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# Contents

## *Editorial Words*

*Dear esteemed readers,*

It is my great pleasure to welcome you to the latest edition of ASEJ, the academic journal that brings you the latest research in the fields of law, economics, logistics, finance, psychology, criminology, computer science, and security. This issue features a diverse range of articles from leading experts in these fields, showcasing their latest research and insights into current trends and challenges.

As we continue to face unprecedented challenges and rapidly evolving technological advancements, it is more important than ever to stay up-to-date with the latest research and trends in these fields. This issue of ASEJ offers valuable insights and perspectives that are essential for anyone seeking to stay at the forefront of their respective disciplines.

We would like to take this opportunity to express our sincere gratitude to the authors for their hard work and contributions to the advancement of knowledge. We would also like to acknowledge the invaluable support of the Bielsko-Biala School of Finance and Law for their continued commitment to publishing this journal, which serves as a platform for the exchange of the latest knowledge and insights.

Virtual reality (VR) technology has been advancing at a rapid pace, and with its growth come a range of challenges in various fields, including economics, law, security, and computer science. In the realm of economics, one challenge is determining how to integrate VR technology into existing business models. VR has the potential to revolutionize the way companies conduct business, but it also requires significant investment and infrastructure to do so. Additionally, there are concerns about how VR will impact the job market, as it could potentially eliminate the need for certain types of jobs while creating new ones in the VR industry.

In this issue, we also explore the growing significance of virtual reality in law, economics, finance, and security. As VR technology continues to evolve, it presents both opportunities and challenges in these fields. For example, in economics, VR has the potential to revolutionize the way businesses operate, but it also requires significant investment and infrastructure. In law, the use of VR raises important questions around data protection, privacy, and intellectual property rights. In finance, VR can be used to enhance customer experiences and provide new insights into investment opportunities. In security, VR presents new risks and challenges, such as ensuring the safety of users and protecting sensitive data from cyber threats.

We hope that this issue of ASEJ will prove insightful and informative for our readers, and we look forward to your feedback and contributions in future editions.

Sincerely,

*Dr Muhammad Jammal*
*Editor of the ASEJ, Issue 4, Volume 26, 2022*

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# Language rights and official language in constitutionalism. Do bilingual states give us more rights for our language?

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***Abstract*— In the first chapter, I describe the problem of language in society, providing meaning for "language planning", "language policy", "language ideology", "language rights", as well as setting the connections between them on the ground of a bilingual state. For the second chapter, I make arguments that are based on quantitative data addressed to the social structure and development for the following comparative analysis of language policies of selected bilingual states (Belgium, Canada, Ukraine and Sweden). Then, in the third chapter, I indicate a catalogue of rights related to language in constitutional acts through the prism of "official language" meaning. Finally, I conclude that (a) the catalogue of personal rights that are proclaimed by language policies may differ significantly between jurisdictions and does not apply only to minority rights, (b) language policies of bilingual states clearly describe traditional national minorities and their rights, but are more restrictive or indeterminate in granting of rights for newcomers (e.g., refugees or economic migrants). The links between democracy and liberal intention in language policies remain in question, to be resolved by a large sample.**

**Keywords— linguistic rights, definition of language rights, official language, methodology of language rights research, democracy rank.**

## I. INTRODUCTION

Conforming to Article 2 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights accepted by the United Nations, nobody can be discriminated – among other reasons – against for their language (Assembly, U.G., 1948: 14-25). Other more specific legal documents with a status of interstate treaties define language right in the sphere of non-discrimination in education (e.g., Convention against Discrimination in Education adopted by UNESCO on 14 December 1960) and relations in the context of freedom of religion, freedom of speech, freedom of assembly, which characterized in International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (Singh, 2008). Moreover, the European regional treaties define in more detail ways relations on the ground of language issues between society majorities and minorities in the subject of culture, education, freedoms of speech, religion, association – e.g., the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages (hereinafter referred to as CETS 148) (Council of Europe, 1992).

It seems that humanity resolved the main problem with historical roots – discrimination by language preferences. However, the permanent success of the last developments in human rights has also produced an increase in legal violations. There is an assumption of facts in how Kurds, Kashmiris, Romany, Rusyns, and many other social groups are deprived of linguistic human rights. The confrontations based on language take place throughout the world and have strong political roots provoked by faint responses from international and regional law perspectives. Thus, the language issue remains relevant to this day.

In order to provide a better understanding of the problem highlighted above, I shall continue with essential definitions as they have been revealed in current multidisciplinary discussion. Language, following (Chomsky, 2008), is merely a set of sentences humanity uses for communication purposes. These sentences are packed upon a limited set of elements such as words. Indeed, due to the fact of language existence and (sometimes) co-existence in society from time out of mind, the question of language being was put onto the public discussion multiple times. Different institutions and authorities have tried to (a) modify language (-s) (Johnson, 2013), (b) prioritize usage of one and/or make conditions for a linguicide. Linguicide is the act that tends to cause the disappearance of a particular language (Wilson, 2022): e.g., non-Russian elimination in the Russian Empire or only-English policy in the British Empire as

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well as derussification (also known as derussianisation) or deanglicization in XX-XXI etc. This states' behaviour towards languages might be connected with different manifestations of nationalism, obtained or adopted within local political and cultural contexts (see more in May, 2013).

The processes highlighted above are covered by the meaning of terms "language policy" and "language planning". The language policy is a set of public aims and goals dedicated to a particular language (-s) (Johnson, 2013). In turn, language planning is about implementing policies to obtain results (Zaidi, 2013). As it was mentioned in (Piller, 2015), the language policy and planning are formulated by the understanding of language in society, which can be described as "language ideology". There are numerous different language ideologies, and they certainly form the basis for public actions in the area of language policy and planning (Kroskrity, 2010).

Language rights (hereinafter referred to as LRs) – as the output of public policies – have emerged on the basis of separate waves in human rights studies. Simply put, there might be a few dimensions for LRs: (1) language rights as a personal good, (2) language rights as part of national minorities rights, (3) language rights as rights of language itself. The first one refers to a universal right dedicated to all individuals; the second considers LRs through the prism of collective rights and, particularly, it coins LRs as a part of ethnicity recognition by the state. The third tendency is widely seen in ecolinguistics (May, 2013).

However, some scholars, such as (Arzoz, 2007), indicate the problem of completeness of LRs' definition. The author mentioned that the definition of linguistic rights is exceptionally detailed in the context of education, but it omits other areas of language usage (as a political one), and, moreover, does not state the notion of limit for such rights. According to (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2012), the subject of protection is everyone's right to use a particular language, but from a practical perspective it is a right of child to learn mother-tongue languages. In this regard, the international law has quite firmly established that a citizen has the universal right to study a mother tongue and official language (e.g., Convention against Discrimination in Education, 1960). To this point, CETS 148, as a more specified document on regional level, extends the catalogue of language rights, but it is limited to officially recognised national minorities by the state. Thus, the state still chooses how to construct a language policy, the influence of international law is minimal. Then, trying to define the most significant difficulties in LRs concept, the determination of the limits of such rights seems to be a fundamental problem.

Where is the line that leads to the direct violation of the equality of the parties? If I approach defining boundaries in as much detail as possible, this outlook will be prosperous in the case of the right to life – it is evident that the violation of this natural right occurs when there is an encroachment on the life of a person (Gormley, 1987). Indeed, considering this case on the ground of language, then the situation turns to be more complicated, and this approach cannot be successful in our case. Always, a choice of certain language is an automatic exclusion of another language.

According to (Kibbee 2016), it is possible to account for the fact that even the dominant language in society has the same rights as non-dominant languages, but those rights are better secured and enforced by social rules and practices. Concerning speakers of dominant languages, intra-lingual regulations determine the acceptable usage of a single language: the imposition of one language (dialect) within a national education system inevitably favours one class of nation or one region over another and disadvantages native speakers of "non-standard" languages. Most importantly, this practice may occur without legal ascertainment. As an argument: based on U.S. law, there is no legislative ground for the official role of English in society, but the dominant position of this language takes place in social activities, precisely because of the predominance of the English-speaking group in this region (Bianco, 2020).

William Stewart argued that it would be possible to outline languages by juridical usage and actual existence. This social-based classification allows me to recognise official means of language by certain social activities: e.g.,, official, local-official, international, educational (Stewart, 1968). This approach is based on the roles of language in society, though it is difficult to assume that language usage in one area of social life implies a total ban on its usage in other spheres. Bearing in mind the problematic described above, I study bilingual states, as, in theory, most open communities to multilingual practices. For this research, I utilize Stewart's classification of languages and define bilingual states in a more accurate manner. Literally, a bilingual state is a state where there is more than one language recognised to be by some means as an official.

Thus, the primary purpose of this article is to indicate a catalogue of rights related to languages in constitutional acts through the prism of "official language" meaning. I also will provide cross-links between the quality of the adopted legislative decisions, level of democracy, and the participation in the European system of human rights protection.

## II. METHODS AND DATA

This paper presents comparative legal studies based on cases from constitutionalism's of Belgium, Canada, Sweden and Ukraine. States with high levels of democracy (Sweden and Canada) are expected to have a better quality of legislative decisions aiming to establish a plural regime in favour of all languages used by minorities. It is also assumed that decisions made in the language field are more dependent on internal factors than on international obligations (e.g.,, CETS 148).

It should be noted that Sweden, Ukraine and Belgium participate in the European human rights protection system. Also worthy of attention is the fact that Belgium, Ukraine and Sweden accepted the Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities, which was adopted by the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe on 10 November 1994 and the CETS 148. In this context, Canada will be used as a country of reference, not associated with the European human rights protection system.

The methodology of complex comparative analysis will be used in order to compare internal regulations of each selected

state. According to the proposed research plan, the transnational legal field should be presented first for the completeness of research (Basedow, 2014). As was highlighted in (Mocsary et al., 2020), the sample of countries for legal analysis should not be based solely on an empirical approach; quantitative indicators are always a stronger argument. In the case of research on language rights and policies, the heterogeneous choice of jurisdictions is a crucial factor in answering the scientific question. The central aspect of impartiality should be considered abstraction from the closest culture and way of thinking towards trying to understand the solution to the same problem in different ways (Curran, 1998).

Again, to understand any law phenomenon globally, it will be necessary to take the most differentiated examples with a common basis. In our case, the chosen group is organized by two primary parameters: the democracy level and acceptance of the European system of human rights protection (ESHRP) framework (excluding Canada as a third country). Additionally, as support in determining the choice, I used final datasets from 2019 on Social Progress Index (Social Progress Imperative, 2019), Global Peace Index (Institute for Economics and Peace, 2019), Human Development Index (United Nations Development Programme, 2019) in order to show the main trends in states analysis as well as valuable characteristics of states being determinants of language policies. The bilingual structure of society was also considered.

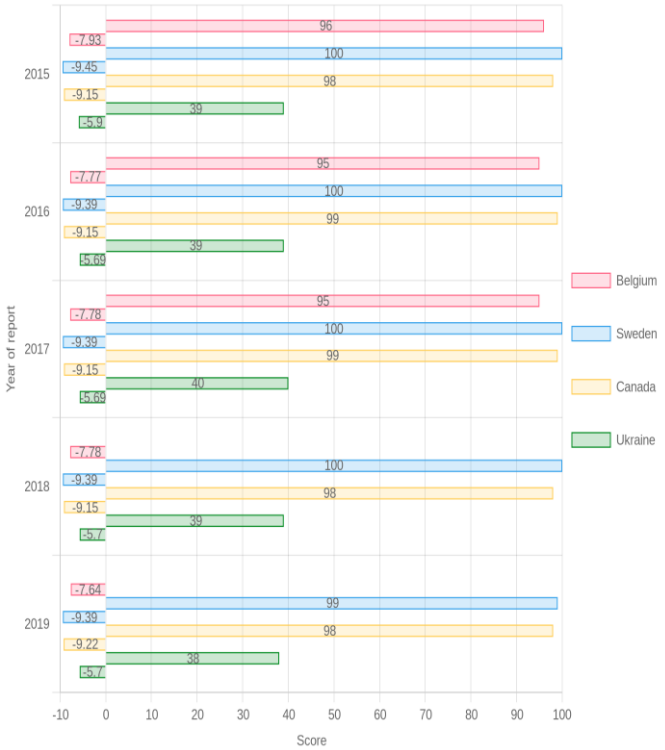
TABLE 1. THE COMPARISON OF MEASUREMENTS EFFECTS LRs FOR BELGIUM, CANADA, SWEDEN AND UKRAINE

| Comparative position | Belgium | Canada | Ukraine | Sweden |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Federal state | X | X | | |
| Unitary state | | | X | X |
| Human Development Index (by 2019, score); min. val.: 0; max. val.: 1* | 0.922 | 0.919 | 0.701 | 0.937 |
| Global Peace Index (by 2019, ranking); min. val.: 193; max. val.: 1* | 18 | 6 | 150 | 1.533 |
| Democracy Index (by 2019, score); min. val.: 0; max. val.: 10* | 7.64 | 9.22 | 5.90 | 9.39 |
| Social Progress Index (by 2019, score); min. val.: 0; max. val.: 100* | 89.33 | 91.26 | 72.11 | 89.45 |
| Language law | X | X | X | X |
| Regional language law regulations ** | X | | X | X |
| Member state of the European Union | X | | | X |
| Member state of the European Council | X | | X | X |

Source: data based on official online reports, ** – to be a participant of CETS 148

According to Table 1, chosen examples have been divided by indicators, comparing and contrasting the selected countries. It should be mentioned that the language law existence was indicated by the appearance of regulations on language usage with a widespread social impact in national constitutional law. Furthermore, to the point, Laza Kekic`s definition provides that democracy is a set of practices and principles that institutionalize and thus ultimately protect freedom (Kekic, 2007). Countries with high ratings of democracy also are top-ranked in other measurements (Table 1). Moreover, all selected territories represent three separate assessment groups: full democracies (Canada, Sweden), flawed democracies (Belgium), and hybrid regimes (Ukraine) (Economist Intelligence, 2019). Interestingly, flawed democracy, following (Economist Intelligence, 2019), means jurisdiction with fair and free elections and secured human rights but may have issues (e.g., representation of opposition in parliament). The used democracy indexes (i.e. by EIU and FH) were selected aiming to avoid the possible flaws of one single.

CHART 1. DEMOCRACY INDEX AND DEMOCRACY SCORE FOR BELGIUM, SWEDEN, CANADA AND UKRAINE (2015-2019)




Source: calculated democracy index (min. val.: 0.00, max. val.: -10.00) based on the datasets for 2015-2019 by Economist Intelligence, 2019; calculated democracy score min. val.: 0, max. val.: 100 based on the datasets for 2015-2019 by Freedom House, 2019.

JavaScript library Chart.js (GitHub, 2020) was used for Chart 1 in order to visualise the data. The score for Belgium was not calculated in Freedom House datasets for 2018-2019, but I assume that changes were not significant. Thus, based on Chart 1, two rankings show the same dynamic of changes over five years, confirming the regime classification, although the methodology for generating these indicators has distinct differences.

TABLE 2. DOMINANT LANGUAGES IN SOCIETY

| Jurisdiction | Percentage (of the total population) | Dominant languages set | Year of last statistic creation |
|---|---|---|---|
| Belgium | 0.7%/31.8%/57.6 %/10.6% | German/French/ Dutch/bilingual | 2019 |
| Canada | 75.4%/22.8%/17.9 % | English/French/ bilingual | 2016 |
| Ukraine | 20%/20%/60% | Russian/Ukrainian/bilingual | 2017 |

Source: data is gathered from public web-sites.

The other factor of selection is the position of dominant languages in these societies. The second table contains data from the Ukrainian social survey by (KIIS Omnibus, 2017) and censuses conducted in Canada (Heritage 2019) and Belgium (Europa.eu 2017). It shows language preferences in selected states, and being a bilingual society is a common feature in all of them but Sweden. Indeed, it is difficult to estimate the number of speakers of the different minority languages in Sweden since the state does not collect official statistics. According to (Parkvall, 2009), the population of minority language speakers in Sweden does not exceed 500.000.

Therefore, the data above meet the requirements for a comparative legal analysis (Basedow, 2014; Curran, 1998). The selected data shows the relevance of the existence of the legal framework for language policy. Accordingly, having a different level of several parameters, including those related to the work of legal institutions, one can expect distinctive solutions from each other in certain aspects.

## III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

*H.Belgian example: unity through separation and terminology problem.*

It must be emphasized that the language policy in the Federation of Belgium has not any prohibitions. Nevertheless, the country's state law grants official roles for German, French, and Dutch languages. According to Article 30 of the Belgium Constitution, every language used in Belgium communities as official (German, French or Dutch) can be interpreted as "official" just in legislative and judicial spheres (Belgian House of Representatives, 2021). This principle indicates language freedom in the state (Guimarães and Kremer, 2020, p. 217-246).

Practically, the Belgian state proclaims a decentralization of power. The constitutional freedom of language is an essential addition to state's territoriality and grants residents the right to use the language of their own choice. Nevertheless, the distinctive feature of such processes, in this case, is that the federal concept of public administration takes place; subjects of the federation should be considered, to a greater degree, as territorial units (Regions); and as certain communities, which are created on the basis of language usage. On the one hand, Regions have powers in non-cultural spheres; on the other hand, communities have exclusive legislative power in the sphere of culture, education, the usage of languages, and labour law (Bambust et al., 2012).

According to the interpretation developed by (Clement, 2009), the government must (only) ensure that the residents of a specific language area can conduct their legal procedures in the language of that area. The realization of this principle also can be found in the context of judicial proceedings. The Act of 15 June 1935 constitutes the personal right of language choice as well as the imperative principle of monolingual litigation.

The Belgian language policy does not comply with CETS 148. The CETS 148 proclaims an obligation to recognise representatives of other communities as a national minority. It is worth noting that the official language cannot be considered as a minority language based on the text of the convention. On the other hand, the general rule is that CETS 148 includes the impossibility to detract from better legal solutions (see: Art. 16 in CETS 148). But the pointed terminology problem makes it impossible to refer to the convention for communities entirely; indeed, they have their specific cultural characteristics. In general, they are minorities with territorial boundaries, but since their languages are official for the state, this contradicts the terminology in the convention.

The system, which demonopolises the legislative branch in linguistic and cultural positions, can be effectively implemented to find social compromises. It should be noted that the territory principle has several disadvantages in the context of mixed communities (Height, 2017).

*I. Ukrainian example: regulations on private organizations also can be significant.*

There is no Language Act in Ukraine. Indeed, regulations on language can be found in other spheres. One of them is the Ukrainian Education Act (by 05.09.2017), and I will use it as the point of entrance. This document in Article 7 sets the Ukrainian language as dominant in education (Верховна Рада України, 2017). The statement completely removes municipal, state, or private educational institutions' autonomy in the context of giving information in a specific language (e.g., Russian, English etc.) as a category divided by law. This document can be more controversial in comparison with the Constitution. Understanding the term "official language" by the Ukrainian legislator involves the provision of public services and concerns the private organizations and local self-government activities.

Russian language is also present in commerce, personal relationships, and the online environment. It is used as the main or parallel with the main or as an auxiliary by the majority of the population. For example, according to the KIIS Omnibus 2017/09, the number of respondents who used the Russian

language was identical to the number of Ukrainian speakers (KIIS Omnibus, 2017).

The Russian speakers' indicator always has been close to the Ukrainian speakers, as evidenced by surveys of previous years. The analysis of financial earnings based on language skills by the Central European Labour Study Institute confirms this feature. This research data attests to the dominant role of the Russian language in post-Maidan Ukraine in the field of labour relations (Westrate, 2016). Moreover, based on Article 10 of the constitution of Ukraine, it should be noted that the legislator shall protect all other languages, including Russian (President of Ukraine, 2020). It should be emphasized that the norm does not have any details, although the protection for all languages was declared with the emphasis on Russian in its text.

In accordance with the polls given above, bilingualism is more developed in Ukraine at the social level than in the legal field. The main point here is that many people use two or more languages as their personal or professional skill. At the same time, the position of the legislator maintains a conservative tendency in nationality divisions. The limitations of state power in this case are diffused (based on Art. 30 of the Constitution).

It is tough to define the boundaries of such a group of language preferences for establishing comfortable policies. The prohibition problem shaped by official authorities in the context of language policy in Ukraine was indicated from a social studies perspective (Brenzovics et al., 2020).

It should be noted that the language policy in Ukraine only regulates the public sphere. The possibility of private usage (e.g., personal relations) of any language remains untouched by the legislator. This fact was indicated by (Shevchenko, 2020), in the analysis of Art. 64 of the constitution. Although the public sphere is quite expanded, affecting aspects of private property.

On the other hand, the legislator imposes significant restrictions on the implementation of international obligations assumed. The CETS 148 proclaims transferring of cultural, educational, and linguistic powers to local communities without violating international norms. It will solve the problem with minority rights and Russian, which can be considered a language that is not tied to any nationality in Ukraine (regional language in accordance with 1def. in Art. 1 of CETS 148).

*J. Canadian language policy determinants.*

Canada has bilingualism at the federal level. Section 133 of the Constitution Act, 1867 guarantees that both languages (English and French) may be used in the Parliament of Canada, in its journals and records, and in court proceedings in any court established by the Parliament of Canada (Department of Justice of Canada, 2020). Another equally important document is the Official Languages Act that came into force on September 9, 1969. This Act provides that:

1) Canadians have the right to receive services from federal structures and from Crown corporations in French and English languages;
2) Canadians have an ability to be heard before a federal court in the official language of choice;
3) Parliament will adopt laws and publish regulations in both official languages and that both versions will be of equal legal weight;
4) English and French will have equal status as languages of work within the federal public service and within geographically defined parts of the state that are designated bilingual (most notably in National Capital Region, Montreal, and New Brunswick), as well as government institutions and in parts of the country where there is sufficient demand for services in both official languages (Department of Justice of Canada, 1985).

David Cameron indicates that French and English go to the existential heart of Canadian political relations (Cameron, 2020). The confederation debate takes place in the field of that language pair. This feature, to a certain extent, brings the Canadian example closer to the Ukrainian problem. On the other side, from the Canadian perspective, the assimilation position is not a solution (we shall take into account the political tradition of coalition) (Muir, 2009). It should be noted that from a retrospective point of view, the assimilation strategy took place (Cameron, 2020).

Canadian federal authorities are required to provide public services in two languages, which solve problems for francophone and anglophone communities. The policy of using languages to a greater degree belongs to the participants of the federation. The cultural, educational, commerce spheres were excluded from the competence of the federal government. For example, francophone Quebec is flexible to make policies for public administration, education, city local law, labeling, instructions, products for customers, and the other cases (Morris, 2010).

It must be emphasized that the provincial-based territorial principle does not always meet expectations — the Alberta Language Act maintained bilingual policy. In practice, this province has English domination in the society (Morris, 2010). As in the two previous examples of jurisdictions, the issue of private usage remained untouched by the legislator (personal freedom of language choice). There are no regulatory legal policies on national minorities at the federal level (based on terminology adopted by CETS 148). The Indigenous Languages Act (informal "The Aboriginal Languages Initiative") opened the public investing possibility for cultural organizations in indigenous languages development (Branch, Legislative Services, 2019). This is the leading solution, which is represented on a federal level.

It allowed limiting the degree of responsibility of the federal authorities. On the other hand, this fact led to some differences in understanding the boundaries of government responsibility in the language issue.

*K. Sweden language policy*

Sweden has a stable high level of democracy (see chart 1 above). On the 1st of July 2009, the Kingdom of Sweden passed the Language Act (SFS 2009:600), which significantly improved the past legislation (SFS 1999:1175; SFS 1999:1176). That mentioned legal framework developed solutions just for Finnish, Meänkieli, and Sami, as languages of minorities. According to Olle Josephson, the Scandinavian

countries have traditionally centralized language policies. This juridical act shows compliance with European language rights basis for minorities: Art. 2 established that this law is intended to specify the Swedish language, usage of other languages, and individual access to language. Section 5 of Language Act (SFS 2009:600) proclaims Swedish as a common language – "everyone resident in Sweden is able to have access to, and that is to be usable in all areas of society [...]" – the criticism of this statement can be found in work by Mats Landqvist and Jennie Spetz (Landqvist and Spetz, 2020). The central authors` allegation is based on a potential conflict with human rights (especially based on personal freedom limitations). The language act also can be interpreted as an official statement in language usage discussion: the intensity increase of English in society has been a key-point in this public shift from regulation absence to its shaping (Milani, 2007). The Language Act (2009:600) is based on CETS 148: the languages of minorities were clearly described in section 7; languages with the unfixed territory were added to the list (e.g., Romani language). First of all, this law proclaims everyone's freedom to learn another language and imposes an obligation on public authorities to ensure this right for everyone. The state also does not create restrictions on business and other forms of private property. Although some Swedish positions' consolidation can be interpreted as a restriction, following the logic of SFS 2009:600, the law does not contain determinants defining its violation; thus, it is more declarative. The imperative nature was not found in other regulatory legal acts, except for the obligation of state structures.

## IV. Conclusion

All selected approaches to language in society are patently focused on the local social context. As I indicate, the main problem ("at the root") reveals in disregarding residents' needs in the language usage by the state. The full democracies tend to proclaim freedom for language choice using a prinicple *ubi jus incertum, ibi nullum* (i.e., where there is an uncertain right, there there is none) and limitations for the state (e.g., Sweden). There is evidence that the states need to design a single legal terminology in the sphere of linguistic rights and the limits of intervention to the language issue should be addressed more deeply.

I suppose that maximal assistance to languages can be included as a part of the open society. From the perspective of public administration this idea can be determined by the concept of state constituted by the Austrian School of economics in the XX century (Rothbard, 2009). It must be emphasized that the implementation of the maximum assistance regime in the issue of language policy by the public administration system can only improve the quality of public services up to a new level.

The compared examples demonstrate a diversity of solutions: from the comprehensive support of languages and freedom of their usage (i.e. Belgium, Sweden) to conservative idea of *de-jure* monolingual state as Ukraine does. Indeed, the methodology for comparing language policies should be taken into account for further research. It makes sense to design a systematized coordinate system that would assess the degree of protection of linguistic rights (e.g., ranking). Nevertheless, further questions arise in the pointed area. Neither constitutional acts nor language policies of selected states constitute in a direct way the status of foreigners.

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