



Testing the linguistic-justice index

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WORKING PAPER NO. 24-1

Updated: 2024-02-16

REAL

Research group “Economics, policy analysis, and language”



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Abstract

This study empirically applies the indicators proposed by Gazzola, Wickström, and Fettes in their seminal article, “Towards an Index of Linguistic Justice” (Gazzola, Wickström, and Fettes, 2023). Utilizing public policy analysis, the research aims to create an index specifically designed for the systematic and comparative evaluation of linguistic justice in different language policies. The central focus is on assessing the “minimum threshold of linguistic justice” within government language policies, particularly examining their impact on the linguistic rights of minority populations in the domains of law and order, public administration, and essential services.

The article is structured into two main sections. Firstly, it provides a detailed overview of the methodology employed for country selection and data collection, laying a robust foundation for subsequent analyses. The second section critically examines government language policies within the specified domains, offering a comprehensive understanding of their implications for linguistic justice. Populating the indicators involves a dual consideration: evaluating the adequacy of available data to support diverse indicators and assessing the accessibility of relevant documents, considering potential expenses associated with obtaining specific data.

This study contributes significantly to language-policy research by departing from traditional case-by-case and comparative approaches, introducing a systematic evaluation of linguistic justice across countries. The empirical application of Gazzola, Wickström, and Fettes’ indicators promises to deepen our understanding of the complex dynamics between government language policies and the protection of linguistic rights for minority communities.

Sommario

Questa ricerca applica in modo empirico gli indicatori proposti da Gazzola, Wickström e Fettes nel loro articolo fondamentale, «Verso un Indice di Giustizia Linguistica» (Gazzola, Wickström e Fettes, 2023). Utilizzando l’analisi delle politiche pubbliche, la ricerca mira a

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creare un indice appositamente progettato per valutare in modo sistematico e comparativo la giustizia linguistica in diverse politiche linguistiche. Il focus principale è sull' valutazione della «soglia minima di giustizia linguistica» all'interno delle politiche linguistiche governative, con particolare attenzione al modo in cui queste politiche rispettano i diritti linguistici delle popolazioni minoritarie nei settori della legge e dell'ordine, della pubblica amministrazione e dei servizi essenziali.

L'articolo è strutturato in due sezioni principali. In primo luogo, fornisce una panoramica dettagliata della metodologia utilizzata per la selezione dei paesi e la raccolta dati, ponendo una solida base per le analisi successive. La seconda sezione esamina criticamente le politiche linguistiche governative nei settori specificati, offrendo una comprensione completa delle loro implicazioni per la giustizia linguistica. La popolazione degli indicatori comporta una doppia considerazione: valutare l'adeguatezza dei dati disponibili per sostenere indicatori diversificati e valutare l'accessibilità dei documenti pertinenti, considerando eventuali spese associate all'ottenimento di dati specifici.

Questa ricerca contribuisce significativamente alla ricerca sulle politiche linguistiche, allontanandosi dagli approcci tradizionali caso per caso e comparativi, introducendo una valutazione sistematica della giustizia linguistica tra i paesi. L'applicazione empirica degli indicatori di Gazzola, Wickström e Fettes promette di approfondire la comprensione delle complesse dinamiche tra le politiche linguistiche governative e la protezione dei diritti linguistici delle comunità minoritarie.

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Introduction

The recognition of linguistic justice as a significant concept in academic research has spurred the need for its measurement and comparison. In response, the authors of this paper aim to develop and test a practical index that assesses linguistic equality within a country, akin to the Human Development Index, and lends itself to international comparisons. This article is part of a larger project on the evaluation of linguistic justice, supported by Ulster University and the Esperantic Studies Foundation. While absolute linguistic equality in government language policy is unattainable due to practical difficulties of accommodating all languages present in a society, the distributional effects of these decisions can be effectively analysed and monitored through a well-designed index. The study focuses on language policy research, traditionally conducted on a case-by-case and comparative basis, with the objective of evaluating linguistic justice in different countries.

The present study explores the empirical application of the set of indicators proposed by Gazzola, Wickström and Fettes in their article "Towards an Index of Linguistic Justice" (Gazzola, Wickström and Fettes, 2023). The article proposes an approach that utilizes public policy analysis to design an index of linguistic justice, facilitating a systematic and comparative evaluation of the fairness of different language policies. The article suggests focusing on the evaluation of a "minimum threshold of linguistic justice" by examining the extent to which government language policy respect the linguistic rights of minorities in three domains: law and order, public administration, and essential services.

The study focuses on language-policy research, traditionally conducted on a case-by-case and comparative basis, with the objective of evaluating linguistic justice in different countries. This article is structured as follows: firstly, it provides an overview on the methodology of the country selection and the methodology on data collection. Secondly, the study explores government language policies in three domains: law and order, public administration, and essential services. Populating the indicators involves two aspects: a) determining whether the available data is sufficient to support the various indicators of the linguistic justice index, and b) assessing the accessibility of documents and potential expenses involved in acquiring specific data or documents.

This index would prove valuable for policymakers, enabling them to make objective and systematic comparisons of language policies, including the impact of majority-minority language dynamics and language prohibitions.

Country Sample and Selection

The proposed sample consists of 15 countries. The group is relatively small; hence a thorough and systematic analysis of all the index indicators will be possible. The criteria to select the country are:

1. Council of Europe/Schengen/EU: Countries that are members of the Council of Europe, the Schengen Area, or the European Union were considered for inclusion.
2. Geography: The European continent was divided into five geographical areas - West, East, Central, North, and South. Countries from each of these regions were included to ensure representation from different parts of Europe.

3. Income - GDP per capita: The GDP per capita data from 2021, sourced from the World Bank, were used to assess the economic status of countries. Countries with varying levels of GDP per capita were selected to take diversity of aggregate income into account.
4. International Conventions: Countries that have ratified international conventions protecting human, minority, and linguistic rights were given greater priority for inclusion.
5. Language: The language factor was evaluated based on two parameters in Ethnologue – degree of vitality and official recognition. The Ethnologue catalogue categorizes languages based on their level of development or endangerment, ranging from international to extinct. Additionally, the official recognition of languages at the national or provincial level was considered, including the categories of statutory national language, de facto national language, recognized language, and regionally recognized language. The categorisation provided by Ethnologue, however, is sometimes debatable: the status of “statutory” language is given to official languages, but also to some minority languages which are official but only in specific regions. Therefore, the categorisation adopted in this article takes inspiration from Ethnologue but divides among 1) Majority languages, spoken by the majority of the population despite its legal status, 2) Autochthonous minority languages, spoken by a minority of the population (defined as a percentage of the population that is significantly lower than the majority, as less than 25% of the total), despite its legal status, 3) Multination languages, namely languages that do not qualify as either majority or minority but are spoken by a nation within a federal, confederate or union of states such as Switzerland or Belgium . Allochthonous languages spoken by new minorities were also considered, and are identified as the first language and/or the language spoken at home of people from migrant background (born in a different country, or born in the sample country from parents that have relocated in their adult life)

These criteria offer useful parameters for guiding the selection of countries, including consideration of their languages, participation in international organizations, ratification of international conventions, and various socio-economic indicators such as GDP per capita and population.

Here is a quick overview of the selected countries, beginning with the countries that share membership in the European Union, the Council of Europe, and the Schengen area: Belgium, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Poland and Spain.

- Belgium has multiple official languages, including Dutch and French, and also recognizes German as a provincial language. Linguistic minorities such as Luxembourgish, Picard, and Walloon are recognised.
- Denmark has Danish as its official language, with recognition of German and Swedish in specific regions. Linguistic minorities in Denmark include Greenlandic, which is recognised language in Greenland.
- Estonia has Estonian as its official language, with Russian having a significant presence. Linguistic minorities in Estonia include Finnish and German.
- Finland has Finnish and Swedish as its official languages. Linguistic minorities in Finland include Saami languages and allochthonous languages such as Arabic and Chinese.
- France has French as its official language. While its linguistic landscape is quite diverse, including autochthonous languages like Catalan, Corsican, Occitan, and Basque, and numerous allochthonous languages such as Arabic, Berber, and Turkish, no other language is granted official status.

- Germany, a member of the mentioned organizations, has German as its official language and recognizes regional languages such as Danish, Romani, Low Saxon, Sorbian, Frisian. Linguistic minorities in Germany include Polish and Turkish.
- Hungary has Hungarian as the predominant national language, but the country also recognizes several other languages, including Croatian, German, Serbian, Slovene, English, Greek, Romani, and Romanian, among others.
- Italy's official language is Italian, but Italy also acknowledges several regional languages such as French, German (including Walser, Cimbrian, and Mochoeno), Slovene Franco-Provençal, Griko, Arbëreshë, Croat, Friulian, Ladin, Occitan, Sardinian, and Catalan, which have varying degrees of usage and vitality within specific regions.
- Poland's national language is Polish. In addition to Polish, Poland recognizes as minority languages Armenian, Belarusian, Czech, German, Yiddish, Hebrew, Lithuanian, Russian, Slovak, Ukrainian. Slovenia has Slovenian as its official language. The country also recognizes Italian and Hungarian as co-official languages in certain regions. Additionally, Croatian and Romani have some degree of recognition and official use in specific areas.
- Switzerland has three official languages: German, French, Italian, while Romansh is a national language. The three official languages correspond to the major linguistic regions within Switzerland. In addition to the official languages, various Swiss German dialects and other regional languages are spoken. The linguistic diversity in Switzerland reflects its federal structure.
- The United Kingdom does not have an official language at the national level, but English is the *de facto* primary language used in government and education. However, the UK recognises and promotes the use of Welsh in Wales, Scots Gaelic in Scotland, and Irish and Ulster Scots in Northern Ireland. Additionally, Cornish is given some degree of recognition, even though it is mostly at a symbolic level.
- Romania's national language is Romanian, and Romania also recognizes several provincial languages, including Hungarian, English, French, Albanian, Aromanian, Bulgarian, Croatian, Czech, German, Greek, Italian, Polish, Russian, Serbian, Slovak, Turkish, and Ukrainian. These languages have different levels of recognition and usage within specific regions of the country. Contrary to the countries above, Georgia is not of the European Union or the Schengen area, but it is party to the Council of Europe, hence it is bounded to respect of human and minority rights expressed by the European Convention on Human Rights. Georgian is the official language, with Russian widely spoken as a *de facto* working language. Abkhaz is recognized as a provincial language, and linguistic minorities in Georgia comprise Azerbaijani, Kurdish, and Chechen.

A more detailed overview of the data collected to guide the selection process is included in the Appendix.

Data Collection and Methodology

Table 1 outlines the indicators developed by Gazzola, Wickström and Fettes (2023). A commentary on the challenges to implementation of these ten indicators, including an analysis of data availability

and a test of validity and comparability, can be found on the REAL Working Paper “Populating an Index of Linguistic Justice” (Gialdini, 2023a).

Methodology

The data for the indicators in this study have been collected from various sources, including reviewing legal documents and policy briefs according to Interpretative Content Analysis (Bowen, 2009; Drisko and Maschi, 2016). Legal documents were retrieved from the European Union legal database Eulex and the legal registries of the various countries. Legislation in minority languages was obtained from regional, devolved, or local authorities, depending on the administrative arrangements in the specific country. Data regarding public services such as tax forms or hospital multilingual policies were collected by the relevant institutions, such as revenue agencies and healthcare services. Some official websites, such as the Danish Tax and Revenue service or the Romanian legal repository, cannot be accessed from abroad; in such cases, the data collection required the use of a VPN to locate the IP address of the researcher in the target country.

In some cases, the researcher employed AI translator software, such as Google Translator and DeepL, to overcome language barriers and access content that would otherwise be unintelligible. This approach enabled a more comprehensive analysis of the subject matter utilizing a broader range of sources. However, it is important to acknowledge that the use of AI translators may introduce certain limitations and inaccuracies in the data, and so the findings and interpretations of the study should be interpreted with caution.

In other to access data on street signs and other features of the linguistic landscape, the study first took account of any existing legal or policy documents on the topic; bilingual countries or regions typically have specific norms regarding toponyms or road signs, including the designation of historical landmarks or buildings of public interest such as city halls or hospitals. In addition, visual data obtained from sources like Google Street View or other virtual collections of imagery could provide additional information about the situation on the ground.

The table below describes the indicators by their domain and level.

Dimension	Level-domain	Indicator
<i>Toleration</i>	Systemic: Private life	1. Absence of legislation or measures restricting the use of any language in the private life of residents in the jurisdiction examined
	Systemic: Business life	2. Absence of legislation or measures forbidding the written public use of any language by businesses provided that a translation in the local dominant language is available
<i>Accommodation</i>	Operational: Law and order	3. Existence of the right to assistance in one's first language during trials in criminal procedures

Dimension	Level-domain	Indicator
	Operational: Essential public services	4. Proportion of centres for asylum seekers in the jurisdiction examined employing staff or linguistic mediators fluent in at least one non-official language relevant to the asylum seekers (corrected for the total number of asylum seekers and the total population of the country)
<i>Compensation</i>	Systemic: Recognition	5. Aggregate indicator of recognition of languages traditional minorities. Potential implementation of explicit legal or administrative rights such as to receive official information and to address and receive answers from authorities in one's first language
		6. Aggregate indicator of recognition of languages of resident migrants, asylum-seekers and refugees. Potential implementation of explicit legal or administrative rights such as to receive official information and to address and receive answers from authorities in one's first language
	Operational: Law and order	7. Proportion of legally binding documents such as laws and regulations published online per year in the languages spoken in the jurisdiction examined (weighted across citizens and the indicator of recognition of the individual languages)
	Operational: Administration	8. Proportion administrative forms of the tax office and the population registry released/published online per year in the languages spoken of the jurisdiction examined (weighted across citizens and the indicator of recognition of the individual languages)
		9. Proportion of toponyms (street and place names) available in the languages of the jurisdiction examined (weighted across citizens, the indicator of recognition of the individual languages, and administrative sub-units)
	Operational: Essential public services	10. Proportion of public hospitals and clinics in which consultations are available in the languages of the jurisdiction examined (weighted across citizens, the indicator of recognition of the individual languages, and administrative sub-units)

Table 1: Indicators

Target Population

Gazzola, Wickström, and Fettes highlight the importance of indicators being applicable to different groups of language speakers affected by language policy, although the level of applicability may vary depending on the nature of these groups. In terms of the target population, Gazzola, Wickström, and Fettes identify three main groups: the dominant or majority language speakers, traditional or autochthonous minorities, and minorities resulting from recent immigration (such as resident

migrants, asylum-seekers, and refugees, often referred to as "new minorities"), as well as Deaf communities. This implies that when collecting data for the indicators, relevant data should be gathered for all these groups, including the dominant group and both old and new minorities, unless otherwise specified. However, it's important to note that the present study does not address Sign Languages at this time, since more in-depth research on the modalities of communication of Deaf people and the availability of relevant data would be required to properly address the issue.

In this analysis, the focus will be on minorities that have received official recognition by the Council of Europe through its Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities (FCNM), the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages (ECRML) or by domestic legislation. These recognised minorities are granted specific rights and protections. Considering that some countries in the sample have recognized a significant number of minorities, this study will focus on the two largest historical minorities and the three largest allochthonous minorities to compare practices across jurisdictions. The main purpose of the present study is to get a feel for what it takes to apply the indicators in practice; to do so, the researcher aims to assess the availability of documents that feed the index. For this exploratory analysis, hence, the choice of minority languages has been reduced in favour of a larger sample of countries. A more detailed analysis could be conducted on a smaller sample or even on a single country to specifically assess significant discrepancies in the implementation of policies related to the recognition of linguistic and minority rights. Indeed, further research comparing the level of linguistic justice across Europe is highly needed. Regarding the identification of new linguistic minorities, the study relies on data from the Ethnologue database, in particular the category labelled “Unestablished/Emerging” languages. This category, indeed, collects the languages spoken by long-term foreign residents who do not fall under the definition of traditional minorities. As mentioned, some adaptations to the categories laid out by Ethnologue are needed concerning the status of minority languages. This study focuses on language policies rather than linguistic rights—specifically, the allocation of resources for promoting and using a given language in the public sphere. While official recognition is one of the indicators, it only tells part of the story. Therefore, the distinction is adjusted based on the number of speakers: 1) Majority languages: Spoken by the majority of the population irrespective of its legal status; 2) Autochthonous Minority languages: Spoken by a minority of the population (defined as a percentage *significantly* lower than the majority, i.e., less than 25% of the total) irrespective of its legal status; 3) Allochthonous languages spoken by new minorities, e.g. migrants and refugees.. For the purpose of this study, the two largest of the second, third and fourth groups are taken into analysis.

Table 2 portrays the target populations in different countries, namely the people to which linguistic justice policy interventions are directed.

Country	Majority Languages	Authochthonous Minority Languages	Allochthonous Languages
Belgium	Dutch, French	German	Arabic, Italian
Denmark	Danish (de facto)	German, Greenlandic	Arabic, Spanish
Finland	Finnish,	Swedish, Saami	Arabic, Russian
Estonia	Estonian	NA	Belarusian, Ukrainian

France ¹	French	Alsatian, Occitan	Arabic, Turkish ²
Georgia	Georgian	Abkhazian, Russian	Greek, Ukrainian
Germany	German	Danish, Romani	Arabic, Turkish
Hungary	Hungarian	Croatian, German	Chinese, Russian
Italy	Italian	Sardinian, German	Arabic, Romanian
Poland	Polish	Russian, Ukrainian	Italian, Spanish
Romania	Romanian	Aromanian, Hungarian	Chinese, Tatar
Slovenia ³	Slovene	Croatian, German	Albanian, Russian
Spain	Spanish	Catalan, Galician	Arabic, Romanian
Switzerland	German	French, Italian, Romansh	Portuguese, Serbian
United Kingdom	English (de facto)	Scottish Gaelic, Welsh	Bengali, Polish

Table 2: Languages of the Sample Countries by Status

¹ The study only looks at the languages spoken in mainland France, excluding overseas territories.

² According to Ethnologue, the second most spoken unestablished language in France is Berber, however the database does not contain precise figures on the number of speakers. The author decided to select the third linguistic group, Turkish, for which we have more accurate data.

³ Hungarian and Italian are recognised as provincial languages under Article 64 of the Slovenian Constitutions, but each has fewer than 10,000 speakers, whereas the minorities recognised under the ECRML have larger numbers (see Appendix).

In terms of data collection, a clarification is needed regarding the term "jurisdiction examined" used in the indicator description. This term introduces methodological complexity due to varying levels of sub-administration in countries. Indicators 7 to 10, which pertain to the implementation of linguistic rights, should be computed considering the territoriality principle. Therefore, the focus is not solely on whether German is used in Italy at the national level, but rather on whether bilingualism is effectively implemented in South Tyrol. However, this approach may overcome some limitations. Countries with a historically strong presence of minorities often address their needs at a devolved or regional level. Consequently, the data collection approach for this study involved a combination of national and regional levels. While this methodology aligns with the application of the territoriality principle, it may introduce biases in the analysis of the country as a whole. For instance, a country's overall performance in language policies may be influenced by internal differences such as the redistribution of resources or varying sensitivities of regional administrations based on historical factors. Overall, the comparison highlights the diverse approaches taken by these countries in recognizing and protecting linguistic rights in administrative procedures within public administration. While some countries have comprehensive legal frameworks and explicit rights, others focus more on specific regions or communities. This creates asymmetry in data collection across various countries. For example, in Poland, the regulations governing the use of minority languages are at the national level, while in the United Kingdom, it is within the competence of devolved states. In Italy, although the legislation is national, the actual implementation is the responsibility of the regions. Consequently, the comparison of language policies involves multiple levels of governance: countries are compared with regions or nations, introducing complexity in contextualizing the data analysis.

Populating the Index

This section includes the results of the data collection on the population of the index of linguistic justice, and a brief discussion on the findings.

1. Absence of legislation or measures restricting the use of any language in the private life of residents in the jurisdiction examined

This indicator evaluates the country performance as a whole; hence it is not divided by the different linguistic groups, as they would all have the same value. The table reflects this by assigning a binary value (0 or 1) to the entire country. Restrictions or prohibitions on language use in the private lives of residents and citizens appear to be a thing of the past. Such measures were often associated with authoritarian governments or dictatorships. Examples include the prohibition of German in South

Country	1. Absence of legislation or measures restricting the use of any language in the private life of residents in the jurisdiction examined
Belgium	1
Denmark	1
Finland	1
France	1
Estonia	1
Georgia	1
Germany	1
Hungary	1
Italy	1
Poland	1
Romania	1
Slovenia	1
Spain	1
Switzerland	1
United Kingdom	1

Table 3: Indicator 1

Tyrol and French in the Aoste Valley during the Fascist era, as well as the prohibition of Catalan under Franco's rule. More recent examples include the previous prohibition on public use of Kurdish in Turkey until 1991. Even in Canada, there was a period when the use of French in courts and schools was illegal until the Royal Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism (1963-1969). However, explicit prohibition is not a completely eradicated practice. After the 2022 Russian invasion of Ukraine, two laws were passed by the Ukrainian parliament on 19th June. These laws limit Russian books and music by restricting Russian citizens from printing books unless they take Ukrainian citizenship, and prohibiting the import of books printed in Russia, Belarus, and the occupied Ukrainian territories (Hunder, 2022). Additionally, they also restrict the reproduction of music created

by post-1991 Russian citizens in media and public transport, unless the musicians are included in a "white list" of artists who have publicly condemned Russian aggression against Ukraine (Dettemer, 2022). With regard to the sample considered, though, the data collection has not shown any legislation or policy measure aimed at restricting the use of an autochthonous or allochthonous language in the private sphere. While some countries have language laws and regulations to protect and promote certain languages, these measures generally apply to public institutions and official communications rather than private life.

2. Absence of legislation or measures forbidding the written public use of any language by businesses provided that a translation in the local dominant language is available

<i>Country</i>	<i>2. Absence of legislation or measures forbidding the written public use of any language by businesses provided that a translation in the local dominant language is available</i>
Belgium	1
Denmark	1
Finland	1
France	1
Estonia	1
Georgia	1
Germany	1
Hungary	1
Italy	1
Poland	1
Romania	1
Slovenia	1
Spain	1
Switzerland	1
United Kingdom	1

Table 4: Indicator 2

Like indicator 1, also this indicator evaluates the country as a whole, and not its performance with respect to single groups. This indicator describes the presence of toleration on the whole territory

being examined. The indicator is expressed in negative terms as “Absence of legislation or measures forbidding the written public use of any language by businesses”, allowing for the condition “that a translation in the local dominant language is available” (Gazzola, Wickström and Fettes, 2023).

In this empirical research, the indicator is populated by a proxy expressed as the “existence of regulations providing the possibility of using more than one language on labels for foodstuffs”. The information used in this case study comes from health and safety agencies of individual countries and European Union legislation, in particular article 15 of the *EU Regulation of the Parliament and the Council N. 1169/2011*. Labelling has been a highly discussed topic, especially within the European Union: the EU Court of Justice debated the requirement of the use of the main language spoken in one country as an obstacle to trade in the case *Cassis de Dijon*. However, the judge ruled that these obstacles were justified on the grounds of the protection of consumers. Some member states presented restrictive regulations and had to adhere to EU. law after joining the union.

Many countries permit the use of languages other than the dominant language on food labels, as long as the essential information is available in the official languages. In countries with multiple official languages, such as Belgium and Switzerland, the language of the minority group living in a specific region is often required to be the primary language on the label (French in the French Swiss Canton, Dutch in the Flanders in Belgium). In fact, a newly approved Belgian law (July 2022) clearly states that a product label “must at least appear in the language or languages of the linguistic region where the products are placed on the market”.

Denmark follows a similar approach, mandating labelling in Danish or related languages with insignificant spelling differences, while allowing other official national languages or English for labels on foreign ships or aircraft. Finland, on the other hand, requires food labelling in Finnish and Swedish, except in monolingual municipalities where the local language suffices. France enforces the *Toubon Law*, requiring that food information be in French, although limited multilingual labels and regional languages are accepted. In Estonia, the primary language for food information is Estonian, but comprehension in alternative languages is also acceptable. In Germany, labelling must be in German, but foreign products can utilize another language if easily understood, as long as German is used for ingredients and technical details. Hungary enforces Hungarian labelling, while allowing imported packaged food to have an additional label in a foreign language. Italy mandates food labelling in Italian but permits multilingual labels. Romania allows labelling in Romanian or other languages. Slovenia does not have specific restrictions on language use for food labelling. In Spain, the *Real Decreto 930/1992* provides the possibility of having multilingual labels, but states that the presence of Spanish is compulsory. In Catalonia, Catalan can be used in accordance with the *Codi de Consum de Catalunya*. These diverse regulations reflect the importance placed on clear and understandable food information while accommodating linguistic diversity within each country's context.

In Italy, bilingual labels in the autonomous regions are not compulsory: German labels on foodstuff in South Tyrol are not prohibited while including Italian is compulsory. Sardinia does not have regulations on the use of Sardinian in labels. In Romania, other languages are allowed in compliance with EU regulations. Moreover, *Law 500/2004* specifies that the labelling and the instructions for use concerning foreign products sold in Romania are to be accompanied by a translation into Romanian.

Similarly, in Ireland, the *FSAI Guidance Note No. 29- The Use of Food Marketing Terms* states that the primary language should be English, but additional languages, including Irish, are allowed.

Slovenia has published a domestic law in 2016 as part of the implementation strategies of the EU Regulation. The law “General Labelling of Non-Prepackaged Foodstuff, published in the Official Gazette of the Republic of Slovenia No. 66 last October 21, 2016, provides that the essential information must be written in Slovene.

To enforce the Regulation 1169/2011, EU member states tend to allow multilingual labels but without setting out any specific regulations for labels in minority languages. While they are not prohibited, they are also not compulsory, except for Catalan in Catalunya.

For what concerns non-EU members, Georgia and the United Kingdom follow a similar trend. Georgia does not impose any restrictions on language choice for food labelling and does not impose the use of Georgian. The United Kingdom, the norms provided in the *EU Regulation 1169/2011* have been substituted by *The Food (Amendment) (EU Exit) Regulations 2019 (S.I. 2019/529)*, in the aftermath of the exit from the Union. The article on language requirements slightly changed the wording but not the rationale, which requires food information to be provided in English but allows other languages, including non-official ones, to be used voluntarily. If the food is produced in the UK and sold in other EU countries, the labelling must be in the language understood in the destination Member State. Mandatory information may be shown in several languages on the food label. In Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland labels are regulated by different legislations (*The Food Information (Wales) Regulations 2014; The Food Information Regulations (Northern Ireland) 2014; The Food Information (Scotland) Regulations 2014*) which contains though quite similar provisions when it comes to the use of languages. Indeed, they do not include any norms on the use of minority languages in the labels and they only state that English must be present (*Food Information Regulations, 2014; Food allergen labelling and information requirements Technical Guidance, 2020*).

3. Existence of the right to assistance in one's first language during trials in criminal procedures

Country	3. Existence of the right to assistance in one's first language during trials in criminal procedures	PROXY: Norms or guidelines on the right to interpretation in a court of law
Belgium	1	1
Denmark	1	1
Finland	1	1
France	1	1
Estonia	1	1
Georgia	1	1
Germany	1	1
Hungary	1	1
Italy	1	1
Poland	1	1
Romania	1	1
Slovenia	1	1
Spain	1	1
Switzerland	1	1
United Kingdom	1	1

Table 5: Indicator 3

The right to a fair trial is an essential component of fundamental rights protected by various international legal instruments, including the UN Declaration of Human Rights (Article 10), the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (Article 14), the European Convention on Human Rights (Article 6), and the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union (Article 47), as well as domestic laws of different countries. In addition to international law, the right of fair trial is included in most constitutions.

For what concerns the European Union, there is a large jurisprudence that has confirmed the interpretation of Article 6 of the ECHR as guaranteeing the right to interpretation in a court of law. Looking at the countries of the sample, the case law has shown that in situations where there is evidence or a belief that the defendant lacks sufficient language proficiency, the authorities are obligated to provide translation, as stated in *Brozicek v. Italy (1989)* and *Tabaï v. France (dec.)*

(2004)⁴. The cost of interpreting the prosecution is to be borne by the State, in accordance with Article 6 § 3 (e), which guarantees the right to the free assistance of an interpreter, as stated in *Luedicke, Belkacem and Koç v. Germany* (1978). It is safe to say that, just by looking at the case law, Italy, France and Germany provide the right to interpretation in criminal proceedings.

In addition to that, this right has been codified in the Code of Criminal Procedures in many countries (the Appendix contains reference to the specific articles). The wording might differ, with a stronger focus on the victims or the defendants, providing guidelines for translators, or regulating the use of technological aid. Estonia, France, Germany, Hungary, Poland, Romania, Spain, Switzerland and the United Kingdom guarantee the opportunity to use one's preferred language in court through Criminal Codes.

Other countries do not have a specific article in the Code of Criminal Procedures, but domestic laws or judicial guidelines set out the right to interpretation. For instance, in Belgium, although the right to an interpreter is not explicitly stated, it can be inferred from legal instruments that regulate the ethical integrity of interpreters in a court of law and their fees. The Loi-programme of 27/12/2006 establishes the obligation for translators and interpreters to cooperate with the judicial authority, ensuring individuals' access to interpretation services in court proceedings. In Denmark, the Danish Administration of Justice Act states that the official language used in courts is Danish. However, when individuals who do not have a good command of Danish are being questioned, an authorized interpreter should be made available to assist them. In civil cases, if none of the parties requests an interpreter and the court understands the foreign language reasonably well, an interpreter may not be appointed. The Danish Administration of Justice Act provides guidelines on how interpreters should carry out their interpretation, emphasizing that they should remain inconspicuous and refrain from speaking out of turn, acting exclusively on behalf of the parties in the courtroom.

In certain countries, the right to interpretation is explicitly stated in multiple sources. These countries often have a significant historical presence of minority communities, and the norms regarding interpretation specifically address the rights of these minority groups. The focus of these norms is to ensure that the language rights of these particular minorities are protected and respected within the legal system. In Italy, in addition to the Criminal Code, Law No. 479/1999 establishes comprehensive guidelines for interpretation and translation services, covering qualifications, duties, remuneration, and emphasising confidentiality and impartiality. In Finland, the use of preferred languages in a court of law is highly regulated. The Sámi Language Act grants Sámi people the right to use the Sámi language in court, and the Language Act equates Finnish and Swedish in trials. The Act on the Register of Legal Interpreters provides criteria for registering official interpreters and translators in court. Specific provisions on language rights of criminal suspects during preliminary investigations and custody are included in the Preliminary Investigation Act and the Coercive Measures Act. In Georgia, criminal proceedings are conducted in Georgian, and in the Autonomous Republic of Abkhazia, proceedings are also conducted in Abkhazian. Participants who do not understand the language used have the right to an interpreter, following the procedures established by the Code.

⁴ European case law provides some insights on the disadvantages incurred by written translation of the proceedings and oral interpretations during trials. In fact, the absence of a written translation of the indictment in a language understood by the defendant may present practical disadvantages as noted in *Hermi v. Italy* [GC] (2006). However, an oral translation of the indictment may suffice if it enables the accused to prepare their defence, as seen in *Hermi v. Italy* [GC] (2006).

The implementation of these rules is difficult to evaluate. In fact, while on paper the access of interpretation in criminal cases is recognised, in practice access to interpretation might not be as easy. While the EU countries are requested to provide a public database of interpreters, those professionals are not necessarily state-appointed. Interpretation in court might also be provided by private companies. For instance, in Hungary, translation of documents is typically assigned to specific agencies, which may be either private or public, or to staff translators working for the court or prosecution. On the other hand, in some other countries, both the translation of documents and interpretation in court may be outsourced to private companies, such as Spain, Italy or Estonia (Herraez Ortega, Abril Martí and Martin, 2009; Brannan, 2013).

4. Proportion of centres for asylum seekers in the jurisdiction examined employing staff or linguistic mediators fluent in at least one non-official language relevant to the asylum seekers (corrected for the total number of asylum seekers and the total population of the country)

The indicator aims to assess linguistic justice for new minorities, particularly asylum-seekers. Its inclusion in the index is crucial, reflecting the increased attention towards vulnerable minority groups. However, the current formulation of the indicator lacks sufficient data availability. While the languages spoken by staff and mediators in reception centres could serve as a valuable measure to evaluate societal inclusion and access to public services, these centres are often managed by independent agencies and NGOs, making it difficult to access such language data due to privacy concerns. Obtaining this information would require direct inquiries or case studies involving interviews and surveys, which are resource-intensive and time-consuming.

The European Union (EU) has established guidelines regarding the treatment of asylum seekers in host countries. Directive 2013/33/EU, adopted by the European Parliament and Council on June 26, 2013, sets standards for the reception of applicants for international protection. Articles 5, 9, and 10 of the directives emphasize the importance of providing written information in a language understood by asylum seekers, including details about the asylum process, camp regulations, and their rights. However, the directive does not provide specific instructions on how these provisions should be implemented. While the Council of Europe offers policy briefs on integrating refugees and migrants, it does not offer specific recommendations on language use during the asylum-seeking process. Therefore, an analysis of language implementation in this context can only be conducted indirectly using a proxy indicator applicable to EU countries and examining evidence of the directive's implementation. However, the fragmentary nature of the integration system hinders a proper comparison. In fact, countries may have multiple organizations responsible for providing camps and facilities to accommodate refugees, including small-scale municipal initiatives. Consequently, policies and practices regarding staff's knowledge and proficiency in minority languages are virtually impossible to ascertain.

A preliminary scoping review on states' practice led to the following findings. In Belgium, the Office of the Commissioner General for Refugees and Stateless Persons (CGRS) is responsible in the first instance for deciding on refugees' applications for international protection. While other organizations such as Fedasil and the Immigration Office are also involved in the asylum process, the CGRS is the primary source of information for prospective applicants and is mentioned by the UNHCR. The CGRS operates under the Belgian Federal Public Service for Home Affairs and provides information

on asylum procedures in several languages, including French, Dutch, English, Spanish, Tigrinya, Arabic, Pashto, Farsi, and Somali. In Denmark, the Danish Immigration Service processes asylum applications, and the Danish Red Cross provides accommodation for individuals awaiting their hearings. Information regarding the asylum procedure is available in English and Danish on the Danish immigration authorities' website. Charities like Refugees Welcome offer leaflets in multiple languages, including Danish, English, Arabic, Farsi, French, Somali, Tigrinya, Russian, and Ukrainian.

In countries like Italy, Spain, Romania and Hungary, the Red Cross and other large organizations, such as Emergency, Caritas, and the Jesuit Refugee Service, are involved in managing migrant accommodations. However, with the delegation of refugee camp management to private entities, it becomes challenging to map the language skills of staff working with these groups. While knowledge of languages spoken by asylum seekers is desirable for staff in larger organizations, proficiency in the language of the refugee group is typically required only for translation and interpreting positions, but not for all administrative positions. Similarly, independent organizations like the Jesuit Refugee Service will recruit staff notwithstanding their language competences.

Overall, this preliminary analysis has raised more methodological questions rather than shedding light on the employment of staff or linguistic mediators fluent in at least one non-official language relevant to asylum seekers. While it is beneficial for staff in larger organisations to know the languages spoken by asylum seekers, translation and interpreting positions typically require proficiency in a specific language. This situation also applies to independent organisations such as the Jesuit Refugee Service. In essence, this preliminary analysis has generated more methodological questions than provided insights into the employment of staff or linguistic mediators fluent in at least one non-official language relevant to asylum seekers. Possible solutions to address this indicator necessitate a reassessment of its wording and scope. One approach could be to shift the focus from hotspots and reception centres to asylum hearings when assessing governments' capacity to handle refugee flows. A potential avenue is to examine the availability of court-appointed interpreters and translators during asylum hearings, as discussed in the dissertation "Multidimensional Index of Linguistic Justice" (Gialdini, 2023b) Another potential solution could involve assessing the languages used in paperwork for asylum appeals or requests for specific services utilised by refugees, such as dedicated housing or benefits. Additionally, examining the role of support teachers for pupils from refugee and migrant backgrounds, like the AEL teachers in Scotland appointed by city councils, could provide valuable data on service availability in refugees' languages. However, developing these indicators requires further considerations beyond the scope of this study. Therefore, the researcher has chosen to leave this aspect blank and refers to the recommendations outlined in the preceding report (Gialdini, 2023a).

5. Aggregate indicator of recognition of languages of traditional minorities. Potential implementation of explicit legal or administrative rights such as to receive official information and to address and receive answers from authorities in one's first language)

Country	Autochthons minorities	5. Aggregate indicator of recognition of languages of traditional minorities. Potential implementation of explicit legal or administrative rights such as to receive official information and to address and receive answers from authorities in one's first language PROXY INDICATOR: Norms on bi-multilingual requirements for civil servant (public administration employers)
Belgium		
	German	1
National language(s)	Dutch	1
	French	1
Denmark		
	German (South Jutland)	1
	Greenlandic (autonomous country in Greenland)	1
Finland		
	Swedish	1
	Saami	1
Estonia		
France ⁵		
	Alsatian	0
	Occitan	0
Georgia		
	Abkhazian	1
Germany		
	Danish	1

⁵ The study only looks at the languages spoken in the mainland, excluding overseas territories.

	Romani	0
Hungary		
	Croatian	1
	German	1
Italy		
	Sardinian	1
	German	1
Poland		
	Russian	1
	Ukrainian	1
Romania		
	Aromanian	1
	Hungarian	1
Slovenia ⁶		
	Croatian	1
	German	1
Spain		
	Catalan	1
	Galician	1
Switzerland		
	Romansh	1
National language(s)	French	1
	German	1
	Italian	1
United Kingdom		
	Scottish Gaelic	1
	Welsh	1

Table 6: Indicator 5

⁶ Hungarian and Italian are recognised as provincial languages under Article 64 of the Slovenian Constitution, but the number of speakers less 10,000. Whereas the minorities recognised under the ECRML have larger numbers, as it is outlined in the Appendix.

Indicator 5 is the first of the “compensation” ones. Unlike the accommodation aspect, they do not necessitate the fulfilment of practical needs, because they focus on the symbolic aspect on engaging in communication with state or local authorities for traditional minorities (Gazzola, Wickström and Fettes, 2023: 17). Hence, this indicator specifically targets traditional minorities or national languages in multilingual countries. To effectively assess the right to use a given minority language in written interactions with government institutions, the study focuses on examining the norms pertaining to bi-multilingual requirements for civil servants, specifically those employed in public administration. Although such a right is not inherently competitive and does not have a specific geographical constraint, its actual implementation can involve some level of competition for staffing resources and linguistic competence.

The provided data showcases the norms and laws pertaining to the use of languages in administrative procedures within public administration in various countries. It highlights the recognition and protection of linguistic rights for different traditional minorities and national communities. Some countries, such as Belgium and Finland, have specific laws and decrees that guarantee the use of certain languages in administrative matters. These countries prioritize the linguistic rights of their traditional minorities and provide explicit legal or administrative rights, such as the right to receive official information and communicate with authorities in one's first language. In other countries the situation is less clearcut or can differ depending on the traditional minority concerned.

Denmark recognizes the German and Faroese languages, guaranteeing their use in administrative procedures and education. In the case of Greenland, as an autonomous territory within the Kingdom of Denmark, Greenlandic and Danish are the official languages. However, it is interesting to note that Faroese is not recognised as a minority language. Reciprocally, Germany protects the use of Danish in the state of Schleswig-Holstein through constitutional provisions and agreements with Denmark. However, information on the use of Romani in Germany is not available. Since this contrasts with the well-documented situation of Danish, this has been deemed a case of neglect towards the language, hence Germany scores 0 for Romani. Other countries that have limited or no recognition of the use of minority languages in the public administration are France and Estonia: while France focuses primarily on education rather than administration, Estonia does not recognise any minority language.

Otherwise, the sample displays a quite consistent presence of regulations or laws implementing the recognition of minority languages. Hungary has legislation in place to safeguard the rights of national minorities, including the Croatian and German communities, in administrative procedures. Poland's legislation includes provisions for the use of Russian and Ukrainian in administrative procedures within regions where these languages are spoken. Romania recognizes the linguistic rights of minority communities, including Aromanian and Hungarian, through laws such as the Law on the Status of Minority Nationalities. Slovenia has specific laws, such as the Law on Use of Languages and Scripts of National Minorities, that provide provisions for the protection of linguistic rights, including those of the Croatian and German communities.

Italy, Spain and the United Kingdom have adopted versions of the territoriality approach, giving autonomous regions or devolved states the authority to regulate the use of minority languages. Italy has special statutes and regional laws that address the linguistic rights of minority communities, such as the French and German communities of the northwest and the northeast. Spain has regional statutes

and laws, such as the Statute of Autonomy of Catalonia and the Catalan Linguistic Normalization Law, that guarantee the use of Catalan in administrative procedures. Galician also has legal recognition and protection in Galicia through the Statute of Autonomy and specific language laws. The United Kingdom has enacted legislation to protect the rights of linguistic communities, such as the Gaelic Language (Scotland) Act and the Welsh Language (Wales) Act, which promote the use of Scottish Gaelic and Welsh, respectively, in various aspects of public life.

Finally, Switzerland, a multilingual state, constitutionally recognizes four official languages (French, German, Italian, and Romansh). The different cantons have a language that is primarily used in administrative procedures and public services, but all four have equal legal status.

6. Aggregate indicator of recognition of languages of resident migrants, asylum seekers and refugees. Potential implementation of explicit legal or administrative rights such as to receive official information

Indicator 6 shares the same rationale as indicator 5, but it specifically focuses on allochthonous or "new" minorities. Despite the similarities in wording and conceptual framework, this indicator presents notable methodological challenges. Traditional minorities benefit from the protection of various international conventions, such as the Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities and the Declaration on the Rights of Persons Belonging to National or Ethnic, Religious, and Linguistic Minorities. Consequently, most countries have adopted domestic provisions to comply with their international obligations. As a result of the legal framework, traditional minorities receive greater recognition within the respective countries, leading to more extensive protection and promotion strategies compared to new minorities who lack this legal foundation (Medda-Windischer *et al.*, 2007)

Upon conducting a comprehensive review of the data from the sampled countries, it became apparent that there is inconsistent implementation of indicator 6, primarily at the regional or municipal level. This inconsistency hampers the methodological feasibility of making meaningful comparisons between countries. Similar to indicator 5, the lack of clear legislative and executive measures presents a challenge. It may be necessary to reconsider the formulation of the indicator or explore alternative data collection methods, such as conducting interviews and surveys to gather primary data. In fact, in terms of language policy, provisions to include new linguistic minorities are rarely part of systematic planning and tend to be more case-specific. In jurisdictions with a significant presence of allochthonous minorities, the government may take localized actions. For example, municipalities might offer certain services with the assistance of interpreters.

However, such provisions are seldom observed at the national or even regional level. Nevertheless, there are general provisions in place, such as allowing individuals who speak Albanian to communicate with and receive information from the Italian tax office or enabling Arabic speakers in France to apply for public housing in Paris using Arabic forms. While this indicator remains valid and comparable, collecting data for it would require additional resources and efforts as it focuses on the micro rather than the macro level.

Potential rephrasing of the indicator could involve considering alternatives. For instance, you might use the presence of a webpage in the languages of new minorities by the migration office as an indicator. As illustrated by the example of the migration office in the state of Berlin, which utilizes

German and English (as discussed in the article by Gazzola & Marinaro, 2022), this could serve as a proxy. Alternatively, an assessment could be made by examining the language provision of the tax office. Another option would be to reconsider the scope of the indicator itself. One worthwhile consideration is to explore data collection from major urban centres, focusing on the availability of local services and information in languages relevant to migrants. Given the higher concentration of migrants in urban areas, this approach could yield the most pertinent data regarding their local linguistic context.

7. Proportion of legally binding documents such as laws and regulations published online per year in the languages spoken in the jurisdiction examined (weighted across individuals and the indicator of recognition of the individual languages)

Country	Majority Languages	Autochthonous Minority Languages	PROXY: Number of legislations and executive acts (such as regulations or decisions by government or government agencies), excluding public tenders and constitutional court rulings published in national Official Gazettes in the month of May 2023	7. Proportion of legally binding documents such as laws and regulations published online per year in the languages spoken in the jurisdiction examined
Belgium				
		German	12	0.16
	Dutch		72	1
	French		68	0.94
Total			72	
Denmark				
	Danish (de facto)		24	1
		German	0	0
		Greenlandic	0	0
Total				
Finland				
	Finnish		5	1
	Swedish		5	1
		Saami	0	
Total			5	
Estonia				
	Estonian		19	1
		Russian	0	0
			19	

France				
	French		21	1
		Alsatian	0	0
		Occitan	0	0
			21	
Georgia				
	Georgian		202	1
		Abkhazian	Only Constitution available	0
Total			202	
Germany				
	German		7	1
		Danish	0	0
		Romani	0	0
Total			7	
Hungary				
	Hungarian		18	
		Croatian	0	
		German	0	
Italy				
	Italian		39	1
Total			39	
		Sardinian	2	0.2
Total			10	
		German	4	1
Total			4	1
Poland				
	Polish		121	1
		Russian	0	0
		Ukrainian	0	0
Total			121	
Romania				
	Romanian		133	1
		Aromanian	0	0
		Hungarian	2	0.01
Total			133	
Slovenia				
	Slovenian		41	
		Croatian	0	
		German	0	
Total				
Spain				
	Spanish		336	1
Total				

		Catalan	374	1
Total			374	
		Galician	0	1
Total			198	
Switzerland				
		Romansh	0	0
	French		56	1
	German		56	1
	Italian		56	1
Total				
United Kingdom				
	English (de facto)		78	
Total			78	1
		Scottish Gaelic	0	
Total			6	0
		Welsh	13	1
Total			13	

Table 7: Indicator 7

This indicator refers to the “languages spoken in the jurisdiction examined”, hence, intuitively, it seems to be directed to dominant languages and autochthons and allochthonous minority ones. However, as outlined above, new minorities do not have any legal recognition in the sample countries analysed. Hence binding documents are not translated in their language by state institutions: pieces of legislations or regulations that describe the asylum process might be translated by private entities, such as NGOs or solicitors’ associations. This indicator refers to the implementation of linguistic rights of the minority groups and is computed following the territoriality principle, hence looking at the jurisdictions that linguistic minorities inhabit. However, this does not apply to all cases, as some state legislates mostly at a national level, or do not have a concentrated minority in a specific administration. Among the sample countries, the analysis on regional languages has been carried out in Italy, Spain and United Kingdom, where minorities are clearly connected to a specific piece of lang. Moreover, for what regards multilingual states such as Belgium and Switzerland, all federal laws are available in the language of the different linguistic groups due to the official status of the language (see for instance the Official Belgium Gazette or the Federal Gazette in Switzerland). For all the rest of the countries, national legislation has been analysed. The data refers to the legislations and regulations published in the month of May 2023 (1/05/2023- 31/05/2023). The proportion is calculated on the total of laws published in that administration in that period of time.

The data presents a diverse landscape regarding the publication of legislations in various countries. Most countries publish their legislations at a national level and monolingually, using the dominant language. Denmark, Estonia, France, Georgia, Germany, Hungary, Slovenia and Poland only use their dominant language, which is in some case the official language of the state. Finland publishes bilingual legislations in Finnish and Swedish. In Belgium, on a national level, there is a higher number of publications in Dutch and very little in German. Switzerland's Fedlex platform covers equally French, German, and Italian, but there are no Romansh legislations available. Italy's Gazzetta

Ufficiale features legislations in Italian, but looking at regional legislations, there are some notable asymmetries: laws are published both in German and Italian in South Tyrol but only 2 out of 10 laws published in the month of May were also translated in Sardinian. Similarly, in Spain national legislations are available only in Spanish but the Gazette of the Autonomous Region of Catalonia publishes the totality of legislations in Spanish and Catalan and the Gazette of the Autonomous Region of Galicia does the same with Galician.

Finally, the United Kingdom's Legislation.gov.uk is the official publication platform for newly enacted legislations, primarily in English, with limited Welsh publications and no Scottish Gaelic availability.

These observations emphasize the diversity in language coverage and accessibility of legislations across different countries, reflecting the varied linguistic and legal landscapes of each jurisdiction, especially outlining the importance of territoriality in the implementation of linguistic rights

8. Proportion administrative forms of the tax office and the population registry released/published online per year in the languages spoken of the jurisdiction examined (weighted across citizens and the indicator of recognition of the individual languages)

Country	Statutory National Languages	Statutory Minority Languages (Autochthonous Minorities)	New minorities (Allochthonous Minorities)	PROXY: Presence of tax forms in the language of the target population
Belgium				
	Dutch			1
	French			1
		German		1
			Arabic	0
			Italian	0
Denmark				
	Danish (de facto)			1
		German		0
		Greenlandic		1
			Arabic	0
			Spanish	0
Finland				
	Finnish			1
	Swedish			1
		Saami		1
			Arabic	1
			Russian	1
Estonia				
	Estonian			1
			Belarusian	0

			Ukrainian	0
France				
	French			1
		Alsatian		0
		Occitan		0
			Arabic	0
			Turkish	0
Georgia				
	Georgian			1
		Abkhazian		0
			Greek	0
			Ukrainian	0
Germany				
	German			1
		Danish		0
		Romani		0
			Arabic	0
			Turkish	0
Hungary				
	Hungarian			1
		Croatian		0
		German		0
			Chinese	0
			Russian	0
Italy				
	Italian			1
		Sardinian		0
		German		1
			Arabic	1
			Romanian	1
Poland				
	Polish			1
		Russian		0
		Ukrainian		0
			Italian	0
			Spanish	0
Romania				
	Romanian			1
		Aromanian		0
		Hungarian		0
			Chinese	0
			Tatar	0
Slovenia				
	Slovenian			1
		Croatian		0
		German		0
			Albanian	0

			Russian	0
Spain				
	Spanish			1
		Catalan		1
		Galician		1
			Arabic	0
			Romanian	0
Switzerland				
	French			1
	German			1
	Italian			1
		Romansh		1
			Portuguese	0
			Serbian	0
United Kingdom				1
	English (de facto)			1
		Scottish Gaelic		0
		Welsh		1
			Bengali	0
			Polish	0

Table 8: Indicator 8

The provision of tax forms in various languages reflects the linguistic diversity and minority language considerations in the respective countries. Belgium accommodates its multilingual population by offering tax forms in Dutch, French, German, as well as in Arabic and Italian. In Denmark, tax forms are primarily available in Danish, with additional provisions in Greenlandic and English to support the diverse population. Finland caters to its population by providing tax forms in Finnish, Swedish, Saami, and languages such as Arabic and Russian. France, Estonia, Georgia, and Germany primarily offer tax forms in their respective official languages. Hungary provides forms in Hungarian and English, while Italy offers forms in Italian, German, Arabic, and Romanian. Poland offers forms in Polish and English, and Romania in Romanian and Italian. Slovenia provides forms in Slovenian, English, Italian, and Hungarian, and Spain offers tax forms in Spanish, Catalan, Galician, as well as Arabic and Romanian. Switzerland accommodates multiple languages, including French, German, Italian, and Romansh. The United Kingdom primarily offers tax forms in English, with provisions in Welsh and Scottish Gaelic. The language provisions in these countries highlight efforts to ensure accessibility and inclusivity in their tax systems for citizens who speak different languages or belong to linguistic minorities. While this proxy can provide interesting data on the implementation of linguistic rights in administration, this exploratory analysis reveals the need to review the wording and scope of the present indicator. It might be necessary to compile a list of the primary publications of the tax office and the population registry for each country to make a more accurate assessment.

The text currently refers to "tax forms," which seems rather imprecise. It is crucial that other researchers can reproduce these results. The indicator specifically refers to the proportion of bilingual documents in the total, not merely the existence of some bilingual documents. Perhaps considering the availability of bilingual webpages on the tax office's site could serve as an indicator for the

recognition of new minorities (N. 6), while the proportion of bi/multilingual forms for marriage/civil union certificates at the population registry could be used for indicator 8.

9. Proportion of toponyms (street and place names) available in the languages of the jurisdiction examined (weighted across citizens, the indicator of recognition of the individual languages, and administrative sub-units)

For each country in the dataset, a sample of three cities has been chosen, including the capital city and cities where the presence of a traditional minority is historically significant. The images used in the analysis were obtained from Google Street View.

The provided data offers valuable insights into the distribution of toponyms (street and place names) in different languages within the jurisdictions under examination. This analysis takes into account several factors, including the recognition of languages, citizen preferences, and administrative sub-units. By examining this information, we can uncover interesting comparisons and patterns between the countries in terms of their approach to multilingualism and the representation of different languages in their street and place names. Page xlv of the Appendix contains the collection of images.

The data has some important limitations: first of all, important to note that the time of picture acquisition varies across different areas. Some images are as recent as May 2023, while others were captured as early as July 2008. However, since street signs tend to change infrequently, any possible changes over the past 10 years were considered during data collection to ensure accuracy and relevance. However, the coverage of the Google camera is not consistent among countries, and in some cases (more notably Switzerland and Georgia), the street names are seldom blurred. Moreover, the images (4 per each city) have been selected by sampling the street names, hence there might be some gaps in the availability of street signs. Some countries, such Northern Ireland, have a very diverse toponym that changes from neighbourhood to neighbourhood. Such a refined analysis requires a more resources that the ones devolved for this particular exploratory study, and perhaps will require the additional support of experts in urban geography. What the data can tell us from this preliminar review, are general tendencies of the countries.

The analysis examines the presence of toponyms, including street and place names, available in different languages across the sample countries. Given the limited availability of data, the proportion has not been computed at this stage.

In Belgium, Ghent predominantly features monolingual Dutch names, while Namur showcases monolingual French toponyms. Brussels, however, stands out as a bilingual region with both French and Dutch names. Denmark's Aarhus, Copenhagen, and Roskilde predominantly exhibit monolingual Dutch names. In Finland, Helsinki boasts bilingual Finnish and Swedish toponyms, while Rovaniemi features place names in monolingual Sami or Finnish and streets named in Finnish. France's Paris is characterized by monolingual French names, Toulouse is bilingual in French and Occitan, and Strasbourg is bilingual in French and Alsatian in the city center, with French prevalent in the periphery. Estonia's Tallinn, Võru, and Tartu are marked by monolingual Estonian toponyms. Georgia's Tbilisi is bilingual in Georgian and English, Sokhumi is monolingual Abkhazian with limited data, and Batumi is bilingual in Georgian and English. Germany's Berlin, Lingen, and Dresden feature monolingual German names. In Hungary, Budapest, Pécs Zalaegerszeg, and Szombathely

predominantly exhibit monolingual Hungarian toponyms. Italy's Rome is marked by monolingual Italian names, Nuoro is monolingual Italian, and Bolzano is bilingual in Italian and German. Poland's Warsaw, Kraków, and Białystok predominantly showcase monolingual Polish toponyms. Romania's Bucharest, Oradea, and Timișoara predominantly feature monolingual Romanian names. Slovenia's Ljubljana, Nova Gorica, and Maribor predominantly exhibit monolingual Slovenian names, with some Italian present in border cities. In Spain, Madrid is monolingual Spanish, Bilbao is bilingual in Spanish and Basque, and Barcelona is monolingual Catalan. Switzerland's Bern, Genève, and Lugano feature monolingual German, French, and Italian names, respectively. Finally, in the United Kingdom, London predominantly exhibits monolingual English names, Swansea has monolingual English street names and bilingual English and Welsh place names, while Aberdeen predominantly features monolingual English names.

Overall, this exploratory investigation on linguistic landscaping provides some interesting trends, however a more accurate analysis will require more resources.

10. Proportion of public hospitals and clinics in which consultations are available in the languages of the jurisdiction examined (weighted across citizens, the indicator of recognition of the individual languages, and administrative sub-units)

Country	10. Proportion of public hospitals and clinics in which consultations are available in the languages of the jurisdiction examined (weighted across citizens, the indicator of recognition of the individual languages, and administrative sub-units)	PROXY: Presence of Official Guidelines for Interpreters in Healthcare Provided by the Ministry of Health or other Governmental Agencies
Belgium	NA	0
Denmark	NA	1
Finland	NA	1
France	NA	1
Estonia	NA	0
Georgia	NA	0
Germany	NA	1
Hungary	NA	0
Italy	NA	1
Poland	NA	0

Romania	NA	0
Slovenia	NA	1
Spain	NA	0
Switzerland	NA	1
United Kingdom	NA	1

Table 9: Indicator 10

This indicator focuses on evaluating the implementation of linguistic rights in the healthcare sector, particularly in terms of multilingual health communication and practices in hospitals and clinics. In terms of target population,

The data collection for this indicator is challenging in practice. Unless in bilingual or multilingual jurisdictions with specific regulations on the use of traditional minority languages, there are no comparable official documents that record multilingual practices in healthcare. To gather data for this indicator, the author explored various strategies. First, they considered examining regulations from the Ministry of Health, but the available material was limited and inconsistent. Another option was to review the Code of Conduct of a sample of hospitals, but these documents were not always accessible, and they did not provide standardized practices for patients who speak languages other than the dominant one. To provide at least some insights on the situation of multilingual communication in hospitals, this study has examined the presence of official guidelines for interpreters at a national level, considering therefore regulations or documents by Ministry of Health or similar authorities.

In Belgium, no specific information is given about the proportion of healthcare consultations available in different languages, but guidelines are available for interpreters in healthcare, including Sign Language. Denmark has no information on the proportion of consultations, but there is a law on healthcare that likely includes provisions for language services. Finland does not provide details on the proportion of consultations available in different languages, but there are guidelines for assisting foreign patients in healthcare. France does not provide information on the proportion of consultations, but guidelines on interpretation in the health sector are available from the Ministry of Health. Estonia, Georgia, Hungary, Poland, Romania, and Spain do not have information on the proportion of consultations available in different languages or specific guidelines for interpreters in healthcare. Germany has guidelines titled "Interpreters in the context of health care claim and assumption of costs" provided by the German Federal Government. In Italy, no data is given on the proportion of consultations, but there are guidelines on access to care for foreign individuals, including norms on interpretation. Slovenia mentions interpreters in healthcare in its budget document, but no information is provided on the proportion of consultations. Switzerland has a report from the Swiss government that includes recommendations on translating in healthcare and the costs associated with it. The United Kingdom provides guidelines and policies from various healthcare authorities, such as NHS England, NHS Scotland, and the Northern Ireland Health and Social Care Interpreting Service, on improving the quality of interpreting and translation services in primary care and working with interpreters.

Overall, while information on the proportion of consultations in different languages is not provided, some countries have guidelines or laws in place to address language services in healthcare settings, aiming to ensure accessibility and quality of care for individuals with limited proficiency in the official language(s) of the jurisdiction. This proxy, similar to the investigation of interpretation and translation in criminal cases, does give some information on the countries' practices. However, this approach is not highly reliable since interpretation in healthcare is not as tightly regulated, especially considering the fragmentation of healthcare providers in some countries with semi-private systems like Germany and Spain. Interpreters in healthcare are often hired on an ad hoc basis, and hospitals do not disclose the language skills of their staff due to privacy concerns. Consequently, Indicator 10 encounters difficulties in data collection due to privacy concerns, and lack of documents, which makes it difficult to capture the complexities of language barriers in healthcare settings. At present, the only viable solution seems to be gathering primary data through interviews or surveys with medical personnel and hospital staff. However, this approach introduces inconsistencies within the indicator system and may result in structural biases in the measurements.

Summary and Conclusions

In conclusion, the recognition of linguistic justice as a significant concept in academic discourse has spurred the need for its measurement and comparison. The development of a comprehensive index that assesses linguistic equality within a country, akin to the Human Development Index, is crucial in understanding and addressing linguistic disparities. By focusing on evaluating linguistic justice in different countries, specifically in the domains of law and order, public administration, and essential services, this study contributes to the growing body of research on this topic. The empirical application of the proposed indicators provides valuable insights into the state of linguistic justice in these countries.

Indicator 1 examines the absence of language restrictions in private lives, revealing that all countries in the sample have no such limitations. Similarly, Indicator 2 indicates the absence of prohibitions on the written public use of any language by businesses, as long as a translation in the dominant local language is provided. Indicator 3 demonstrates that all countries provide the right to assistance in one's first language during criminal trials. However, Indicator 4, which pertains to asylum seekers, faces challenges due to limited data availability. On the other hand, Indicator 5 focuses on the recognition of languages spoken by traditional minorities and highlights the protection of linguistic rights in various countries.

Indicator 6 addresses the recognition of languages spoken by resident migrants, asylum seekers, and refugees, but encounters difficulties due to inconsistent implementation of rights. Indicator 7 explores the proportion of legally binding documents published online in minority languages, offering insights into the linguistic and legal landscapes of each jurisdiction. Indicator 8 measures the accessibility of administrative forms in the languages spoken within a jurisdiction, shedding light on the availability of services for different language communities. Indicator 9 provides interesting insights on the implementation of linguistic justice in the administrative section, and the countries have shown different performances with respect to tax forms. Lastly, Indicator 10 still presents some complexities in its population, although some alternatives for measurements have been assessed. Overall, the findings indicate favourable conditions regarding linguistic justice in the sample countries. The absence of language restrictions in private life, provisions for multilingual food labels,

and the right to interpretation in criminal proceedings are positive indicators of linguistic equality. By providing policymakers with a valuable tool for objective and systematic comparisons of language policies, this index enhances the understanding of the impact of majority-minority language dynamics and language prohibitions. Measuring linguistic justice is of utmost importance in identifying areas for improvement and fostering inclusive societies where linguistic diversity is valued and protected.

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Appendix

Country Data from the Ethnologue Database

[categories as outlined in the database itself]

Belgium	
International Organization	European Union, Council of Europe, Schengen Area
International Conventions	CPPDCE (2006), CSICH (2012), ICCPR (1966), UNCRPD (2006), UNDRIP (2007)
Languages spoken	
National Languages	Dutch: Statutory national language (1994, Constitution, Articles 2,4,30). 7,640,000 in Belgium, all users. French: Statutory national language (1994, Constitution, Articles 2,4,30). 9,650,000 in Belgium, all users. <u>Provincial Language</u> German: Statutory provincial language in German-speaking areas (1994, Constitution, Articles 2,4,30). 2,590,800 in Belgium, all users.
Educational	English: 4,423,300 in Belgium, all users. L1 users: 43,300 in Belgium (2020 census), based on nationality. L2 users: 4,380,000 (2020).
Dispersed	[[Luxembourgish: Statutory language of provincial identity in southeastern Wallonia (1990, Valmy Feaux Decree of 14 December). 30,000 in Belgium (1998).]]
Vigorous and threatened	Picard: Statutory language of provincial identity in western Hainaut Province (1990, Valmy Feaux Decree of 14 Dec). 200,000 in Belgium (Salminen 2007). Walloon: Statutory language of provincial identity in Wallonia (1990, Valmy Feaux Decree of 14 Dec). 600,000 (Salminen 2007), decreasing. Active speakers may only be 300,000 (Salminen 2007). Few monolinguals.

Unestablished (Allochthonous minorities)	Arabic (all dialects): 416,830 in Belgium (2020 census) Italian: 279,000 in Belgium (2018 census) Romanian: 121,000 in Belgium (2020 census) Turkish: 145,000 in Belgium (2018 census)
GDP per capita (US\$)	51,247.01
Population	11,632,000
Denmark	
International Organization	European Union, Council of Europe, Schengen Area
International Conventions	CDE (1960), CPPDCE (2006), CSICH (2012), ECRML (1992), FCPNM (1998), ICCPR (1966), (), UNCRPD (2006), UNDRIP (2007)
Languages spoken	
National Languages	Danish (Principal language, status: Unestablished) 5,460,000 in Denmark (2020 census)
Educational	English L1 users: 31,600 in Denmark (2020 census), based on nationality. French L1 users: 6,800 in Denmark (2020 census), based on nationality.
Dispersed	German: Recognized language (1955, Danish-German Agreement), in South Denmark region. 2,777,800 in Denmark Greenlandic: 7,000, all user Swedish: 754,400 in Denmark, all users
Unestablished (Allochthonous minorities)	Arabic, Levantine 48,500 in Denmark (2020 census) Arabic, Moroccan 5,900 in Denmark (2020 census) Kurdish 20,000 in Denmark (2007) Romanian 30,600 in Denmark (2020 census) Spanish 254,000 in Denmark Turkish 33,100 in Denmark (2020 census)
GDP per capita (US\$)	68,007.8
Population	5,873,000

Finland	
International Organization	European Union, Council of Europe, Schengen Area
International Conventions	CDE (1960), CPPDCE (2006), CSICH (2012), ECRML (1992), FCPNM (1998), ICCPR (1966), UNCRPD (2006), UNDRIP (2007)
Languages spoken	
National Languages	<p>Finish: Statutory national language (2000, Constitution, Article 17(1,2)) 5,300,000 in Finland, all users</p> <p>Swedish: statutory national working language (2000, Constitution, Article 17(1,2)) 2,698,000 in Finland, all users</p>
Educational	English: 3,895,600 in Finland, all users. L1 users: 25,600 in Finland (2021 census). L2 users: 3,870,000
Dispersed	<p>Estonian: 50,200 in Finland (2021 census)</p> <p>French: 5,350 in Finland (2021 census)</p>
Vigorous and threatened	<p>Meänkieli: 30,000 in Finland (estimated)</p> <p>Saami, Inari: Statutory language of provincial identity in Enontekiö, Inari, Sodankylä, and Utsjoki municipalities of Lapland (2003, Sami Language Act No. 1086). 400 (2018 census). 2,000 all Saami in Finland (2021 census).</p> <p>Saami, North: cognized language (2003, Sami Language Act No. 1086). 1,700 in Finland (2001 census). 2,000 all Saami in Finland (2021 census)</p> <p>Saami, Skolt: Statutory language of provincial identity in Enontekiö, Inari, Sodankylä, and Utsjoki municipalities of Lapland (2003, Sami Language Act No. 1086). 300 in Finland (Salminen 2007). 2,000 all Saami in Finland (2021 census)</p>
Unestablished (Allochthonous minorities)	<p>Arabic: 36,500 (2021 census).</p> <p>Chinese: 14,800 in Finland (2021 census).</p> <p>Kurdish: 15,900 in Finland (2021 census).</p> <p>Russian: 87,600 in Finland (2021 census).</p> <p>Somali: 23,700 in Finland (2021 census).</p>
Population	5,873,000
GDP per capita (US\$)	53,654.8

Estonia	
International Organization	European Union, Council of Europe, Schengen Area
International Conventions	CPPDCE (2006), CSICH (2012), FCPNM (1998), ICCPR (1966), UNCRPD (2006), UNDRIP (2007)
Languages spoken	
National Languages	Estonian: Statutory national language (1992, Constitution, Article 52(1)). 1,050,000 in Estonia (European Commission 2012)
Educational	English: 660,880 in Estonia, all users. L1 users: 880 in Estonia (2013 UNSD). L2 users: 660,000 (European Commission 2012). Russian: 1,118,000 in Estonia, all users. L1 users: 383,000 in Estonia (2013 UNSD). L2 users: 735,000 (European Commission 2012).
Dispersed	Finnish: 158,620 in Estonia, all users.
Vigorous and threatened	German: 129,400 in Estonia, all users. Võro: 87,000 in Estonia (2013 UNSD).
Unestablished (Allochthonous minorities)	Belarusian: 1,660 in Estonia (2013 UNSD) Latvian: 1,000 in Estonia (2013 UNSD). Ukrainian: 8,010 in Estonia (2013 UNSD). Ethnic population: 22,300 (2011 census).
GDP per capita (US\$)	27,943.7
Population	1,325,000
France	
International Organization	European Union, Council of Europe, Schengen Area
International Conventions	CDE (1960), CPPDCE (2006), CSICH (2012), ICCPR (1966), UNCRPD (2006), UNDRIP (2007)
Languages spoken	

National Languages	French: Statutory national language (1958, Constitution, Article 2.1). 64,000,000 in France, all users
Educational	English: 26,436,000 in France, all users. L1 users: 236,000 in France (2020 Joshua Project), based on ethnicity. L2 users: 26,200,000 (European Commission 2012).
Dispersed	Catalan: Recognized language (2013, No. 595), education. 126,000 in France (2013) Kabyle: estimated 1,000,000 in France (2013 Ministry of Culture and Communication (France)) Luxembourgish: Recognized language (2013, No. 595), Education. 40,000 in France (2001 J. Nousse).
Vigorous and threatened	Alsatian: Recognized language (2013, No. 595), Education. 900,000 in France (2013). Lorraine: Recognized language (2013, No. 595), Education. 400,000 in France (2013). Corsican: Statutory language of provincial identity in Corsica (2002, Act. No. 2002-92 (22 Jan) on Corsica, Article 7), mainly used in education. 120,000 in France (2020 Committee on Culture, Education and Communication Occitan: Recognized language (2013, No. 595), Education. 1,000,000 in France (2019). Total users in all countries: 1,111,560 (as L1: 1,107,290; as L2: 4,270). Basque: Recognized language (2013, No. 595), Education. 72,000 in France (2013)
Unestablished (Allochthonous minorities)	Arabic (all dialects): 2,983,400 (2008 census). Berber: 1,500,000 in France (estimated) Turkish: 444,000 in France (2008 census).
GDP per capita (US\$)	43,659.0
Georgia	(Census does not include results from Abkhazia)
International Organization	Council of Europe
International Conventions	CDE (1960), CPPDCE (2006), CSICH (2012), FCPNM (1998), ICCPR (1966), UNCRPD (2006)
Languages spoken	
National Languages	Georgian: Statutory national language (1995, Constitution, Article 8). 3,424,000 in Georgia, all users. Russian: De facto national working language. 2,374,700 in Georgia, all users. <u>Provincial language:</u>

	Abkhaz: Statutory provincial language in Abkhazia, co-official with Georgian (1995, Constitution, Article 8). 109,000 in Georgia (2020).
Educational	NA
Dispersed	Azerbaijani: 227,000 in Georgia (2020). Kurdish: 15,000 in Georgia (2020).
Vigorous and threatened	Mingrelian: 290,000 in Georgia (2020). Chechen: 8,400 in Georgia (2020).
Unestablished (Allochthonous minorities)	Pontic Greek: 12,600 in Georgia (2020). Ukrainian: 5,700 in Georgia (2020).
GDP per capita (US\$)	5,023.3
Population	3,729,000
Germany	
International Organization	European Union, Council of Europe, Schengen Area
International Conventions	CDE (1960), CPPDCE (2006), CSICH (2012), ECRML (1992), FCPNM (1998), ICCPR (1966), (), UNCRPD (2006), UNDRIP (2007)
Languages spoken	
National Languages	German: De facto national language. 80,600,000 in Germany, all users.
Educational	English: 47,037,000 in Germany, all users. L1 users: 437,000 in Germany (2020 census), based on nationality. L2 users: 46,600,000 (European Commission 2012).
Dispersed	<u>Provincial languages</u> Danish: Statutory language of provincial identity in Schleswig-Holstein (1955, Bonn Declaration, Rights of the Danish Majority, paragraphs 1–12). 21,700 in Germany (2020 census). Romani, Sinte: Recognized language (1998, ECRML, signed in November 1992 and ratified by the Federal Bundestag Implementation Act, Gazette, page 1314), Bundestag Resolution of June 1986 confirmed the need for improvement of

	living conditions and integration into society of the Germany Romany ethnic group. ECRML Initial Report (2002). 80,000 in Germany (2000).
Vigorous and threatened	[[Upper Saxon, Upper: 2,000,000 (1998 A. Thomsen)]] Low Saxon: Statutory language of national identity (1998, ECRML, signed in November 1992 and ratified by the Federal Bundestag Implementation Act, Gazette, page 1314), There are also 6 states that concede recognized language status to Low Saxon/Low German, and 2 states, Schleswig-Holstein and Mecklenburg-Vorpommern, afford special protection to the language in their basic laws. 2,201,000 in Germany, all users. L1 users: 1,000 in Germany. L2 users: 2,200,000 (2016). Total users in all countries: 2,502,460 (as L1: 302,460; as L2: 2,200,000). Sorbian: Statutory language of provincial identity in Sachsen (1992, Constitution, Article 6). 13,300 (Salminen 2007). 20,000–30,000 total Sorbian, one-third in lower Lusatia and two-thirds in upper Lusatia (Salminen 2007). Frisian: Statutory language of provincial identity in Schleswig-Holstein (2014, Constitution, Article 6(2) (as amended)). 8,000 (Salminen 2007). Saterfriesisch: Statutory language of provincial identity in Niedersachsen (1997, Constitution, Article 3(3) as amended). 2,000 (2015 A. Remmers).
Unestablished (Allochthonous minorities)	Arabic (all dialects): 1,620,300 in Germany (2020 census). Bulgarian: 411,000 in Germany (2021 census). Croatian: 435,000 in Germany (2021 census). Polish: 871,000 in Germany (2021 census), based on nationality. Turkish: 1,310,000 in Germany (2021 census), based on nationality. Italian: 647,000 in Germany (2021 census). Romanian: 845,000 in Germany (2021 census).
GDP per capita (US\$)	51,203.55
Population	83,222,000
Italy	
International Organization	European Union, Council of Europe, Schengen Area
International Conventions	CDE (1960), CPPDCE (2006), CSICH (2012), FCPNM (1998), ICCPR (1966), UNCRPD (2006), UNDRIP (2007)

Languages spoken	
National Languages	Italian: Statutory national language (1999, Law No. 482, Article 1.1). 59,000,000 in Italy (European Commission 2012).
Educational	NA
Dispersed	<p>French: Recognized language (1999, Historical Minorities Protection Act, No. 482, Article 2), in Valle d’Aoste. 9,516,000 in Italy, all users. L1 users: 116,000 in Italy (2012 census). L2 users: 9,400,000 (European Commission 2012).</p> <p>German: Recognized language (1999, Historical Minorities Protection Act, No. 482, Article 2), in Trentino-Alto Adige region. 1,276,000 in Italy, all users. L1 users: 36,000 in Italy (2020 Joshua Project), based on ethnicity. L2 users: 1,240,000 (2019 Eurostat).</p> <p>Romani: 4,000 estimated</p> <p>Slovene: Recognized language (1999, Historical Minorities Protection Act, No. 482, Article 2), in Trieste and Gorizia provinces. 133,000 in Italy, all users. L1 users: 24,000 in Italy (European Commission 2012). L2 users: 109,000 (European Commission 2012).</p>
Vigorous and threatened	<p>Mócheno: 1,900 estimated</p> <p>Arbëreshë: Recognized language (1999, Historical Minorities Protection Act, No. 482, Article 2), in Apulia, Basilicata, Calabria, Campania, Molise, and Sicily. 100,000 speakers estimated</p> <p>Cimbrian: 2,230. 500 in Lusernese Cimbrian in Trentino Alto Oolige 40 km southeast from Trento, plus 1,500 Sette Comuni Cimbrian (40% of Roana (Rowan), 70% of Messaselva di Roana Rotzo) in Veneto around 60 km north of Vicenza (Kloss 1978), and 230 or 65% of Giazza (Ijetzan) Veneto, 43 km northeast of Verona (1992 R. Zamponi). 22,700 were in Sieben Gemeinde and 12,400 in Dreizehn Gemeinde in 1854.</p> <p>Friulian: Statutory language of provincial identity in Friuli-Venezia Giulia autonomous region (2007, Regional law no. 29). 600,000 (2014 Agjenzie Regjonâl pe Lenghe Furlane), decreasing. 420,000 regular speakers, 180,000 occasional speakers (2014 Agjenzie Regjonâl pe Lenghe Furlane).</p> <p>Ladin: Recognized language (1999, Historical Minorities Protection Act, No. 482, Article 2), in Trentino-Alto Adige, Veneto. 38,000 estimated.</p> <p>Occitan: Recognized language (1999, Historical Minorities Protection Act, No. 482, Article 2), in Calabria, Liguria, Piedmont. 100,000 estimated</p>

	<p>Sardinian: Recognized language (1999, Historical Minorities Protection Act, No. 482, Article 2), in Sardinia 1,200,000 estimated</p> <p>Catalan: Recognized language (1999, Historical Minorities Protection Act, No. 482, Article 2), in Sardinia. 7,480 in Italy</p> <p>Slavomolisano: Recognized language (1999, Historical Minorities Protection Act, No. 482, Article 2), in Molise, named as Croatian. 1,000 estimated</p>
Unestablished (Allochthonous minorities)	<p>Arabic (all dialects): 460,100 (2012 census).</p> <p>Bengali: 400,000 in Italy (2018).</p> <p>Romanian: 798,000 in Italy (2012 census).</p> <p>Chinese: 160,000 in Italy (2012 census).</p>
GDP per capita (US\$)	35,657.5
Population	59,450,000
Hungary	
International Organization	European Union, Council of Europe, Schengen Area
International Conventions	CDE (1960), CPPDCE (2006), CSICH (2012), ECRML (1992), FCPNM (1998), ICCPR (1966), UNCRPD (2006), UNDRIP (2007)
Languages spoken	
National Languages	Hungarian: De facto national language. 9,780,000 in Hungary (European Commission 2012).
Educational	<p>Croatian: Recognized language (1993, Minorities Act No. LXXVII). 13,700 in Hungary (2011 census). Ethnic population: 23,600 (2011 census).</p> <p>German: Recognized language (1993, Minorities Act No. LXXVII). 1,795,200 in Hungary, all users. L1 users: 35,200 in Hungary (2020 Eurostat). L2 users: 1,760,000 (2018).</p> <p>Serbian: Recognized language (1993, Minorities Act No. LXXVII). 3,710 in Hungary (2011 census).</p> <p>Slovene: Recognized language (1993, Minorities Act No. LXXVII). 1,720 in Hungary (2011 census).</p> <p><u>Educational only</u></p>

	<p>English: 1,957,800 in Hungary, all users. L1 users: 7,800 in Hungary (2020 Joshua Project), based on ethnicity. L2 users: 1,950,000 (European Commission 2012).</p> <p>Greek: 1,870 in Hungary (2011 census). Ethnic population: 3,920 (2011 census).</p> <p>Romani: 54,300 in Hungary (2011 census).</p> <p>Romanian: 13,900 in Hungary (2011 census).</p>
Dispersed	Slovak: Recognized language (1993, Minorities Act No. LXXVII). 9,890 in Hungary (2011 census).
Vigorous and threatened	Chakavian: 12,000 in Hungary (2021 K. Tyrán).
Unestablished (Allochthonous minorities)	<p>Arabic: 2,930 in Hungary (2011 census).</p> <p>Chinese: 5,820 in Hungary (2011 census).</p> <p>Russian: 200,000 in Hungary (Rarefied 2012), all users. L1 users: 7,380 (2011 census).</p>
GDP per capita (US\$)	18,728.1
Population	9,689,000
Poland	
International Organization	European Union, Schengen Area, Council of Europe
International Conventions	CDE (1960), CPPDCE (2006), CSICH (2012), ECRML (1992), FCPNM (1998), ICCPR (1966), UNCRPD (2006), UNDRIP (2007)
Languages spoken	
National Languages	Polish: Statutory national language (1997, Constitution, Article 27). 36,711,000 in Poland, all users.
Educational	<p>English: 12,511,300 in Poland, all users. L1 users: 11,300 in Poland (2020 J. Leclerc). L2 users: 12,500,000 (European Commission 2012).</p> <p>French: 946,890 in Poland, all users. L1 users: 8,890 in Poland (2013 UNSD). L2 users: 938,000 (Marcoux et al 2022).</p> <p>German: Recognized language (2005, Minorities Act of 2 January, Articles 2(2), 9). 7,263,600 in Poland, all users. L1 users: 63,600 in Poland (2013 UNSD). L2 users: 7,200,000 (2019).</p>
Dispersed	<p>Armenian: Recognized language (2005, Minorities Act of 2 January, Article 2(2)). 2,210 in Poland (2013 UNSD).</p> <p>Belarusian: Recognized language (2005, Minorities Act of 2 January, Article 2(2)). 26,700 in Poland (2013 UNSD).</p> <p>Czech: Recognized language (2005, Minorities Act of 2 January, Article 2(2)). 1,430 in Poland (2013 UNSD).</p>

	<p>Lithuanian: Recognized language (2005, Minorities Act of 2 January, Article 2(2)). 5,050 in Poland (2013 UNSD). Russian: Recognized language (2005, Minorities Act of 2 January, Article 2(2)). 6,941,900 in Poland, all users. L1 users: 21,900 in Poland (2013 UNSD). L2 users: 6,920,000 (European Commission 2012). Romani: Recognized language (2005, Minorities Act of 2 January, Article 2(4)). 13,600 in Poland (2013 UNSD). Ukrainian: Recognized language (2005, Minorities Act of 2 January, Article 2(2)). 26,400 in Poland (2013 UNSD).</p>
Vigorous and threatened	<p>Kashubian: Recognized language (2005, Minorities Act of 2 January, Article 19). 107,000 in Poland (2013 UNSD). Rusyn: Recognized language (2005, Minorities Act of 2 January, Article 2(4)). 6,180 in Poland (2013 UNSD). Yiddish: Recognized language (2005, Minorities Act of 2 January, Article 2(2)). 37 in Poland (2002 census).</p>
Unestablished (Allochthonous minorities)	<p>Italian: 7,730 in Poland (2013 UNSD). Spanish 4,640 in Poland (2013 UNSD). Turkish: 3,250 in Poland (2010 census). Vietnamese: 3,970 in Poland (2013 UNSD).</p>
GDP per capita (US\$)	17,999.9
Population	37,740,000
Romania	
International Organization	European Union, Council of Europe
International Conventions	CDE (1960), CPPDCE (2006), CSICH (2012), ECRML (1992), FCPNM (1998), ICCPR (1966), UNCRPD (2006), UNDRIP (2007)
Languages spoken	
National Languages	<p>Romanian: Statutory national language (2003, Constitution, Article 13). 18,100,000 in Romania (2018). <u>Provincial languages:</u> Hungarian: Statutory provincial language in Harghita and Covasna departments (outright majorities); also in Mures, Sate Mare, Bihor and Salay departments (over 20% total county population) (2001, Local Public Administration Law No. 215, Article 40(7), others). 1,260,000 in Romania (2011 census).</p>
Educational	English [eng] 4 (Educational). 6,243,900 in Romania, all users. L1 users: 3,900 in Romania (2021 Joshua Project). L2 users: 6,240,000 (European Commission 2012).

	French [fra] 4 (Educational). 2,343,800 in Romania, all users. L1 users: 3,800 in Romania (2021 J. Leclerc). L2 users: 2,340,000 (Beck et al 2018).
Dispersed	<p>Albanian: Recognized language (2005, National Minority Status Law, Article 3(2)). No data on numbers.</p> <p>Aromanian: Recognized language (2007, National Minority Status Law, Article 3(2)). 50,000 in Romania (2018 N. Balamaci).</p> <p>Bulgarian: Recognized language (2007, Law No. 282, Ratification, European Charter for Regional and Minority Languages). 6,520 in Romania (2011 census).</p> <p>Croatian: Recognized language (2007, Law No. 282, Ratification, European Charter for Regional and Minority Languages). 5,170 in Romania (2011 census).</p> <p>Czech: Recognized language (2005, National Minority Status Law, Article 3(2)). 2,170 in Romania (2011 census).</p> <p>German: Statutory language of national identity (2001, Local Public Administration Law No. 215, Article 40(7), others). 618,600 in Romania, all users. L1 users: 26,600 in Romania (2011 census). L2 users: 592,000 (2018 Eurostat).</p> <p>Greek: Recognized language (2007, National Minority Status Law, Article 3(2)). 2,560 in Romania (2011 census).</p> <p>Italian: Recognized language (2005, National Minority Status Law, Article 3(2)). 1,412,950 in Romania, all users. L1 users: 2,950 in Romania (2011 census). L2 users: 1,410,000 (European Commission 2012).</p> <p>Polish: Recognized language (2007, National Minority Status Law, Article 3(2)). 2,080 in Romania (2011 census).</p> <p>Russian: Recognized language (2007, National Minority Status Law, Article 3(2)). 150,000 in Romania (Arefyev 2012), all users.</p> <p>Serbian: Recognized language (2007, National Minority Status Law, Article 3(2)). 16,800 in Romania (2014 UNSD). Ethnic population: 18,000 (2011 census).</p> <p>Slovak: Recognized language (2001, Local Public Administration Law No. 215, Article 40(7), others). 12,800 in Romania (2011 census). Ethnic population: 13,700 (2011 census).</p> <p>Turkish: Recognized language (2007, National Minority Status Law, Article 3(2)). 25,300 in Romania (2011 census).</p> <p>Ukrainian: Recognized language (2001, Local Public Administration Law No. 215, Article 40(7), others). 48,900 in Romania (2011 census).</p>
Vigorous and threatened	<p>Armenian: Recognized language (2005, National Minority Status Law, Article 3(2)). 740 in Romania (2011 census).</p> <p>Crimean Tatar: Recognized language (2007, National Minority Status Law, Article 3(2)). 22,000 in Romania (2006 A. Goriainov).</p>

	Romani, Vlax: Recognized language (2001, Local Public Administration Law No. 215, Article 40(7), others). 246,000 in Romania (2011 census).
Unestablished (Allochthonous minorities)	Chinese: 2,040 in Romania (2011 census). Ethnic population: 2,020 (2011 census). Tatar: 17,700 in Romania (2011 census). Ethnic population: 20,300 (2011 census).
GDP per capita (US\$)	14,858.2
Population	18,868,679
Slovenia	
International Organization	European Union, Council of Europe, Schengen Area
International Conventions	CDE (1960), CPPDCE (2006), CSICH (2012), ECRML (1992), FCPNM (1998), ICCPR (1966), UNCRPD (2006), UNDRIP (2007)
Languages spoken	
National Languages	Slovene: Statutory national language (1991, Constitution, Article 11). 2,026,700 in Slovenia, all users. <u>Provincial languages</u> Hungarian: Recognized language (1991, Constitution, Article 64). 8,700 in Slovenia (Laakso et al 2013). Italian: Recognized language (1991, Constitution, Article 64). 4,000 in Slovenia (2022).
Educational	English: 1,230,000 in Slovenia (European Commission 2012), L2 users.
Dispersed	Croatian: Recognized language (2000, Slovenian Ratification, ECRML). 1,337,300 in Slovenia, all users. Bosnian: Recognized language (2000, Slovenian Ratification, ECRML). 33,900 in Slovenia (2022). German, Standard: Recognized language (2000, Slovenian Ratification, ECRML). 879,250 in Slovenia, all users. L1 users: 5,250 in Slovenia (2022 Eurostat). L2 users: 874,000 (2019). Serbian: Recognized language (2000, Slovenian Ratification, ECRML). 53,000 in Slovenia (2022).
Vigorous and threatened	Romani, Carpathian: Recognized language (1991, Constitution, Article 65). 4,100 in Slovenia (2022).
Unestablished (Allochthonous minorities)	Albanian: 7,680 in Slovenia (2022). Macedonian: 5,100 in Slovenia (2022). Russian: 30,000 in Slovenia (Arefyev 2012), all users.

GDP per capita (US\$)	29,291.4
Population	2,101,000
Spain	
International Organization	European Union, Council of Europe, Schengen Area
International Conventions	CDE (1960), CPPDCE (2006), CSICH (2012), ECRML (1992), FCPNM (1998), ICCPR (1966), UNCRPD (2006), UNDRIP (2007)
Languages spoken	
National Languages	<p>Spanish: Statutory national language (1978, Constitution, Article 3(1)), recognized statutory language in all autonomous cities and communities under various local laws. 46,590,000 in Spain, all users.</p> <p><u>Provincial languages:</u></p> <p>Basque: Statutory provincial language in Basque Country Autonomous Community (1979, Basque Country Autonomous Community Act 3, 1979, Article 6.1), Official in four Spain provinces: Guipuzcoa, Alava, Vizcaya, Navarra. 987,000 in Spain, all users. L1 users: 631,000 in Spain (Gobierno Vasco 2016). L2 users: 356,000 (2017).</p> <p>Catalan: Statutory provincial language in Catalonia Autonomous Community (1979, Autonomy Act, No. 4, Article 3(2,5)). Statutory provincial language in Valencia Autonomous Community (1982, Autonomy Act, No. 9, Article 7), called Valencian in local laws. Statutory provincial language in Aragon Autonomous Community (1982, Autonomy Act, No. 8, Article 7), called LAPAO (Eastern Aragonese) in local laws. Statutory provincial language in Balearic Islands (1983, Statute of Autonomy of the Balearic Islands, No. 2, Article 3(3)). 8,810,000 in Spain, all users. L1 users: 3,710,000 in Spain (European Commission 2012). L2 users: 5,100,000 (European Commission 2012).</p> <p>Population: 11,800,000 (2021 census).</p> <p>Galician: Statutory provincial language in Galicia Autonomous Community (1981, Autonomy Statute, Act 1 of 6 April, Article 5). 2,320,000 in Spain (European Commission 2012).</p> <p>Population: 2,570,000 (2021 census).</p>
Educational	<p>Chinese, Mandarin: 229,000 in Spain (2020 census), based on nationality.</p> <p>English: 10,825,000 in Spain, all users. L1 users: 425,000 in Spain (2020 census), based on nationality. L2 users: 10,400,000 (European Commission 2012).</p>

Dispersed	Arabic, Moroccan : 870,000 in Spain (2020 census), based on nationality.
Vigorous and threatened	Aranés: Provincially recognized language in Catalonia (2010, Occitan Act, Autonomous Community of Catalonia Parliament, 22 September), Official in Autonomous Community of Catalonia (four provinces), and language of identity in part of Lleida province. 7,060 in Spain, all users. L1 users: 2,790 in Spain (Generalitat Cataluña 2019). L2 users: 4,270 (Generalitat Cataluña 2019). Ethnic population: 3,680 (Generalitat Cataluña 2019).
Unestablished (Allochthonous minorities)	Arabic (all dialects): 951,370 in Spain (2020 census), based on nationality. Italian: 256,000 in Spain (2020 census) French: 253,000 in Spain (2020 census) Romanian: 657,000 in Spain (2020 census), based on nationality. Bulgarian: 117,000 in Spain (2020 census)
Population	47,385,000
GDP per capita (US\$)	30,103.51
Switzerland	
International Organization	Council of Europe, Schengen Area
International Conventions	CPPDCE (2006), CSICH (2012), ECRML (1992), FCPNM (1998), ICCPR (1966), UNCRPD (2006), UNDRIP (2007)
Languages spoken	
National Languages	French: Statutory national language (1999, Constitution, Article 70(1)), co-equal with Italian [ita] and Standard German [deu] on the federal level. 5,890,000 in Switzerland, all users. L1 users: 1,910,000 in Switzerland (2018 census). L2 users: 3,980,000 (Marcoux et al 2022). German: Statutory national language (1999, Constitution, Article 70(1)), co-equal with Italian [ita] and French [fra] on the federal level. 292,000 in Switzerland (2013 census). Italian: Statutory national language (1999, Constitution, Article 70(1)), co-equal with French [fra] and Standard German [deu] on the federal level. 673,000 in Switzerland (2018 census). <u>Provincial languages</u>

	Romansh: Statutory provincial language in Grisons Canton (2004, Grisons Cantonal Constitution, Article 3(1)). 40,000 (2012 census). 1 canton.
Educational	English: 4,733,000 in Switzerland, all users. L1 users: 483,000 in Switzerland (2018 census). L2 users: 4,250,000 (2018).
Dispersed	NA
Vigorous and threatened	Walser: 10,000 in Switzerland (2004). Ethnic population: 21,900 (1980 C. Buchli)
Unestablished (Allochthonous minorities)	Albanian: 171,000 in Switzerland (2012 UNSD). Portuguese: 210,000 in Switzerland (2012 UNSD). Serbian: 205,000 in Switzerland (2014 World Factbook). Spanish: 200,000 in Switzerland (2021).
GDP per capita (US\$)	91,991.6
Population	8,716,000
United Kingdom	
International Organization	Council of Europe
International Conventions	CDE (1960), CPPDCE (2006), FCPNM (1998), ICCPR (1966), UNCRRPD (2006), UNDRIP (2007)
Languages spoken	
National Languages	English: De facto national language. 63,900,000 in United Kingdom, all users. L1 users: 59,400,000 in United Kingdom (2021 census), including 52,570,000 in England and Wales (2021 census), 5,120,000 in Scotland (2011), and 1,750,000 in N. Ireland (2021). L2 users: 4,500,000 (2021 census), including 4,100,000 in England and Wales (2021 census), 300,000 in Scotland (2011 census), and 65,000 in N. Ireland (2021) self-report as proficient in English but do not speak it as their main language at home. <u>Provincial languages</u> Scottish Gaelic: Statutory provincial language in Scotland (2005, Gaelic Language (Scotland) Act). 57,400 in United Kingdom (2011 census). Over 87,000 people with any Gaelic language skills (2011 census).

	<p>Welsh: Statutory provincial language in Wales (1993, Welsh Language Act, C 38). 450,000 in United Kingdom (2022), decreasing. The Welsh government reports that about 900,000 people are able to speak Welsh, with half of these doing so on a daily basis. 32,700 monolinguals (1971 census).</p> <p><u>Not yet recognised as provincial languages:</u></p> <p>Scots: 1,589,200 in United Kingdom, all users. L1 users: 89,200 in United Kingdom (2011 census). 55,800 in Scotland, 33,400 in Northern Ireland. L2 users: 1,500,000 (2001 census).</p> <p>Irish: 8,100 in United Kingdom (2021 census), including 700 in England and Wales (2021 census), 1,400 in Scotland (2011 census), and 6,000 N. Ireland (2021 census). (threatened)</p>
Educational	NA
Dispersed	French: 12,935,000 in United Kingdom, all users. L1 users: 135,000 in United Kingdom (2021 census), including 120,000 in England and Wales (2021), 14,600 in Scotland (2011 census), and 500 in N. Ireland (2018 estimate). L2 users: 12,800,000 (European Commission 2012).
Vigorous and threatened	NA
Unestablished (Allochthonous minorities)	<p>Bengali (Sylheti [syl] and Chittagonian [ctg]): 645,000 people in England and Wales reported Bangladeshi as their ethnic group (2021 Census).</p> <p>Punjabi (all dialects): 273,000 (2011 census). Ethnic population: 471,000 (2004).</p> <p>Polish: 686,000 in United Kingdom (2021 census), including 611,800 in England and Wales (2021 census), 54,200 in Scotland (2011 census), and 20,100 in N. Ireland (2021 census).</p> <p>Romanian: 480,000 in United Kingdom (2021 census), including 472,000 in England and Wales (2021 census), 1,900 in Scotland (2011 census), and 5,600 in N. Ireland (2021).</p> <p>Urdu: 294,000 in United Kingdom (2021 census), including 269,800 in England and Wales (2021 census), 23,400 in Scotland (2011 census), and 600 in N. Ireland (2018 estimate).</p>
GDP per capita (US\$)	46,510.3
Population	67,215,000

List of International Conventions

CDE (1960): Convention against Discrimination in Education <https://www.unesco.org/en/legal-affairs/convention-against-discrimination-education>

CPPDCE (2006): Convention for the Protection and Promotion of the Diversity of Cultural Expression

<https://en.unesco.org/creativity/convention/texts>

CSICH (2012): Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage <https://ich.unesco.org/en/convention>

ECRML (1992): European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages (ETS No. 148) <https://www.coe.int/en/web/conventions/full-list?module=treaty-detail&treatyenum=148>

FCPNM (1998): Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities (ETS No. 157) <https://www.coe.int/en/web/conventions/cets-number/-/abridged-title-known?module=treaty-detail&treatyenum=157>

ICCPR (1966): International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights <https://www.ohchr.org/en/instruments-mechanisms/instruments/international-covenant-civil-and-political-rights>

UNDRIP (2007): United Nations Declaration On The Rights Of Indigenous Peoples <https://social.desa.un.org/issues/indigenous-peoples/united-nations-declaration-on-the-rights-of-indigenous-peoples>

Data On Indicators

2. Absence of legislation or measures forbidding the written public use of any language by businesses provided that a translation in the local dominant language is available

Country	PROXY: Regulation on the language to be used on labelling products
Belgium	<p>“at least” French, Dutch and German</p> <p>The Belgian law of July 12, 2022, published on September 22, put an end to these controversies – at least at first glance. This law modified article 8 of the law of January 24, 1977 as follows:</p> <p>“The information that appears in the labeling and that is made mandatory in execution of this law, or by regulations and decisions of the European Union on this subject must at least appear in the language or languages of the linguistic region where the products are placed on the market” (unofficial translation).</p>
Denmark	<p>BEK n. 1355 del 27/11/2015 Bekendtgørelse om mærkning m.v. af fødevarer</p> <p>When a food is marketed in Denmark, the mandatory information on the food must be listed in Danish or in other languages which, in the specific case, differ from Danish only by insignificant differences in spelling.</p> <p>PCS. 2. In the case of delivery to foreign ships or aircraft, however, the labeling can be completed in one of the official languages of the national State or in English</p>
Finland	<p>Finnish and Swedish</p> <p>Foods marketed in Finland must have mandatory labelling in the official languages of the country, i.e. Finnish and Swedish. In monolingual municipalities, the language of that municipality is sufficient.</p> <p>Elintarviketieto-opas elintarvikevalvojille ja elintarvikealan toimijoille Food Information Guide (Finnish Food Authority Guide 17068/2) (pdf)</p>
France	<p>French</p> <p>Multilingual labels are acceptable with limitations</p>

	Toubon Law Code de la consommation- Titre Ier : INFORMATION DES CONSOMMATEURS
Estonia	Toiduseadus Vastu võetud 25.02.1999 - Food Act “(3) In the case of food sold or otherwise delivered to the consumer in Estonia, food information is provided in Estonian, unless the information provided in another language or in another manner is understandable to the consumer”
Georgia	Information on the label in Georgian No restriction on the use of other languages დადგენილება №44: 2013 წლის 31 დეკემბერი - ტექნიკური რეგლამენტის „სურსათის ეტიკეტებისადმი დამატებითი მოთხოვნების შესახებ“ დამტკიცების თაობაზე Resolution No 44 31 December 2013: “Regarding the approval of the technical regulation "On additional requirements for food labeling”
Germany	Art. 21 specifies that foodstuff must be labelled in German. Foreign foodstuff can be labelled in another language easily understood, although the ingredient list and the technical specifications must also appear in German. Verordnung zur Durchführung unionsrechtlicher Vorschriften betreffend die Information der Verbraucher über Lebensmittel (Lebensmittelinformations-Durchführungsverordnung - LMIDV) Ordinance on the implementation of EU legal provisions relating to consumer information about food (Food Information Implementing Ordinance - LMIDV)
Hungary	Government Decree No. 442 of 2012 (XII. 29.) On packaging of food to be placed on the market, labelling must appear in Hungarian, in an easily legible, understandable and clear manner. Imported packaged food may contain a foreign language label, but a stick-on label in Hungarian must be put on the top of the original one to meet Hungarian labelling requirements.
Italy	Obligatory in Italian Multilingual labels are allowed

	DECRETO LEGISLATIVO 15 December 2017, n. 231
Poland	The Act of 25 August 2006 on food and nutrition safety; the Act of 21 December 2000 on the commercial quality of agricultural and food products; Regulation of the Minister of Agriculture and Rural Development of 23 December 2014 on the labeling of particular types of foodstuffs. Regulation of 1 April 202
Romania	Romanian Other languages allowed
Slovenia	Slovene No restrictions on other languages “General Labeling of Non-Prepackaged Foodstuff”, published in the Official Gazette of the Republic of Slovenia No. 66 last October 21, 2016,
Spain	Spanish Real Decreto 930/1992 Catalan in Catalonia Article 128-1, Chapter 8 of Law 22/2010 of July 20 of Codi de Cosum de Catalunya
Switzerland	German, Italian, French Federal Act on Product Safety Switzerland also adheres to E.U. standards
United Kingdom	English Other languages may be used on food labels but only in addition to English language (bilingual English Welsh not compulsory)

3. Existence of the right to assistance in one's first language during trials in criminal procedures

Country	3. Existence of the right to assistance in one's first language during trials in criminal procedures	PROXY: Presence of norms specifically stating the right to interpretation in a court of law
Belgium	Right of fair trial included in	Loi-programme du 27/12/2006

	UN Declaration of Human Rights (Article 10), ICCPR (Article 14), ECHR (Article 6), CFREU (Article 47)	Arrete Royal du 22/12/2016
Denmark	Right of fair trial included in UN Declaration of Human Rights (Article 10), ICCPR (Article 14), ECHR (Article 6), CFREU (Article 47)	Retsplejeloven § 149
Estonia	Right of fair trial included in UN Declaration of Human Rights (Article 10), ICCPR (Article 14), ECHR (Article 6), CFREU (Article 47)	Art. 10 Kriminaalmenetluse seadustik Vastu võetud – Criminal Proceedings Code 12.02.2003
Finland	Right of fair trial included in UN Declaration of Human Rights (Article 10), ICCPR (Article 14), ECHR (Article 6), CFREU (Article 47)	Sami and Swedish: Language Act (423/2003) Sámi Language Act (1086/2003) Laki tulkkien rekisteristä - Act on the Register of Legal Interpreters (1590/2015) Esitutkintalaki - Preliminary Investigation Act (805/2011) Pakkokeinolaki - Coercive Measures Act lain (689/1997)
France	Right of fair trial included in UN Declaration of Human Rights (Article 10), ICCPR (Article 14), ECHR (Article 6), CFREU (Article 47)	Tabaï v. France (dec.) (2004) Articles 61 , 388 Criminal Code (Code de procédure pénale)
Georgia	Right of fair trial included in UN Declaration of Human Rights (Article 10), ICCPR (Article 14), ECHR (Article 6)	Art. 11 საქართველოს სისხლის სამართლის საპროცესო კოდექსი - Criminal Procedure Code of Georgia

Germany	Right of fair trial included in UN Declaration of Human Rights (Article 10), ICCPR (Article 14), ECHR (Article 6), CFREU (Article 47)	Luedicke, Belkacem and Koç v. Germany (1978) German Constitution, article 20 and 103 Code of Criminal Procedure (Strafprozessordnung): Section 187
Hungary	Right of fair trial included in UN Declaration of Human Rights (Article 10), ICCPR (Article 14), ECHR (Article 6), CFREU (Article 47)	Section 59-64 Code of Criminal Procedure (Büntetőeljárás Törvény)
Italy	Right of fair trial included in UN Declaration of Human Rights (Article 10), ICCPR (Article 14), ECHR (Article 6), CFREU (Article 47)	Brozicek v. Italy (1989) <i>Hermi v. Italy [GC] (2006)</i> Articles 24 and 111 Costituzione della Repubblica Italiana - Constitution of Italy Articles 191, 193, 194, 497 of Codice di Procedura Penale - Code of Criminal Procedure Law No. 479/1999 (Legge 479/1999)
Poland	Right of fair trial included in UN Declaration of Human Rights (Article 10), ICCPR (Article 14), ECHR (Article 6), CFREU (Article 47)	Article 204 of the Code of Criminal Procedure (Kodeks postępowania karnego)
Romania	Right of fair trial included in UN Declaration of Human Rights (Article 10), ICCPR (Article 14), ECHR (Article 6), CFREU (Article 47)	Article 9, Articles 71-74 Code of Criminal Procedure (Cod de procedura penala)
Slovenia	Right of fair trial included in	Article 8, Articles 199-203 Criminal Procedure Act (Zakon o kazenskem postopku)

	UN Declaration of Human Rights (Article 10), ICCPR (Article 14), ECHR (Article 6), CFREU (Article 47)	
Spain	Right of fair trial included in UN Declaration of Human Rights (Article 10), ICCPR (Article 14), ECHR (Article 6), CFREU (Article 47)	Articles 440 – 441 of Code of Criminal Procedure (Código de Procedimiento Penal)
Switzerland	Right of fair trial included in UN Declaration of Human Rights (Article 10), ICCPR (Article 14), ECHR (Article 6)	Articles 128- 131 Code of Criminal Procedure (Strafprozessordnung)
United Kingdom	Right of fair trial included in UN Declaration of Human Rights (Article 10), ICCPR (Article 14), ECHR (Article 6), CFREU (Article 47), still applicable after Brexit	Section 38 of Criminal Justice Act 2003

4. Proportion of centres for asylum seekers in the jurisdiction examined employing staff or linguistic mediators fluent in at least one non-official language relevant to the asylum seekers (corrected for the total number of asylum seekers and the total population of the country)

Country	4. Proportion of centres for asylum seekers in the jurisdiction examined employing staff or linguistic mediators fluent in at least one non-official language relevant to the asylum seekers (corrected for the total number of asylum seekers and the total population of the country)	
Belgium	NA	
Denmark	NA	
Finland	NA	

France	NA
Estonia	NA
Georgia	NA
Germany	NA
Hungary	NA
Italy	NA
Poland	NA
Romania	NA
Slovenia	NA
Spain	NA
Switzerland	NA
United Kingdom	NA

5. Aggregate indicator of recognition of languages traditional minorities. Potential implementation of explicit legal or administrative rights such as to receive official information and to address and receive answers from authorities in one's first language)

Country	Statutory Minority Languages (Autochthonous Minorities)	5. Aggregate indicator of recognition of languages traditional minorities. Potential implementation of explicit legal or administrative rights such as to receive official information and to address and receive answers from authorities in one's first language PROXY INDICATOR: Norms on bi-multilingual requirements for civil servant (public administration employers)
Belgium		
	German	(municipal laws in town of Wallonia)
Statutory National language(s)	Dutch	Article 4 of the Constitution (federal level) Flemish Language Decree (Vlaamse Taaldecree) of 19 July 1973
	French	Article 4 of the Constitution (federal level) Decree of the French Community of Belgium on the Use of Languages in Administrative Matters (Décret de la Communauté française de Belgique relatif à l'emploi des langues en matière administrative) of 7 November 2013
Denmark		
	German (South Jutland)	1955 Copenhagen Bonn Declarations 1997 Law to ratify FCPNM 2001 Law to rarefy ECRMR (mostly educational institutions)

(not in the sample but useful to note)	Faroese	Faroese is not recognised as minority languages. The study of Danish is mandatory in schools (1984 - Law on mother tongue education (Bekendtgørelse om folkeskolens undervisning af fremmedsprogede elever)
	Greenlandic	Official languages of Greenland are Greenlandic and Danish (Royal Act no. 473, adopted by parliament 12 June 2009, also known as the Act on Greenland Self-Government)
Finland		
	Swedish	Language Act (423/2003)
	Saami	Sámi Language Act (1086/2003)
Estonia	NA	
France ⁷		
	Alsatian	NA
	Occitan	NA
[Note]		The Law on Regional Languages (Loi sur les langues regionales) does not include norms on administration but only education
Georgia		
	Abkhazian	State Languages Law (სახელმწიფო ენის შესახებ) of 22/07/2015
Germany		
	Danish	Schleswig-Holstein Constitution

⁷ The study only looks at the languages spoken in the mainland, excluding overseas territories.

		1955 Danish-German Agreement on the Danish Minority
	Romani	NA
Hungary		
	Croatian	Act on the Rights of National and Ethnic Minorities (1993/XX. Act) Act CLXXIX of 2011 on the Rights of Nationalities
	German	Act on the Rights of National and Ethnic Minorities (1993/XX. Act) Act CLXXIX of 2011 on the Rights of Nationalities
Italy		
	French	Special Statute – Statuto Speciale 1948 Regional Law No 24 of 24 July 2010 (all official documents need to be written in Italian and French)
	German	Autonomy Statute- Statuto di autonomia 1972 Regional Decree No 752 of 26 July 1976 (obligation of certificate of bilingualism to work in the civil service)
Poland		
	Russian	Act No 17 on National and Ethnic Minorities and on the Regional Language of 6 January 2005 (Ustawa o mniejszościach narodowych i etnicznych oraz o języku regionalnym):

	Ukrainian	Act No 17 on National and Ethnic Minorities and on the Regional Language of 6 January 2005 (Ustawa o mniejszościach narodowych i etnicznych oraz o języku regionalnym):
Romania		
	Aromanian	LAW no. 86 of February 6, 1945 regarding the Status of Minority Nationalities (Lege privind Statutul Naționalităților Minoritare) Recommendation no.1521/2001 on the culture of Romanians in Romania, adopted by the Parliamentary Assembly of The Council of Europe (Recomandării nr. 1521/2001 privind cultura ceangăilor în România)
	Hungarian	LAW no. 86 of February 6, 1945 regarding the Status of Minority Nationalities (Lege privind Statutul Naționalităților Minoritare)
		Hotărârea Guvernului nr. 430/2001 pentru aprobarea Strategiei Guvernului României
Slovenia ⁸		
	Croatian	Law on Use of Languages and Scripts of National Minorities originally 101/2005 – amended by Act, 30/2010, 47/2018 and 48/2018 (Zakon o uporabi jezika i pisma nacionalnih manjina)

⁸ Hungarian and Italian are recognised as provincial languages under Article 64 of the Slovenian Constitutions, but the number of speakers less 10,000. Whereas the minorities recognised under the ECRML have larger numbers, as it is outlined in the Appendix.

	German	Law on Use of Languages and Scripts of National Minorities originally 101/2005 – amended by Act, 30/2010, 47/2018 and 48/2018 (Zakon o uporabi jezika i pisma nacionalnih manjina)
	[Note] This act provides specific provisions for the protection of the linguistic rights of national communities in Slovenia, including the Croatian and German community	The Act on the Special Rights of the Italian and Hungarian National Communities in the Field of Education No 35/01 of 11 May 2001 (Zakon o posebnih pravicah italijanske in madžarske narodne skupnosti na področju vzgoje in izobraževanja).
Spain		
	Catalan	Statute of Autonomy of Catalonia of 1979 (modified 2006) The 1983 Catalan Linguistic Normalization (La Normalització Lingüística de Catalunya) Law on Linguistic Policy Act No. 1, of 7th January 1998 (Llei de política lingüística - Llengua catalana)
	Galician	Statute of Autonomy of Galicia of 1981 Law 3/1983, of June 15, on Galician Language (Lei de normalización lingüística) Law 2/2012, of April 28 on Linguistic Policy (Lei de política lingüística) Royal Decree 1578/2008, of October 26, on the Use of Galician in Public Administrations in Galicia (Real Decreto polo que se regula o uso do galego nas administracións públicas da Comunidade Autónoma de Galicia)

		Law 39/2015, of October 1, on the Common Administrative Procedure of Public Administrations - Ley del Procedimiento Administrativo Común de las Administraciones Públicas.
Switzerland		
	Romansh	Referendum on 20 February 1938, a majority of 91.6% voted for the recognition of Romansh as an official language for use within the canton of Grisons.
Statutory National language(s)	French	Swiss Constitution
	German	Swiss Constitution
	Italian	Swiss Constitution
United Kingdom		
	Scottish Gaelic	Gaelic Language (Scotland) Act 2005 Public Bodies (Gaelic Language) (Scotland) Act 2015
	Welsh	Welsh Language (Wales) Act 1993 Welsh Language (Wales) Act 1993

6. Aggregate indicator of recognition of languages of resident migrants, asylum-seekers and refugees. Potential implementation of explicit legal or administrative rights such as to receive official information and to address and receive answers from authorities in one's first language

Country	6. Aggregate indicator of recognition of languages of resident migrants, asylum-seekers and refugees. Potential implementation of explicit legal or administrative rights such as to receive official information and to address and receive answers from authorities in one's first language
Belgium	NA
Denmark	NA
Finland	NA
France	NA
Estonia	NA
Georgia	NA
Germany	NA
Hungary	NA
Italy	NA
Poland	NA
Romania	NA
Slovenia	NA
Spain	NA
Switzerland	NA
United Kingdom	NA

7. Proportion of legally binding documents such as laws and regulations published online per year in the languages spoken in the jurisdiction examined (weighted across citizens and the indicator of recognition of the individual languages)

Country	Statutory National Languages	Statutory Minority Languages (Autochthonous Minorities)	7. Proportion of legally binding documents such as laws and regulations published online per year in the languages spoken in the jurisdiction examined (weighted across citizens and the indicator of recognition of the individual languages)

			PROXY: Number of legislations and executive acts (such as regulations or decisions buy government or government agencies), excluding public tenders and constitutional court rulings published in national Official Gazettes in the month of May 2023 Control Group: legislations published in the minority language in Regional Autonomous Authorities
Belgium			Belgian Official Gazette (federal) Belgisch Staatsblad/ Moniteur belge No. 328 of 2022-12-30
		German	12
	Dutch		72
	French		68
Denmark			Lovtidende - Seneste kundgjorte forskrifter
	Danish (de facto)		24
		German	0
		Greenlandic	0 Publications on the Greenlandic Parliament Saqqummersitat Naalakkersuisut 5
Finland			Data from Finlex Data Bank (database of executive and legislative documents), cross-referenced with Parliament database (Lainsäädänt)
	Finnish		5
		Swedish	5 Regional Parlaiment of the Åland Autonomy (the extensive number of documents is attributed to the comprehensive recording of all legal materials, encompassing letters from individual Members of Parliament and cases deliberated in the Assembly)

			113
		Saami	0 The only document of the Regional Parliament of Lapland (Lapin liiton edustajainkokous) dates back 23/09/2021 The website of the Lapin
Estonia			Estonian Parliament Database Riigikogu Toimetised
	Estonian		19
[unofficial minority language]		Russian	The website of the Parliament is translated in Russian, but the documents are available only in Estonian 0
France			Journal officiel "Lois et Décrets"
	French		21
		Alsatian	0
		Occitan	0
Georgia			"Legislative Herald of Georgia" საქართველოს საკანონმდებლო მაცნე
	Georgian		202 Acts in force (national and local)
		Abkhazian	Only Constitution available
Germany			German Federal Law Database (Das Dokumentations- und Informationssystem für Parlamentsmaterialien (DIP))
	German		7
		Danish	0
		Romani	0
Hungary			Hungarian Gazette (MAGYAR KÖZLÖNY)
	Hungarian		18
		Croatian	0

			Some laws are translated in Croatian and included in the National Legal Repository (Nemzeti Jogszabálytár) but they are not available to the public
		German	0 Some laws are translated in German and included in the National Legal Repository (Nemzeti Jogszabálytár) but they are not available to the public
Italy			Gazzetta Ufficiale della Repubblica Italiana 29/05/2023
	Italian		Subsections: General Series, Part I and II (Serie Generale) 28 Regional Laws (Regioni) 11 Public Selection for Civil and Public Servants (Concorsi ed Esami) Public Tenders (Contratti pubblici) Italian only
		Sardinian	Regional laws and regulations of the Sardinian Regional Council 2 in Italian only
		German	0 Provincial laws and current regulations of the Autonomous Province of Bolzano (LexBrowser database) 4 (bilingual German – Italian)

Poland			Legislation Gazette of the Republic of Poland (Dziennik Ustaw Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej)
	Polish		121
		Russian	0
		Ukrainian	0
Romania			Official Gazette (Publicația oficială - Monitorul Oficial al României) Subsections: Part I only (Partea I) which includes normative and executive acts by Parliament, President, Government and various governmental agencies
	Romanian		133
		Aromanian	0
		Hungarian	2
Slovenia			Official Gazette of the Republic of Slovenia (Uradni list Republike Slovenije) Številka 50 -59 throughout the month of May (including record of municipal laws)
	Slovenian		41
		Croatian	0
		German	0
Spain			Official Gazette of Spain (Agencia Estatal Boletín Oficial del Estado)
	Spanish		336
		Catalan	National level: 0 [Contingut no disponible en català] Gazette of the Autonomous Region of Catalonia (Diari Oficial de la Generalitat de Catalunya) 374 in Catalan and Spanish
		Galician	National Level: 0 [Contido non dispoñible en galego]

			Gazette of the Autonomous Region of Galicia (Diario Oficial de Galicia) 198 in Galician and Spanish
Switzerland			Fedlex La piattaforma di pubblicazione del diritto federale
		Romansh	0
	French		56
	German		56
	Italian		56
United Kingdom			Legislation.gov.uk - Official place of publication for newly enacted legislation (divided by devolved nation)
	English (de facto)		78
		Scottish Gaelic	0
		Welsh	13

8. Proportion administrative forms of the tax office and the population registry released/published online per year in the languages spoken of the jurisdiction examined (weighted across citizens and the indicator of recognition of the individual languages)

Country	8. Proportion administrative forms of the tax office and the population registry released/published online per year in the languages spoken of the jurisdiction examined (weighted across citizens and the indicator of recognition of the individual languages)	
	Languages in which tax forms are available	Sources
Belgium	French Dutch English German	<u>FEDERALE OVERHEIDSDIENST FINANCIËN</u>

Denmark	Danish Greenlandic English	<u>Skattestyrelsen</u>
Finland	Finnish Swedish English Estonian French Russian Somali Turkish Arabic Farsi Chinese Spanish	<u>Vero Skatt</u>
France	French	<u>Direction générale des Finances publiques</u>
Estonia	Estonian Russian English	<u>Maksu- ja Tolliamet</u>
Georgia	Georgian	<u>Revenue Agencies</u> <u>Regulation 249/2007 on tax revenues forms</u>
Germany	German English	<u>Bundeszentralamt für Steuern</u>
Hungary	Hungarian English	<u>NTCA</u>
Italy	Italian English German	<u>Agenzia delle Entrate</u>

Poland	Polish English	<u>Służba Celno-Skarbowa</u>
Romania	Romanian Italian	<u>Agencia Națională de Administrare Fiscală</u>
Slovenia	Slovenian English Italian Hungarian	<u>Financial administration of the RS</u>
Spain	Catalan Galician Valencian English Spanish	<u>Agencia Tributaria</u>
Switzerland	German French Italian Romani English	<u>Ch Taxes and Finances</u>
United Kingdom	English Welsh	<u>Government Services Website</u>

9. Proportion of toponyms (street and place names) available in the languages of the jurisdiction examined (weighted across citizens, the indicator of recognition of the individual languages, and administrative sub-units)

Country	9. Proportion of toponyms (street and place names) available in the languages of the jurisdiction examined (weighted across citizens, the indicator of recognition of the individual languages, and administrative sub-units)	Picture from Google Street View

	<p>PROXY: Sample of 3 Streets/Place names from Google Street View</p>	
<p>Belgium</p>	<div data-bbox="663 300 1126 488" data-label="Image"> </div> <div data-bbox="698 536 1093 762" data-label="Image"> </div> <div data-bbox="696 810 1095 1129" data-label="Image"> </div>	<p>Ghent: Monolingual Dutch (May 2019, -, Jul 2022, Jul 2023)</p>



Namur: Monolingual French
(May 2019, Oct 2022, Nov 2020, May 2019)

		
	 	<p>Brussel: Bilingual French and Dutch (May 2019, Apr 2023, Oct 2020, May 2022)</p>

	 	
<p>Denmark</p>		<p>Aarhus: Monolingual Dutch (Jan 2022, May 2017, Jan 2022, Oct 2023)</p>

	  	
	 	<p>Copenhagen: Monolingual Dutch (Jan 2021, May 2022, Jun 2022, Oct 2020)</p>



Roskilde: Monolingual Dutch
(Aug 2020, -, May 2017, -)

	 	
Finland	  	Helsinki: Bilingual Finnish and Swedish (Sept 2020, Apr 2021, Oct 2020, Jul 2021)



Rovaniemi: Placenames monolingual Sami or Finnish, streetnames in Finnish (Aug 2019, -, -Jul 20129)



Inari: Placenames Bilingual Finnish and Sami,
streets monolingual Finnish
(Jul 2021, Jul 2019, Jul 2021, -)0

	 	
<p>France</p>	 	<p>Paris: Monolingual French (Jul 2019, Mar 2023, Feb 2023, Mar 2023)</p>



Toulouse: Bilingual French and Occitan
(Feb 20203, Feb 2018, Sept 2023, Jul 2020)

	 	
		<p>Strasbourg: Bilingual French and Alsatian in the city centre (Feb 2023, Jul 2023) French in the periphery (Sep 2023, Oct 2023)</p>



<p>Estonia</p>	   	<p>Tallin: Monolingual Estonian (Mar 2023, -, -,)</p>
		<p>Võru: Monolingual Estonian (Jul 2011, Aug 2023, Aug 2011, Jul 2023)</p>

	  	
		<p>Tartu: Monolingual Estonian (Jul 2014, Aug 2023, Jul 2023, Jul 2023)</p>

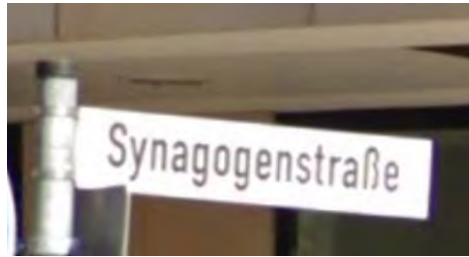
		
<p>Georgia</p>		<p>Tbilisi: Bilingual Georgian and English (May 2018, Aug 20129, -, May 2018)</p>



Sokhumi: Monolingual Abkhazian
 (Apr 2021)
 [very limited data]

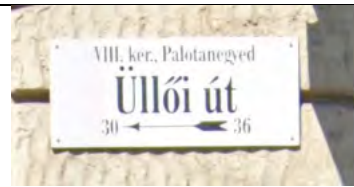
		<p>Batumi: Bilingual Georgian and English (Jun 2021, -, -)</p>
<p>Germany</p>		<p>Berlin: Monolingual German (Jul 2008, Sept 2023, Mar 2022, Aug 2022)</p>

	  	
	 	<p>Lingen: Monolingual German (Apr 2017, Sept 2023, -, Sept 2022)</p>



Dresden: Monolingual German
(May 2023, Jun 2022, Jun 2023, Jun 2022)

	 	
<p>Hungary</p>	 	<p>Budapest: Monolingual Hungarian (Apr 2022, Jul 2019, Aug 2019, May 2022)</p>






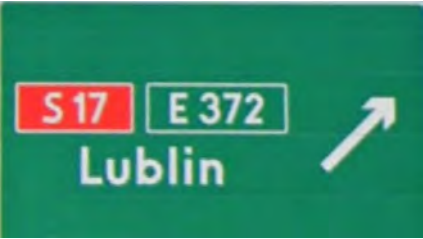

Pécs : Monolingual Hungarian
(Dec 2011, Jun 2022, Jul 2022 Jul 2022)

	 	
	 	<p>Szombathely: Monolingual Hungarian (Apr 2019, Jun 2023, Aug 2022, Jun 2023)</p>

		
<p>Italy</p>		<p>Rome: Monolingual Italian (Aug 2022, Aug 2023, Aug 2022, Jul 2016)</p>

	 	
	 	<p>Nuoro: Italian (July 2022, Aug 2022, Jul 2018, Jul 2022)</p>

	 	
	 	<p>Bolzano: Bilingual Italian and German (Sept 2020, Oct 2023, Apr 2022, Sept 2023)</p>

	 	
<p>Poland</p>	  	<p>Warsaw: Monolingual Polish (Sept 2019, Apr 2021, Sep 2020, Aug 2019)</p>

		
	  	<p>Kraków: Monolingual Polish (Apr 2017, Jul 2017, Mar 2021, Jun 2019)</p>

		
	   	<p>Białystok: Monolingual Polish (Nov 2020, -, May 2019, Jun 2021)</p>

Romania



București: Monolingual Romanian (Mar 2022, Sep 2023, Aug 2023, Aug 2023)

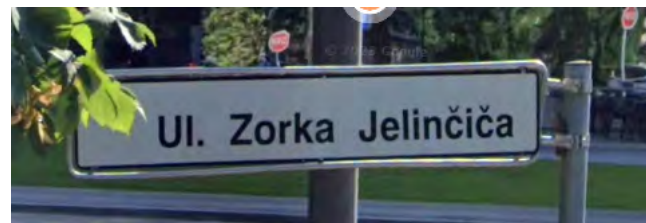
Oradea: Monolingual Romanian (Oct 201, Jul 2022, 2, Aug 2022, Jul 2022)



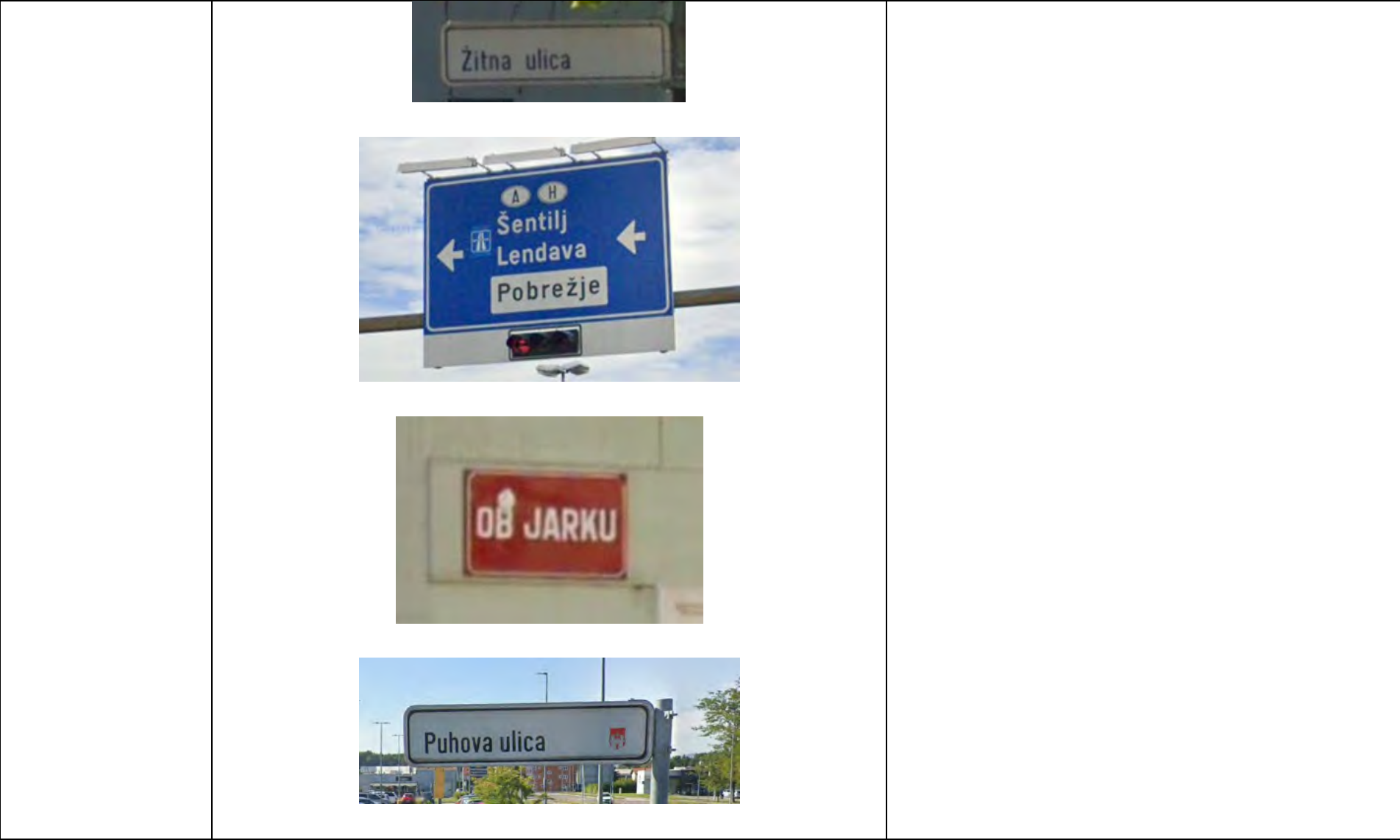
	   	<p>Timișoara: Monolingual Romanian (Sept 2022, Aug 2018, Jun 2019)</p>
<p>Slovenia</p>		<p>Ljubljana: Monolingual Slovenian (Sept 2012, Oct 2023, May 2022) Some Italian for border cities (Jul 2023)</p>



Nova Gorica: Monolingual Slovenian (Jul 2019,
Aug 2023, -, -)



Maribor: Monolingual Slovenian (Jun 2019, Jul 2022, -, Sep 2021)



Spain

Madrid: Monolingual Spanish (Jan 2023, May 2023, Mar 2022, Jan 2023)



Bilbao: Bilingual Spanish and Basque (Mar 2022, Oct 2023, Dec 2022)

Some Basque monolingual in peripheral areas (Feb 2022)





Barcelona: Monolingual Catalan (Mar 2023, Apr 2023, Sept 2023, Aug 2023)

		
<p>Switzerland</p>	   	<p>Bern: Monolingual German (Nov 2014, Aug 2021, Jul 2013, Aug 2021)</p>

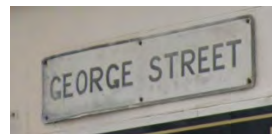
Genève: Monolingual French (Oct 014, -Aug 2014,
Jul 2013)





Lugano: Monolingual Italian (Jul 2013, -, Jul 2018, Jul 2013)

	 	
<p>United Kingdom</p>		<p>London: Monolingual English for placenames, street names and tourist information (Dec 2022, Aug 2022, Jun 2022, Feb 2022)</p>



Swansea: Street names: monolingual English (Jul 2022, Jun 2018), placenames bilingual English and Welsh (Jun 2022)



Aberdeen: Monolingual English (Jul 2022, Jun 2022, -, Apr 2023)



10. Proportion of public hospitals and clinics in which consultations are available in the languages of the jurisdiction examined (weighted across citizens, the indicator of recognition of the individual languages, and administrative sub-units)

Country	10. Proportion of public hospitals and clinics in which consultations are available in the languages of the jurisdiction examined (weighted across citizens, the	PROXY: Presence of Official Guidelines for Interpreters in Healthcare Provided by the Ministry of Health or other Governmental Agencies
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	indicator of recognition of the individual languages, and administrative sub-units)	
Belgium	NA	NULL (available for Sign Language)
Denmark	NA	Law on Healthcare 210/ 2022 <u>Bekendtgørelse af sundhedsloven</u>
Finland	NA	Guidelines for assistance of foreign patients <u>Sairaanhoito kansainvälisissä tilanteissa</u>
France	NA	Guidelines on interpretation (Ministry of Health) <u>Interprétariat linguistique dans le domaine de la santé (2017)</u>
Estonia	NA	NULL
Georgia	NA	NULL
Germany	NA	“Interpreters in the context of health care claim and assumption of costs” (German Federal Government) <u>Dolmetscher im Rahmen der gesundheitlichen Versorgung</u> <u>Anspruch und Kostenübernahme</u>
Hungary	NA	NULL
Italy	NA	“Access to care for the foreign person: operational indications” (Guidelines from the Ministry of Health including norms on interpretation) <u>L’accesso alle cure della persona straniera: indicazioni operative</u>
Poland	NA	NULL

Romania	NA	NULL
Slovenia	NA	Mention of interpreters in healthcare on Budget at 2711 Ministrstvo za zdravje
Spain	NA	NULL
Switzerland	NA	“Translating in healthcare: claims and bear the costs” (Report of the Swiss government including recommendations) Übersetzen im Gesundheitsbereich: Ansprüche und Kostentragung
United Kingdom	NA	NHS England Improving the Quality of Interpreting in Primary Care (2017) Guidance for Commissioners: Interpreting and Translation Services in Primary Care (2018) NHS Scotland Interpreting, Communication Support and Translation National Policy (2020) Northern Ireland Health and Social Care Interpreting Service (NIHSCIS) Guidelines on Working with Interpreters for HSC Staff and Practitioners