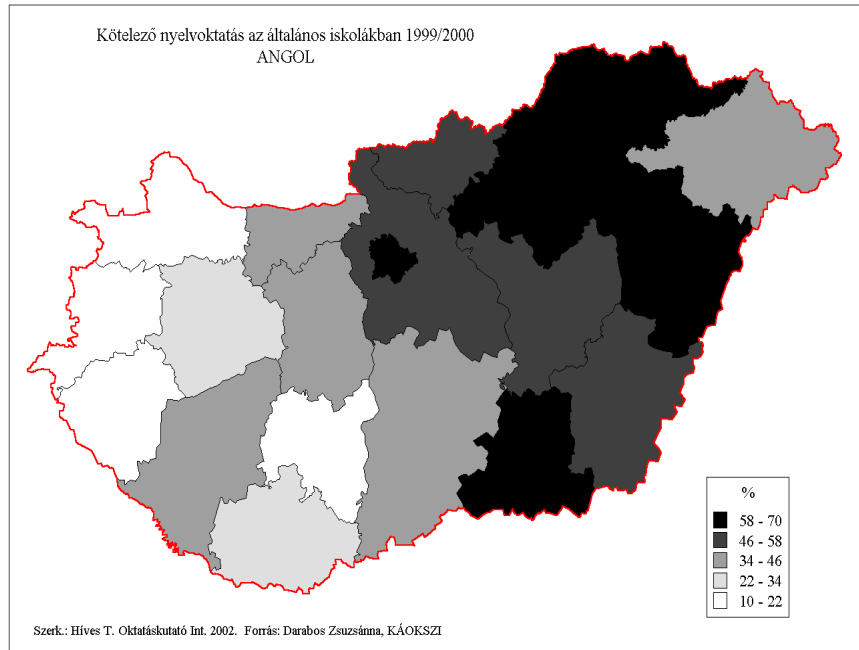
Annex 10

Teaching a second foreign language at primary schools in 1999/2000 ENGLISH

Editor: Híves, T., Education Research Institute, 2002　　Source: Darabos, Zs., KÁOKSZI

2. idegen nyelv oktatása az általános iskolákban 1999/2000
ANGOL

%
80 - 95
60 - 80
40 - 60
20 - 40
8 - 20

Szerk.: Híves T. Oktatáskutató Int. 2002.　Forrás: Darabos Zsuzsánna, KÁOKSZI
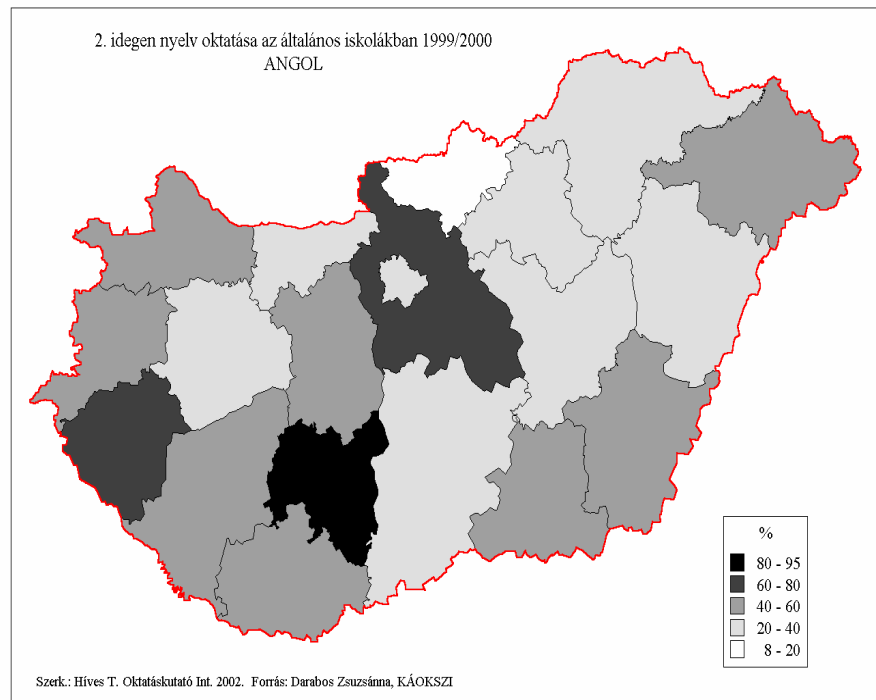
Annex 11 Obligatory language education at primary schools in 1999/2000 FRENCH

Editor: Híves, T., Education Research Institute, 2002   Source: Darabos, Zs., KÁOKSZI

Kötelező nyelvoktatás az általános iskolákban 1999/2000
FRANCIA

%
2,1 - 2,8
1,4 - 2,1
0,7 - 1,4
0,01 - 0,7
0

Szerk.: Híves T. Oktatáskutató Int. 2002. Forrás: Darabos Zsuzsánna, KÁOKSZI
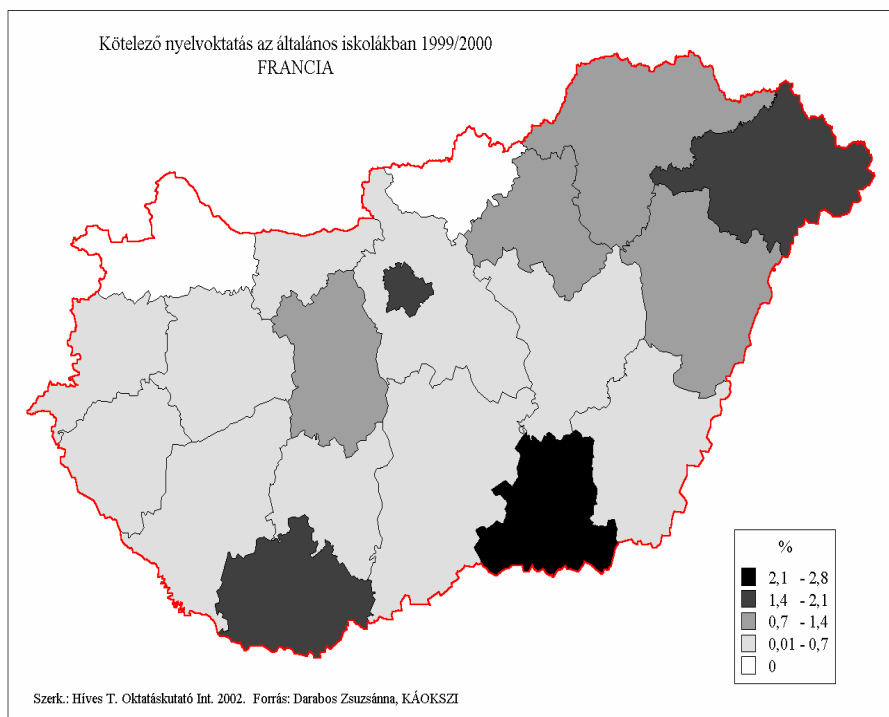
Annex 12 Teaching a second foreign language at primary schools in 1999/2000 FRENCH

Editor: Híves, T., Education Research Institute, 2002   Source: Darabos, Zs., KÁOKSZI

2. idegen nyelv oktatása az általános iskolákban 1999/2000
FRANCIA

%
14 - 18
10 - 14
6 - 10
2 - 6
0,4 - 2

Szerk.: Híves T. Oktatáskutató Int. 2002. Forrás: Darabos Zsuzsánna, KÁOKSZI
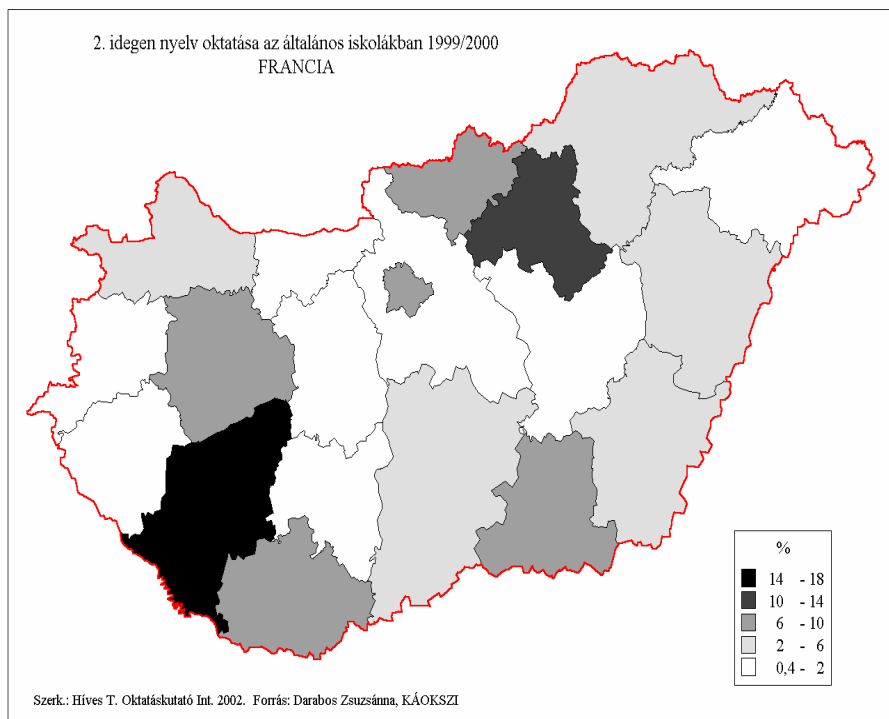
Annex 13 Obligatory language education at primary schools in 1999/2000 GERMAN

Editor: Híves, T., Education Research Institute, 2002   Source: Darabos, Zs., KÁOKSZI

Kötelező nyelvoktatás az általános iskolákban 1999/2000
NÉMET

%
70 - 86
60 - 70
50 - 60
40 - 50
27 - 40

Szerk.: Híves T. Oktatáskutató Int. 2002. Forrás: Darabos Zsuzsánna, KÁOKSZI
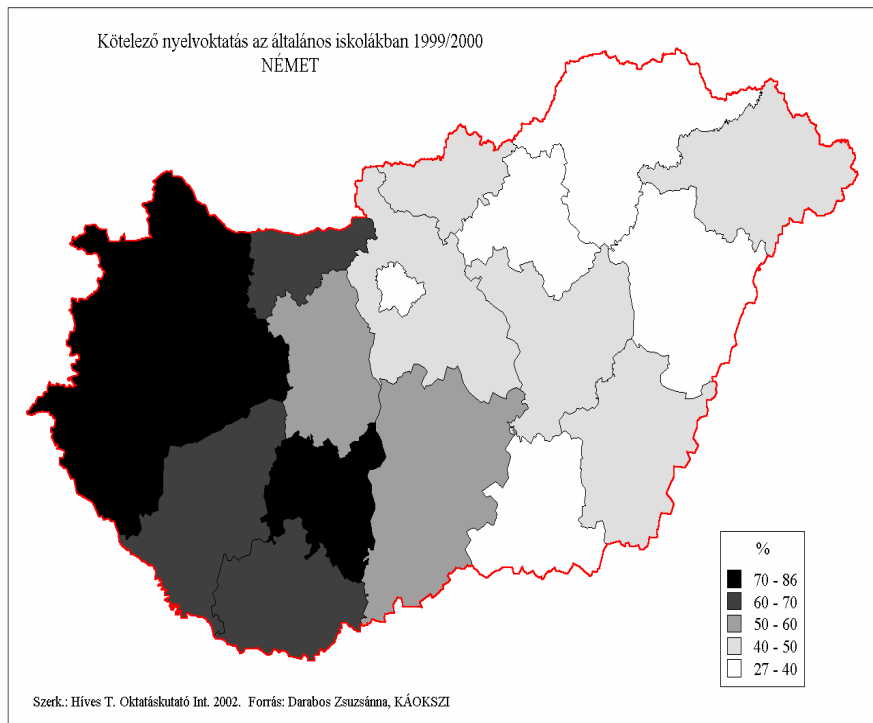
Annex 14 Teaching a second foreign language at primary schools in 1999/2000 GERMAN

Editor: Híves, T., Education Research Institute, 2002   Source: Darabos, Zs., KÁOKSZI

2. idegen nyelv oktatása az általános iskolákban 1999/2000
NÉMET

%
40 - 49
30 - 40
20 - 30
10 - 20
4 - 10

Szerk.: Híves T. Oktatáskutató Int. 2002. Forrás: Darabos Zsuzsánna, KÁOKSZI

79

Kötelező nyelvoktatás az általános iskolákban 1999/2000
OROSZ

%
8,0
1,2 - 1,8
0,6 - 1,2
0,01 - 0,6
0

Szerk.: Híves T. Oktatáskutató Int. 2002. Forrás: Darabos Zsuzsánna, KÁOKSZI

2. idegen nyelv oktatása az általános iskolákban 1999/2000
OROSZ

%
12 - 15
6 - 12
3 - 6
0,1 - 3
0

Szerk.: Híves T. Oktatáskutató Int. 2002. Forrás: Darabos Zsuzsánna, KÁOKSZI

Annex 17

The proportion of learners of Italian and Spanish at primary schools in 1999/2000

Olaszul, latinul és spanyolul tanulók aránya az általános iskolákban, 1999/2000

fő
1 000

Olasz
Latin
Spanyol

Szerk.: Híves T. Oktatáskutató Int. 2002.   Forrás: Darabos Zsuzsánna, KÁOKSZI

Italian
Laatin
Spanish
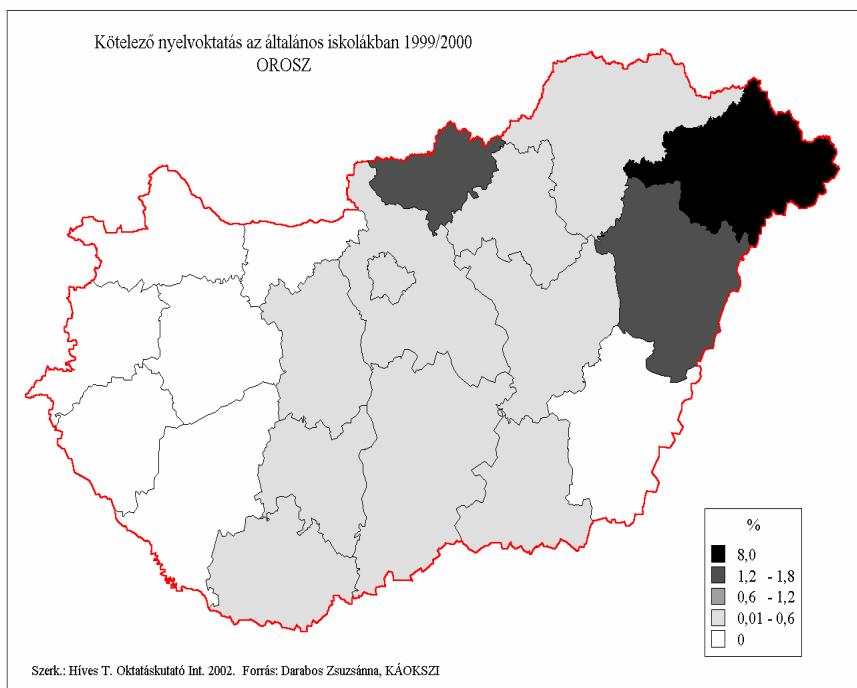
Editor: Híves, T., Education Research Institute, 2002   Source: Darabos, Zs., KÁOKSZI
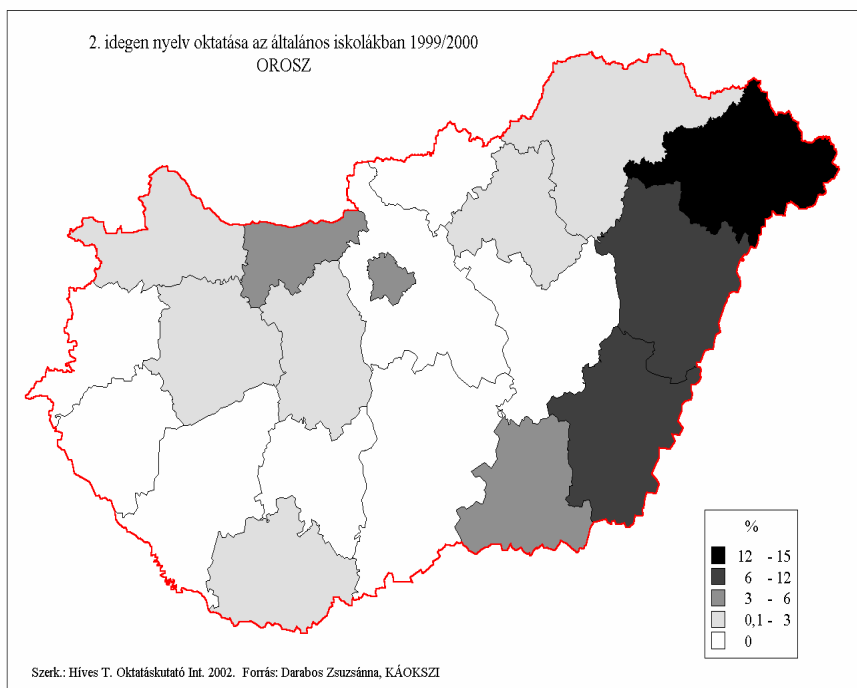
Foreign language education in grammar and technical secondary schools in 1993/94

		Number of pupils			Number of groups	
		Grammar schools	Technical schools	Total	Grammar schools	Technical schools
Russian	Core curriculum	21,066	12,333	33,399		
	Optional	512	169	681		
	Special curriculum	315	7	322		
	Bilingual	208	-	208		
	Other advanced/individual	628	28	656		
	Total	**22,729**	**12,537**	**35,266**	1,655	775
English	Core curriculum	63,750	77,897	141,647		
	Optional	10,821	1,989	12,647		
	Special curriculum	7867	2,477	10,344		
	Bilingual	1758	411	2,169		
	Other advanced/individual	16,468	2,576	19,044		
	Total	**100,673**	**85,350**	**186,124**	6,355	5,313
French	Core curriculum	6,355	8,404	14,759		
	Optional	15,091	125	15,216		
	Special curriculum	1,428	414	1,842		
	Bilingual	1,063	31	1,094		
	Other advanced/individual	7,541,656	84	740		
	Total	**19,992**	9,058	**29,050**	1,444	576
German	Core curriculum	51,579	78,544	130,123		
	Optional	6,563	992	7,555		
	Special curriculum	6,217	1,784	8,001		
	Bilingual	1,373	757	2,130		
	Other advanced/individual	11,354	1,912	13,266		
	Total	**77,086**	**83,939**	**161,075**	5,012	5,263
Italian	Core curriculum	6,742	1,844	8,586		
	Optional	493	103	596		
	Special curriculum	337	33	370		
	Bilingual	402	33	435		
	Other advanced/individual	555	158	713		
	Total	**8,529**	**2,171**	**10,700**	589	151
Spanish	Core curriculum	1,446	169	1,615		
	Optional	293	-	293		
	Special curriculum	224	14	238		
	Bilingual	318	-	318		
	Other advanced/individual	325	-	325		
	Total	**2,606**	**183**	**2,789**	184	11
	Core curriculum	13,096				

Latin	Optional	333				
	Other	292				
	advanced/individual	**13,721**		**13,721**	893	
	Total					

Annex 19

Foreign language education in grammar and technical secondary schools in 1999/2000

		Number of pupils			Number of groups		Vocational school
		Grammar school	Technical school	Total	Grammar school	Technical school	62,783 pupils
Russian	Core curriculum	2,692	1,369	4,061			
	Optional	232	-	232			
	Special curriculum	-	47	47			
	Bilingual	125	-	125			
	Other advanced/individual	39	52	91			
	Total	**3,088**	**1,468**	**4,555**	**263**	**100**	**1,475**
English	Core curriculum	89,042	114,054	203,096			
	Optional	9,124	2,216	11,340			
	Special curriculum	7,835	4,088	11,923			
	Bilingual	2,068	1,663	3,731			
	Other advanced/individual	20,532	5,190	25,722			
	Total	**128,601**	**127,211**	**255,811**	**8,806**	**8,319**	**18,950**
French	Core curriculum	16,213	6,446	22,659			
	Optional	826	390	1,216			
	Special curriculum	585	217	802			
	Bilingual	761	63	824			
	Other advanced/individual	1,243	171	1,414			
	Total	**19,628**	**7,287**	**26,915**	**1,563**	**535**	**1,442**
German	Core curriculum	75,082	95,186	170,268			
	Optional	5,809	1,853	7,662			
	Special curriculum	5,081	3,207	8,288			
	Bilingual	1,522	2,276	3,798			
	Other advanced/individual	15,962	3,019	18,981			
	Total	**103,456**	**105,541**	**208,997**	**7,221**	**7,186**	**40,960**
Italian	Core curriculum	7,155	2,392	9,547			
	Optional	522	343	865			
	Special curriculum	133	4	137			
	Bilingual	382	64	446			
	Other advanced/individual	601	57	658			
	Total	**8,793**	**2,860**	**11,653**	**658**	**215**	**375**
Spanish	Core curriculum	1,925	228	2,153			
	Optional	115	83	198			
	Special curriculum	186	8	194			

	Bilingual	424	-	424			
	Other advanced/individual	334	3	337			
	Total	**2,984**	**322**	**3,306**	**216**	**21**	**99**
Latin	Core curriculum	9,12	808	9,929			
	Optional	662	20	682			
	Other advanced/individual	417	-	417			
	Total	**10,200**	**828**	**11,028**	**751**	**40**	**-**
Others	**Total**	**4,876**	**938**	**5,814**			**344**

Foreign language education in 1-8th grades (2001/2002)

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Total	*Total*
English	〉3 hours	12,283	16,339	24,109	33,530	7,662	28,569	24,026	21,293	167,811	
	3-5 hours	897	2,254	9,972	23,876	54,866	29,906	32,364	27,843	181,978	*354,123*
	〈5 hours	229	245	205	325	1,010	721	831	768	4,334	
German	〉3 hours	5,631	8,192	14,502	22,690	5,503	23,759	21,670	20,902	122,849	
	3-5 hours	1,583	2,070	6,114	17,349	41,942	21,863	25,786	34,543	151,250	*280,555*
	〈5 hours	370	418	455	705	1,415	965	1,045	1,083	6,456	
French	〉3 hours	672	1,010	1,843	3,808	606	4,051	3,647	3,554	19,191	
	3-5 hours		32	101	348	789	477	712	856	3,515	*22,757*
	〈5 hours		9		1	6	13	7	15	51	
Russian	〉3 hours		23	136	288	271	707	637	638	2,700	
	3-5 hours		17		123	318	103	131	170	962	*3,681*
	〈3 hours						1	1	17	19	
Italian	〉3 hours		61	105	23	104	77	170	178	718	
	3-5 hours				56	98	96	158	215	623	*1,371*
	〈5 hours		11	8	11					30	
Spanish	〉3 hours		10	9	21	12	10	30	19	111	
	3-5 hours	20	35	26	39	49	61	30	67	327	*438*
	〈5 hours										
Latin	〉3 hours					505	395	664	797	2,361	
	3-5 hours					724	997	923	525	3,169	*5,530*
	〈5 hours										
Other	〉3 hours	164	192	202	151	112	285	280	198	1,584	
	3-5 hours	5,409	5,685	5,544	5,445	4,939	4,501	4,184	3,993	39,700	*44,862*
	〈5 hours	207	215	242	259	685	722	641	607	3,578	
Total		27,456	36,818	44,573	109,049	122,516	128,286	117,937	118,903	713,017	*713,317*

Source: Statistics of the Ministry of Education

Annex 21

Foreign language education in 9-12th grades (2001/2002)

		9		10		11		12		Total	*Total*
		Grammar school	Technical school	Grammar school	Technical school	Grammar school	Technical school	Grammar school	Technical school		
English	〉**3 hours**	934	838	2,126	1,146	3,007	1,029	1,505	1,002	**11,578**	
	3-5 hours	31,983	25,398	30,031	22,986	26,496	23,827	25,007	20,781	**206,509**	*244,018*
	〈**5 hours**	4,022	1,341	2,778	1,157	2,412	1,146	2,149	917	**15,922**	
German	〉**3 hours**	854	671	2,555	912	2,632	1272	1,339	1179	**11,324**	
	3-5 hours	25,326	19,815	23,275	18,842	21,208	18,817	20,588	17,162	**165,033**	*187,856*
	〈**5 hours**	2,444	1,452	1,923	951	1,703	802	1,557	677	**11,509**	
French	〉**3 hours**	214	101	712	193	503	362	278	262	**2,625**	
	3-5 hours	4,594	859	4,093	986	4,098	1,204	4,071	1,394	**21,299**	*25,201*
	〈**5 hours**	403	97	218	57	199	98	141	64	**1,277**	
Russian	〉**3 hours**	17	37	138	142	134	111	62	198	**839**	
	3-5 hours	53	86	530	77	558	206	552	124	**2,186**	*3,194*
	〈**5 hours**	20		64			43	32	10	**169**	
Italian	〉**3 hours**	59	21	224	55	90	86	58	136	**729**	
	3-5 hours	2,527	218	2,359	318	2,303	449	1,984	573	**10,731**	*12,135*
	〈**5 hours**	157	19	138	50	133	44	87	47	**675**	
Spanish	〉**3 hours**	25	7	117	35	52	69	22	25	**352**	
	3-5 hours	1,014	9	997	3	814	90	730	26	**3,683**	*4,432*
	〈**5 hours**	198		17	56	14	32	35	35	**397**	
Latin	〉**3 hours**	279	151	541	143	461	26	156		**1,757**	
	3-5 hours	1,741	34	1,672		1,629	18	1,718		**6,812**	*8,577*
	〈**5 hours**					8				**8**	
Other	〉**3 hours**	143	16	126	4	51	35	75	37	**487**	
	3-5 hours	403	195	528	195	463	240	432	199	**2,655**	*4,502*
	〈**5 hours**	313	49	237	73	211	118	216	133	**1,360**	
Total											*489,915*

Source: Statistics of the Ministry of Education

Annex 22

The number of primary schools according to minorities (1985-99)

Language	1985/86	1986/87	1987/88	1988/89	1989/90	1990/91	1991/92	1992/93	1993/94	1994/95	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/00
Greek	0	0	0	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Croatian*	*56*	*59*	*53*	*56*	*56*	*53*	*56*	46	43	42	41	37	34	34	34
German	182	183	189	195	197	202	220	238	246	254	254	265	276	281	284
Romanian	13	13	12	12	12	12	12	14	13	11	13	13	13	13	14
Serbian*	*56*	*59*	*53*	*56*	*56*	*53*	*56*	9	10	10	11	12	8	10	11
Slovakian	81	81	76	75	75	69	72	72	75	72	66	67	62	60	59
Slovenian	4	4	4	4	4	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4

Source: Statistics of the Ministry of Education

*   Until the 1991/92 school year Serbo-Croatian language had been offered in minority schools.

Annex 23

The number of minority pupils and the total number of pupils in 1985-99

The number of pupils in minority primary education and the total number of pupils in primary education between 1985/86 – 1999/2000															
Number of pupils	1985/86	1986/87	1987/88	1988/89	1989/90	1990/91	1991/92	1992/93	1993/94	1994/95	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/00
Number of minority pupils	44,388	44,853	44,444	43,501	43,300	44,545	46,166	48,255	48,712	49,679	49,821	51,627	53,021	53,998	55,013
Total	1,297,818	1,299,455	1,277,257	1,242,672	1,183,573	1,130,656	1,081,213	1,044,164	1,009,416	985,291	974,806	965,998	963,997	964,248	960,604

Source: Statistics of the Ministry of Education

Annex 24

The number of pupils in minority primary education in 1990-99

Language	1990/91	1991/92	1992/93	1993/94	1994/95	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/00
Croatian	3,870	3,677	3,348	3,100	2,916	2,639	2,517	2,476	2,579	2,526
German	33,550	35,363	38,268	39,260	40,240	41,029	42,940	44,338	45,240	46,216
Romanian	961	1,006	980	947	945	1,041	1,069	1,127	1,156	1,198
Serbian	3,870	3,677	276	289	282	281	278	227	228	275
Slovakian	5,879	5,527	5,118	4,875	4,765	4,317	4,444	4,409	4,412	4,418
Slovenian	235	197	183	144	134	116	131	120	122	116
Total	*44,495*	*45,770*	*48,173*	*48,615*	*49,282*	*49,423*	*51,379*	*52,697*	*53,737*	*54,749*

Source: Statistics of the Ministry of Education

Annex 25

The number of pupils in minority education according to program types in 1990-99

Criteria	School year									
	1990/91	1991/92	1992/93	1993/94	1994/95	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/00
Mother tongue education	2,295	2,199	2,015	2,243	2,535	2,530	2,813	2,327	2,152	1,760
Bilingual education	2,342	3,110	3,795	4,459	5,059	6,149	6,059	6,281	5,745	5,779
Language course type education	39,908	40,857	42,445	42,010	42,085	41,142	42,755	44,087	46,101	47,474
Total number of pupils	*44,545*	*46,166*	*48,255*	*48,712*	*49,679*	*49,821*	*51,627*	*52,695*	*53,998*	*55,013*

Source: Statistics of the Ministry of Education

Annex 26

The number of primary schools offering minority education according to programme types in 1990-99

Programmes	School year									
	1990/91	1991/92	1992/93	1993/94	1994/95	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/00
Mother tongue education program	23	25	25	28	29	26	27	23	23	18
Bilingual education program	42	46	50	51	52	59	62	60	59	54
Language course type education program	298	313	329	359	361	357	365	345	374	378
The total number of institutions	322	345	359	371	374	371	384	390	393	413

*Source: Statistics of the Ministry of Education*

The number and proportion of pupils generally leaving minority or public education

The first and final school years	Loss of pupils between 1-8th grade				
	Minority pupils (persons)	Minority pupils (%)	Total number in public education (persons)	Total number in public education (%)	The percentage of minority pupils in public education
1985/86-1992/93	581	9.8	18,580	11.4	3.1
1986/87-1993/94	131	2.2	17,634	11.4	0.7
1987/88-1994/95	71	1.3	11,043	8.3	0.6
1988/89-1995/96	292	5.4	11,575	8.8	2.5
1989/90-1996/97	596	10.4	11,831	9.2	5.0
1990/91-1997/98	911	14.6	11,422	9.6	7.9
1991/92-1998/99	1,090	16.9	12,451	9.6	8.8
1992/93-1999/00	1,372	19.2	No data		

1993/94 (1-7th grades)	1,136	16.2
1994/95 (1-6th grades)	786	10.9
1995/96 (1-5th grades)	438	6.2
1996/97 (1-4th grades)	650	8.5
1997/98 (1-3rd grades)	318	4
1998/99 (1-2nd grades)	222	2.8
Total	***8,013 persons***	

Source: Ágnes Vámos, based on education statistics

Annex 28
The actual number of pupils according to two age groups showing the loss of pupils

Comparison of the number of primary school pupils in the 1994/95 school year to the number of pupils in 1-13th grade in 1999/00

Legend:
- 1999/00.tanévi általános iskolai évfolyamok (1-10.)
- 1999/00.tanévi középiskolai évfolyamok (5-13.)
- 1994/95.évi általános iskolai évfolyamok (1-8.) felmenő rendszerben (lemorzsolódás nélkül)
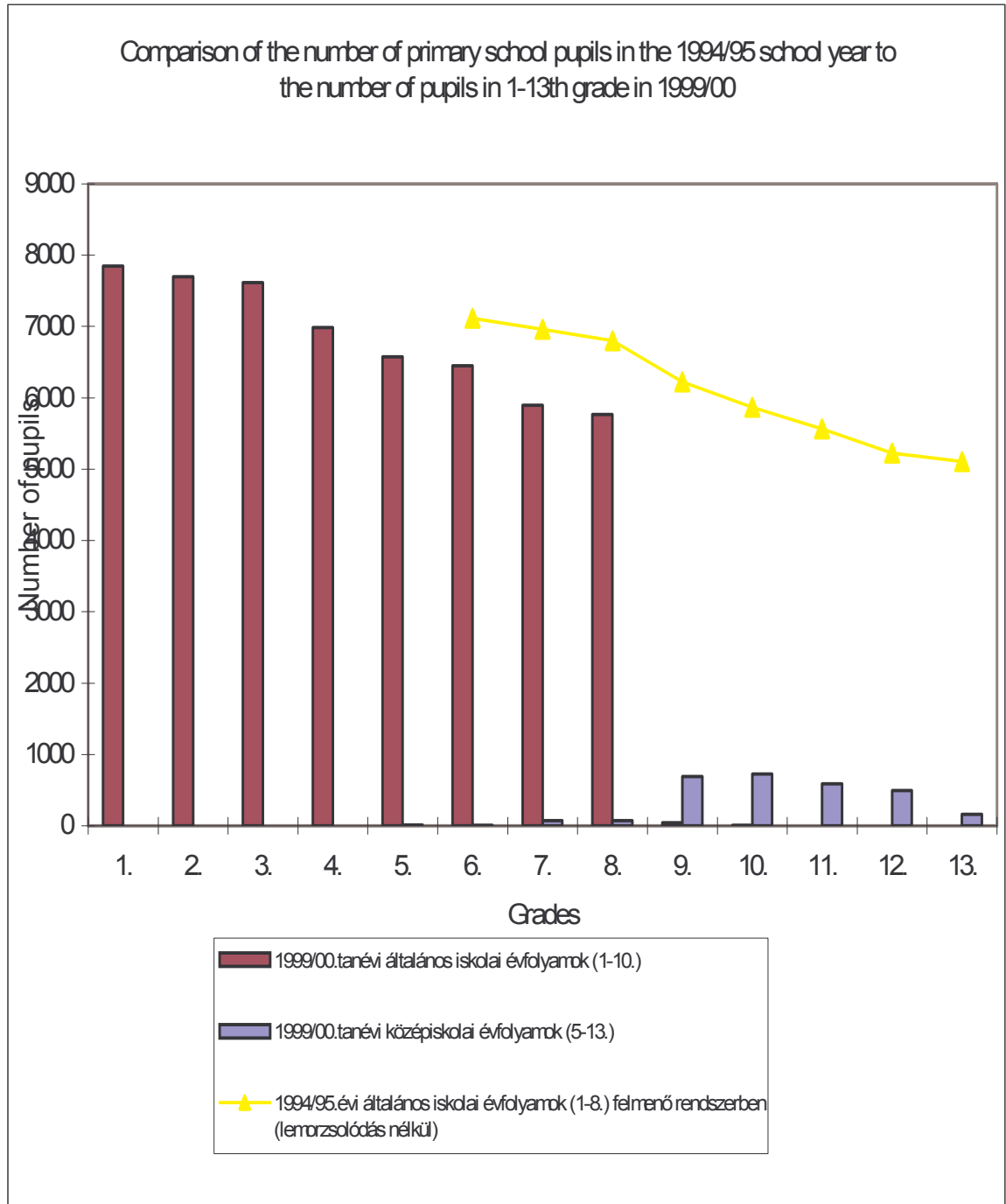
Primary school grades (1-10) in the 1999/2000 school year

Secondary school grades (5-13) in the 1999/2000 school year

Primary school grades (1-8) in the 1994/95 school year (without drop-outs)

Source: Ágnes Vámos

Secondary schools offering bilingual minority education according to languages, types of education and the number of pupils according to years (in the 1999/2000 school year)

Language	Name	Location	Form of education	Number of pupils according to years									Total number of pupils
				5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	
Croatian	Croatian Grammar School	Budapest	Grammar school (5 years)	0	0	0	0	13	23	27	28	22	**113**
Croatian	Miroslav Kreza Croatian Grammar School	Pécs	Grammar school (5 years)	0	0	0	0	8	25	26	18	25	**102**
German	German Minority Grammar School and Foreign Trade Technical School	Pilisvörösvár	Grammar school (6 years)	0	0	21	20	50	0	0	0	0	**91**
German	German Minority Grammar School and Foreign Trade Technical School	Pilisvörösvár	Grammar school (4 years)	0	0	0	0	52	96	0	8	0	**156**
German	German Minority Grammar School and Foreign Trade Technical School	Pilisvörösvár	Technical school	0	0	0	0	0	0	59	33	0	**92**
German	Berzsenyi Dániel Grammar School	Sopron	Grammar school (8 years)	10	8	10	8	36	14	4	6	0	**96**
German	Tolnai Lajos Grammar School	Gyönk	Grammar school (6 years)	0	0	25	22	13	18	20	23	0	**121**
German	Lovassy László Grammar School	Veszprém	Grammar school (4 years)	0	0	0	0	33	34	32	34	0	**133**
German	German Minority Grammar School	Budapest	Grammar school (5 years)	0	0	0	0	32	59	55	45	55	**246**

Language	Name	Location	Form of education	Total number of pupils according to years									Total number of pupils
				5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	
German	Hungarian-German Language Education Centre	Pécs	Grammar school (4 years)	0	0	0	0	60	59	41	25	0	**185**
German	Táncsics Mihály Grammar School	Mór	Grammar school (4 years)	0	0	0	0	12	16	9	16	0	**53**
German	Cultural Centre for the Hungarian German Minority	Baja	Grammar school (5 years)	0	0	0	0	33	99	91	54	59	**336**
Romanian	N. Balcescu Romanian Primary and Grammar School	Gyula	Grammar school (4 years)	0	0	0	0	44	31	27	26	0	**128**
Slovakian	Slovakian Primary and Grammar School	Budapest	Grammar school (4 years)	0	0	0	0	14	18	12	10	0	**54**
Slovakian	Slovakian Primary and Grammar School and Dormitory	Békéscsaba	Grammar school (4 years)	0	0	0	0	11	16	9	7	0	**43**
Total: 16 forms of education in 13 institutions				*10*	*8*	*56*	*50*	*437*	*545*	*449*	*359*	*161*	*2075*

Source: data collected by Ágnes Vámos from the institutions

Secondary schools offering minority language courses* in the 1999/2000 school year according to languages, types of education and the number of pupils according to years

Language	Name	Location	Form of education	Number of pupils according to years									Total number of pupils
				5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	
German	German Minority Grammar School and Foreign Trade Technical School	Pilisvörövár	Grammar school (6 years)	0	0	18	19	0	0	0	0	0	**37**
German	German Minority Grammar School and Foreign Trade Technical School	Pilisvörösvár	Grammar school (4 years)	0	0	0	0	7	14	0	1	0	**22**
German	German Minority Grammar School and Foreign Trade Technical School	Pilisvörösvár	Technical school	0	0	0	0	0	0	14	16	0	**30**
German	Leöwey Klára Grammar School	Pécs	Grammar school (4 years)	0	0	0	0	110	109	89	99	0	**407**
German	Berze Nagy János Grammar School	Szentlőrinc	Grammar school (4 years)	0	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	0	**10**
German	Dr. Marek József Technical School	Mohács	Technical school	0	0	0	0	40	30	31	0	0	**101**
German	Montenuovo Nándor Technical School	Boly	Technical school	0	0	0	0	84	26	0	0	0	**110**
German	Hunyadi János Grammar School	Bácsalmás	Grammar school (4 years)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	16	0	**16**
Slovenian	Vörösmarty Mihály Grammar School**	Szentgotthárd	Grammar school (8 years)	2	0	0	0	1	3	4	0	0	**10**
Total: 9 forms of education in 7 institutions				*2*	*0*	*18*	*19*	*252*	*182*	*138*	*132*	*0*	*743*

Source: data collected by Ágnes Vámos from the institutions

* *Various forms of education in one institution (e.g. grammar school – 4, 6 and 8-year education – and technical school) are treated separately as pupils have to choose between them.*

** *Additional classes*

The number of participants in minority education according to types of schools estimated by local governments supporting these institutions (1998/99)

Type of the institution	Minority language courses	Remedial education for the Roma minority	Minority or bilingual education
Nursery school	32,770	42,392	6846
Primary school	45,304	50,435	8458
Education for pupils with special needs	180	7216	89
Grammar school	696	132	1429
Technical school	124	42	94
Vocational school	30	290	-
Vocational training school	257	362	-
Day-care Centre		20,290	
Dormitory		1629	

Annex 32

The distribution of the Roma according to mother tongue in 1971 and 1993 (%)

	Hungarian	Beas	Romany	Other	Total
1971	71.0	7.6	21.2	0.2	**100**
1993	89.5	5.5	4.4	0.6	**100**

Forrás: Kemény I.: A magyarországi cigányság szerkezete a nyelvi változások tükrében, In: Regio, 1999/1., 10.

Annex 33

Distribution according to spoken languages in 1993 (%)

Hungarian	Beas	Romany	Other
77.0	11.3	11.1	0.6

Source: Kemény, I.: The structure of the Hungarian Roma in the light of linguistic changes, In: Regio, 1999/1., p. 11.

The number of Hungarian-foreign language primary schools according to languages

School year	English	German	Total
1989/1990	0	3	3
1990/1991	1	3	4
1991/1992	1	3	4
1992/1993	2	6	8
1993/1994	2	6	8
1994/1995	2	6	8
1995/1996	3	6	9
1996/1997	4	6	10
1997/1998	5	8	13
1998/1999	5	8	13
1999/2000	11	10	21
2000/2001			
2001/2002	14		

Source: data collected by the Association for Bilingual Schools
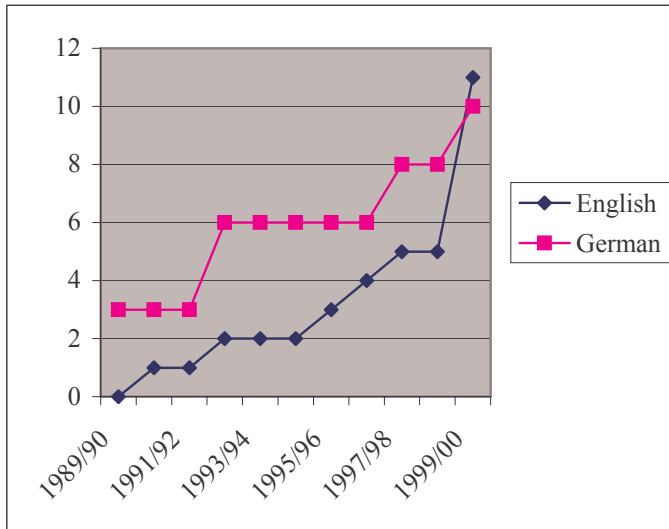
Source: data collected by the Association for Bilingual Schools

Annex 35
The number of foreign pupils and available primary schools according to countries of origin
(1995/96-1999/2000 school years)

Country of origin	The number of pupils and schools									
	19995/1996		1996/1997		1997/1998		1998/1999		1999/2000	
	Person	School	Person	School	Person	School	Person	School	Person	School
Croatia	121	41	141	47	98	36	52	22	52	27
Slovenia	5	4	0	0	5	2	2	2	9	2
Bosnia-Herzegovina	44	11	28	12	16	8	29	8	52	17
Yugoslavia and Monte Negro	376	98	339	99	308	95	295	102	395	118
Romania	621	258	582	267	572	259	648	300	813	368
Slovakia	33	17	27	19	41	24	48	30	60	30
Ukraine	273	124	268	149	305	169	358	184	393	208
Other	880	322	1080	360	1554	375	1796	402	2056	439
Total	*2353*	*875*	*2465*	*953*	*2899*	*968*	*3228*	*1050*	*3830*	*1209*

Source: Statistics of the Ministry of Education

Annex 36
The number and proportion of foreign pupils according to types of secondary schools
(1995/96-1999/2000 school years)

School year	Grammar school pupils		Technical school pupils		All secondary school pupils	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
1995/1996	1148	56.11	898	43.89	2046	100
1996/1997	1195	52.99	1060	47.01	2255	100
1997/1998	1361	52.89	1212	47.10	2573	100
1998/1999	1618	53.21	1423	46.79	3041	100
1999/2000	1863	52.24	1703	47.76	3566	100

Source: statistics of the Ministry of Education

The number and proportion of foreign pupils in primary and secondary schools in the
1999/2000 school year

Country of origin	The number of pupils in primary school	%	The number of pupils in secondary school	%
Bosnia-Herzegovina	52	1.3	20	0.7
Croatia	52	1.3	61	1.7
Yugoslavia	395	10.0	676	19.0
Romania	813	20.2	832	23.3
Slovakia	60	1.6	490	13.7
Slovenia	9	0.0	12	0.3
Ukraine	393	10.2	778	21.8
Total (number of persons)	**1774**		**2869**	
Others	2056	55.4	679	19.0
Total (number and %)	***3830***	***100***	***3566***	***100***

Source: statistics of the Ministry of Education

The distribution of foreign students according to the continents of origin (1999/2000)
(N=580 schools)

Continent	Number	%
Asia	1685	67.37
Europe, EU member states	517	20.67
America	150	6.00
Europe, outside the EU and the neighbouring countries of Hungary	138	5.52
Africa	11	0.44
Australia and Oceania	0	0.00
Total	***2501***	***100***

Source: Ágnes Vámos

Annex 39

The distribution of languages offered in higher education to students not majoring in languages

Academic year	English	French	Latin	German	Italian	Russian	Spanish	Others	Total
1999/2000	36,480	3828	5432	19946	2121	1569	1464	No data	**70,840**
2000/2001	41,582	3942	6176	23110	2505	1351	2032	2121	***82,819**

Source: Statistics of the Ministry of Education

*   A student may study more than one language.

Annex 40

The number of students studying neo-Latin languages in the 2000-2001 academic year

Institution	French	Italian	Spanish	Total
Budapest Business College	772	456	333	****1561**
Budapest University of Economics and State Administration	224	94	144	**462**
Budapest Technical and Economic University	463	164	237	****864**
International Business School (IBS)	66	30	121	**217**
Total:	**1525**	**744**	**835**	*****3104**

Source: Statistics of the Ministry of Education

**   These two specialised institutions in Budapest teach more than three quarters of the students studying Russian in higher education.

***   This figure means that 35% of all higher education students in a total of 60 institutions who study French, Italian and Spanish graduate from these four institutions!

The proportion of state language certificate holders enrolled in the first year between 1997 and 1999

The number and type of the exam / School year	One language, C type, intermediate	Two languages, C type, intermediate	One language, C type, elementary *	Two languages, C type, elementary	One language, C type, advanced	Total
1999/2000	13.73%	2.97%	1.62%	0.07%	2.84%	**21.29%**
1998/1999	16.32%	3.33%	1.77%	0.10%	3.07%	**24.60%**
1997/1998	18.97%	3.21%	1.92%	0.09%	3.44%	**27.63%**
Average of 3 years	**16.36%**	**3.17%**	**1.77%**	**0.09%**	**3.12%**	**24.51%**

* Data concerning elementary level language examinations are not important for various reasons. On the one hand a language examination below an intermediate level C examination is not considered as valuable by secondary school pupils and their parents, therefore only few pupils try to pass such examinations. On the other hand as no bonus points are awarded for elementary level language examinations, during the admission process only a few applicants declare having such certificates.

The number of applicants to the National Competition of Secondary School Pupils 1

Foreign languages

	English		German		French		Russian		Italian		Spanish	Latin
1989/90	2542	2338	2095	1440	607	364	855	1677	1737			
	4880		**3535**		**971**		**3669**		**315**		**112**	**379**
1993/94	2530	2950	1548	2556	725	625	734	202				
	5445		**4104**		**1350**		**936**		**537**		**141**	**883**
1995/96	1925	3623	1525	2534	519	538	312	170	303	198		
	5548		**4059**		**1057**		**482**		**501**		**137**	**806**
1997/98			2964	1888	553	544	101	161	278	195		
	5989		**4852**		**997**		**262**		**473**		**190**	**727**
1999/00			2596	1784	563	510			325	232		
	5391		**4380**		**1073**		**119**		**557**		**244**	**663**
2001/02			2665	1621	587	393			354	191		
	5695		**4186**		**980**		**135**		**545**		**222**	**621**

Source: Kiss Árpád National Public Education Institute

The number of applicants to the National Competition of Secondary School Pupils 2

Minority languages

	Croatian	**German**	**Romanian**	**Serbian**	**Slovakian**	**Slovenian**
1997/1998	13	45	-	4	18	-
1999/2000	24	202	6	6	7	-
2000/2001	15	300	16	2	9	4

Source: Kiss Árpád National Public Education Institute

Annex 44

Applications for final examination

		2001		**2002**	
		Pupil		**Institution**	
English	Core curriculum	16,602	15,768	534	517
	Adult	233	no data	37	
	Target language	419	465	13	14
	Special	762	633	65	61
	Dance	17	no data	1	
	World Bank	7183	10146	220	267
	Music	10	no data	1	
	Technical school	no data	6793		274
	Total	**25,226**	**33,805**		
French	Core curriculum	1225	1203	216	210
	Adult	7	no data	4	no data
	Target language	148	114	5	4
	Special	89	37	9	6
	Dance	3	no data	1	no data
	World Bank	151	239	14	23
	Technical school	no data	426		39
	Total	**1623**	**2019**		
German	Core curriculum	11,872	11,317	521	508
	Adult	98	no data	35	no data
	Target language	406	337	15	13
	Special	438	372	50	46
	Dance	12	no data	1	no data
	World Bank	5021	7259	200	261
	Music	18	no data	2	no data
	Technical school	no data	6585		280
	Total	**17,885**	**25,870**		
Italian	Core curriculum	573	645	113	117
	Adult	13	no data	4	no data
	Target language	73	20	4	2
	Special	1	10	1	1
	Dance	1	no data	1	no data
	World Bank	13	59	2	4
	Technical school	no data	103		11

	Total	**674**	**837**		
Russian	Core curriculum	173	166	53	53
	Adult	4	no data	2	no data
	Target language	40	26	1	1
	World Bank	31	26	4	4
	Technical school	no data	21		4
	Total	**248**	**239**		
Spanish	Core curriculum	219	220	40	39
	Adult	1	no data	1	no data
	Target language	64	62	1	1
	Special	4	2	2	1
	World Bank	13	0	1	0
	Technical school	no data	10		1
	Total	**301**	**292**		

Arabic		2	3		1
Beas (Roma)		2	10		1
Czech			1		1
Esperanto		10	1	2	1
Finnish		5	8	3	5
Hebrew	Core curriculum Adult	18 1	19	3 1	4
Dutch		5	4	1	2
Croatian		15	58		8
Japanese		11	34	6	7
Latin		709	649	128	139
Polish		12	8	5	6
Lovari (Roma)	Core curriculum Adult	6 1	4	1 1	2
Ancient Greek		1	0		1
Norwegian			1		1
Portuguese		4	6	3	2
Romanian		20	11	8	4
Swedish		12	7	1	2
Serbian		5	10		4
Slovakian		19	16		5
Greek		2	2		2
Ukrainian		48	42	1	2
Minority	**Croatian** **German** **Romanian** **Serbian** **Slovakian**	39 325 25 37 17	48 420 33 32 22		2 9 1 1 2

Source: Kiss Árpád National Public Education Institute

- 2001. Hungarian core curriculum:
  - in Albanian, English, French, Croatian, German, Russian, Romanian, Serbian, Slovakian, Vietnamese
  - Hungarian adult education:
    - in Mongolian
- 2002. Hungarian core curriculum:
  - in English, Bulgarian, Croatian, German, Italian, Russian, Romanian, Spanish, Serbian, Slovakian
- Latin in 2001: 709 (128), no data available for 2002.

Annex 45

Locations of language examination according to Examination Centres

No.	Examination Centre	Number of locations
1.	BGF	12
2.	BKÁE - Oeconom	6
3.	BME	9
4.	Coventry House - Trinity	15
5.	Goethe Institut	17
6.	IH - Euro	18
7.	ITK - Origó	73
8.	KIT	9
9.	KJF - Hall	1
10.	Ministry of Foreign Affaires	1
11.	OR-ZSE	1
12.	Austrian Instute	8
13.	VE - Pannon	1
14.	Pitman	43
15.	PTE - Profex	8
16.	PTE - ECL	16
17.	SZIE - Zöld út	6
18.	TIT - TELC	33
19.	ZMNE - Arma	1
	Total:	**278**

Source: Language Examination Accreditation Centre (NYAK)

Number and proportion of language examinations

100% = 157,294

No.	Language	Number	%
1.	English	92,323	58.694
2.	German	49,085	31.200
3.	Esperanto	4205	2.673
4.	French	3325	2.113
5.	Lovari	2042	1.298
6.	Italian	1983	1.260
7.	Russian	1346	0.855
8.	Spanish	1208	0.767
9.	Latin	496	0.315
10.	Hungarian	285	0.181
11.	Romanian	234	0.148
12.	Croatian	195	0.123
13.	Slovakian	160	0.101
14.	Serbian	128	0.081
15.	Beas	86	0.054
16.	Polish	55	0.035
17.	Dutch	32	0.020
18.	Modern Hebrew	32	0.020
19.	Portugese	24	0.015
20.	Japanese	15	0.009
21.	Bulgarian	11	0.007
22.	Turkish	10	0.006
23.	Slovenian	9	0.005
24.	Arabic	5	0.003
25.	Biblical Hebrew	0	0.000

Source: Language Examination Accreditation Centre (NYAK)

Number and proportion of English and German language examinations

1.	English and German	141,408	89.9
2.	Other languages	15,886	10.1

Source: Language Examination Accreditation Centre (NYAK)

Annex 47

Breakdown of language examinations according to types

100% = 157,294

No.	Type of examination	Number of examinations	%
1.	general	141,695	90
2.	technical	15,599	10

Source: Language Examination Accreditation Centre (NYAK)

Annex 48

Breakdown of language examinations according to levels

100% = 157,294

No.	Level	Number	%
1.	Elementary	35,663	22.7
2.	Intermediate	112,800	71.7
3.	Advanced	8,831	5.6

Source: Language Examination Accreditation Centre (NYAK)

Annex 49

The number of full-time students majoring in languages who graduated in 2001

Language / Academic year	English	French	German	Italian	Spanish	Other[**]	Total
College teacher's diploma,	733	84	506	101	11	–	**1435**
College teacher's diploma of language and literature,	329	85	[*]274	60	60	174	**982**
University teacher's diploma of language and literature	638	151	484	82	62	271	**1688**
Total	**1700**	**320**	**1264**	**243**	**133**	**445**	**4105**

Source: Ministry of Education Statistics

[*]   Ten holders of a diploma of minority language and literature are included.
[**]   Two recently graduated persons are included who majored in a new subject: "Hungarian as a foreign language".

Annex 50
Language majors at the Faculty of Humanities and the opportunity to obtain a teacher's diploma

MAJORS	IS A TEACHER'S DIPLOMA OFFERED?	PROPORTION OF PRACTICE (%)
Altaic* studies	No	48
American studies	**Yes**	****43**
English language and literature	**Yes**	****43**
Arabic studies*	No	47
Assyriological studies*	No	38
Bulgarian language and literature	**Yes**	**43**
Czech language and literature	No	43
Egyptological studies*	No	50
Estonian studies	No	60
Finnish language and literature	No	47
Finno-Ugric studies*	No	44
French language and literature	**Yes**	****36**
Hebrew studies*	No	56
Croatian language and literature	**Yes**	**43**
Indian studies*	No	30
Iranian studies*	No	49
Japanese studies	**Yes**	**54**
Chinese studies	No	31
Latin language and literature	**Yes**	**45**
Polish studies	**Yes**	**44**
Hungarian as a foreign language	**Yes**	**47**
Mongolian studies	No	42
Dutch studies	**Yes**	**47**
German Minority Language and literature	**Yes**	****35**
German language and literature	**Yes**	****35**
Italian language and literature	**Yes**	****35**
Russian language and literature	**Yes**	****34**
Ancient Greek studies	**Yes**	**55**
Portuguese language and literature	**Yes**	**38**
Romanian language and literature	**Yes**	**26**
Roma studies	**Yes**	**20**
Scandinavian studies	No	40
Spanish language and literature	**Yes**	****35**
Serbian language and literature	**Yes**	**43**
Slovakian language and literature	**Yes**	**43**
Slovenian language and literature	**Yes**	**43**
Tibetan studies	No	42
Turkish studies	No	47
Ukrainian language and literature	**Yes**	**50**
Modern Greek language and literature	**Yes**	**46**

Source: Ministry of Education Statistics

*   These training programmes teach several European and/or non-European languages.
**   These languages are the most frequently taught in Hungary.

Annex 51
  Higher education institutions offering teacher training for national/ethnic minorities

Secondary school teacher training:
- Eötvös Lóránt University of Sciences (ELTE) BTK – Budapest (German, Slovakian, Croatian, Serbian, Slovenian, Bulgarian, Polish, Greek, Ukrainian)
- Pázmány Péter Catholic University – Piliscsaba (German, Slovakian)
- József Attila University of Sciences – Szeged (German, Serbian, Bulgarian, Ukrainian)
- Pécs University of Sciences BTK – Pécs (German)

Primary school teacher training:
- Szeged University of Sciences, Juhász Gyula Teacher Training College Faculty – Szeged (German, Slovakian, Romanian)
- Berzsenyi Dániel College – Szombathely (German, Croatian, Slovenian)
- Nyíregyháza College – Nyíregyháza (Ukrainian)
- Pécs University of Sciences BTK (Croatian)

Primary school teacher training for 1-4th grades:
- ELTE Teacher Training College Faculty – Budapest (Serbian, German)
- Eötvös József Teachers College – Baja (German, Croatian)
- Pécs University of Sciences Illyés Gyula Teacher Training College Faculty – Szekszárd (German)
- Apor Vilmos Catholic College – Zsámbék (German)
- Tessedik Sámuel College, Körös College Faculty – Békéscsaba (Slovakian, Romanian)
- Vitéz János Roman Catholic Teacher Training College – Esztergom (German, Slovakian)

Nursery teacher training:
- Eötvös József Teachers College – Baja (German, Croatian)
- Pécs University of Sciences Illyés Gyula Teacher Training College Faculty – Szekszárd (German, Croatian)
- Nyugat-Magyarországi Egyetem Benedek Elek Teacher Training College Faculty – Sopron (German, Croatian)
- Tessedik Sámuel College, Brunszvik Teréz Nursery School Teacher Training Faculty – Szarvas (Slovakian, Romanian)

Annex 52

Higher education institutions involved in Roma teachers training

Pedagogy Department, Faculty of Humanities of ELTE University – Budapest: *Roma Section*

Cultural Anthropology Department, Faculty of Humanities of ELTE University – Budapest: *program*

Romology Department, Faculty of Humanities of Pécs University of Sciences – Pécs

Nyíregyháza College – Nyíregyháza: *special course*

Kaposvár University – Kaposvár: *postgraduate course in Romology*

Apor Vilmos Catholic College – Zsámbék: *Roma Department*

Teacher Training College Faculty of ELTE University – Budapest: *special course*

Comenius Teacher Training College Faculty of Miskolc University – Sárospatak: *special course*

Cultural Anthropology Department, Faculty of Humanities of Miskolc University: *special course*

Kölcsey Ferenc Calvinist Teacher Training College – Debrecen: *postgraduate course in Romology*

Brunszvik Teréz Nursery Teacher Training Faculty of Tessedik Sámuel College – Szarvas: *special course*

Eötvös József College of Pedagogy– Baja: *special course*

Wargha István College Faculty of Pedagogy of Debrecen University – Hajdúböszörmény: *special course*