1 Introduction
The following report deals with the case of Language Teacher Training and Bilingual Education in Spain, in the sense of Content based language teaching (hereinafter CBLT). Due to the historical reasons explained in the following section, Bilingual Education has evolved in two different directions in Spain in the past two decades:

a) in the domain of second languages, where it has had a very important role to play in the development of competence in the local languages co-official with Spanish

b) in the domain of foreign language teaching, where new methodologies building the path for CBLT are beginning to be implemented in the several foreign languages present in school curricula

Thus, it is possible to describe the linguistic situtation of Spain as heading towards Multilingualism.

On the one hand, bilingual programmes have been a vital instrument used by political authorities to redress the sociolinguistic imbalance resulting from the 40 years of dictatorship under Franco’s regime, which banned some of the national languages from being used at all. On the other hand, the teaching of foreign languages has also undergone substantial improvement, with the possibility existing for all students to study two or more foreign languages under the provision of a recent Education Reform.

The main bulk of information contained in this report has been gathered from two different sources: first from language planners, language teachers and academics involved in bilingual programmes and in the currently undergoing Education Reform; and secondly from authorities, inspectors, teacher trainers and academics in higher education involved in the planning, organization, and tutoring of Initial Teacher Education (hereinafter ITE) and In-service Teacher Education (hereinafter INSET). It may not be totally comprehensive, and may not have reported on every and all new experiments or CBLT programmes dealing with foreign languages. Again, it is only through contacts with inspectors, teachers and teacher trainers, and their publications, that one may have evidence of new developments, often only known to the very protagonists of the story. Thus, only two cases of CBLT are reported on, one in Catalonia and another one in the Basque country. I hope that I will be forgiven for any omissions, which I will endeavour to correct as soon as I have knowledge of them.

1.1 The national linguistic situation
Due to historical developments, nowadays Spain is a multilingual country (Turell, forth.). But Multilingualism was totally forbidden during the first decades of the dictatorship imposed by General Franco, following the Civil War (1936-39) which put an end to the II Republic. As a consequence, Spanish was declared the only official language, and neither Basque, nor Catalan or Galician were allowed public use. To illustrate how this affected the actual social use of those languages, we can take the case of Catalan. It had just been standardized at the beginning of the Civil War when it was forced to disappear from the public Administration,
education and the mass media. It was then limited to domestic use, where it never ceased to be used, and clandestine and tolerated public events, like the folk music movement La Nova Cançó (Lluis Lach, Raimon, Maria del Mar Bonet, Joan Manel Serrat...). This factor, along with the arrival of immigrants from other parts of Spain, caused a sharp recession of the Catalan-speaking population in absolute terms (75% in 1940, 68% in 1968, 60% in 1975).

It was not until the establishment of democracy, with the passing of the Constitution (1978), that several of the formerly called Regions of Spain were granted the political rights and administrative power they had enjoyed in previous periods of their history. Subsequently, the new Statutes of Autonomy were passed (Boletín Oficial del Estado-BOE 1981,101) to a certain extent reshaping the administrative mapping of the territory, which became divided into the following Autonomies: Aragón, Asturias, the Balearic Islands, the Basque Country, the Canary Islands, Cantabria, Castilla-La Mancha, Castilla-Leon, Catalonia, Ceuta and Melilla, Extremadura, Galicia, La Rioja, Madrid, Murcia, Navarra. As a result, Catalan, Basque and Galician regained official status in their respective territories. The Statutes established Spanish as the official language of the Spanish state, which all citizens have the obligation to know and the right to use, as well as the right for each Autonomous Community to have its own official language. Consequently, Catalonia, València, the Balearic Islands, the Basque country and Galicia have two official languages, both whose official and normal use they must guarantee in equal degree. On the other hand, the Statutes of Autonomy through the Laws of Linguistic Normalization (1983) also involved regaining control of the educational system (the foremost area of normalization for any lesser used language), culture, and the media. This dramatically changed for the better the situation of those 3 languages, since bilingual programmes were set up which gradually improved people’s linguistic proficiency. Indirectly the new state of affairs had also beneficial consequences for other minority languages like Bable in Asturias, and Aranés in Vall d’Aran (Catalan Pyrenees). They have since received administrative support to be taught as subjects in schools or Universities, and have gained the interest and respect of the public.

In the following lines, further detailed information is given on the sociolinguistic situation in bilingual communities, as the background to the bilingual programmes (see Turell 1994, and forth., for a complete analysis of linguistic minorities and migrated speech communities in Spain).

Catalan is spoken in a large portion of eastern Spain, Catalonia, València, the Balearic Islands, and a strip of eastern Aragon known as the Franja (known in Catalonia as ‘western strip’), Andorra, in the South east of France (the Eastern Pyrenees Department) and the Sardinian city of Alguer. It covers an area of over 60,000 square kilometres. The Catalan-speaking population which lives within the Spanish state amounts to 10 million inhabitants. The area the Catalan language has the firmest footing in is the Autonomous community of Catalonia, ‘in which it has been the only language to have been spoken without interruption for over 700 years’ (Leprêtre ed. 1992). Demographic growth in the present century has been mainly due to internal migration of workers in the 1920’s and between the 1940’s and 1970’s, the years of the dictatorship, a population came with Spanish as their only language (Turell, 1997). This meant that a large sector of the population knew both languages (Catalan speakers from previous generations), and another sector (immigrants) only knew Spanish. Therefore, only Catalan speakers were bilingual. During the years of the ‘political shift’ in Catalonia -similarly as in the other Autonomous Communities - people did not want two separate communities but rather a country where citizens would be respected, fully integrated and able to take part in all areas of public life. Two ideas which became slogans encapsulated the feeling among the population those days. The idea that “És català qui viu i treballa a Catalunya” (“Everyone who works and lives in
Catalunya is a Catalan’) and the description given of the immigrant population as “Els altres catalans” (“The other Catalans’) by a well-known writer, Francesc Candel, himself ‘un altre català’ - conveying the message that, in fact, integration was not possible without the language. This means that, at present, 41% of the population of Catalonia are first and second generation immigrants. In this light, the Catalan government (Generalitat de Catalunya) wanted to redress the linguistic and social imbalance which was causing a real discrimination against those not speaking the language. Thus, Catalan was given a specific protective legislation by way of the laws of Linguistic normalization passed in 1983 which were intended to consolidate the normal use of the language, particularly in education, the Administration and the media. The same was the case in València and the Balearic Islands. As a result, today we can say that most young people between 10 and 20 have a high degree of competence in the language. Figures from a 1991 census show the following results: 94% of the population understands Catalan; 68% can speak it; 68% can read it; 40% can write it. Even in areas where the majority of the population was not born in Catalonia, competence reaches 60% (except in one case, Baix Llobregat). 10% of the population which had Spanish as their main language in childhood now have Catalan. These figures have greatly interested specialists who have tried to identify the status of Catalan as a minority language (Vila 1996).

The Basque country covers an area of 20,742 square kilometres and comprises seven provinces, three belonging to the French ‘Pyrenées Atlantiques’ community (Lapurdi, Nafarroa, Beherea and Zuberoa), and four to two Autonomous regions in Spain (The Basque Autonomous Community and Nafarroa). The total Basque population is approximately 3 million, with 92% being Spanish citizens. Basque and Spanish are currently both the official languages of the Basque Autonomous Community. However, Basque is a minority language spoken by approximately only 27% of the population in this territory. Similarly to Catalonia, the Basque country went through extensive internal immigration of Spanish speakers into its towns. Yet, nowadays, the Basque language is in a process of ‘reverse language shift’ (Fishman 1990). Owing largely to the promotion of Basque in school, there was an estimated increase of 95,000 Basque speakers from 1981 to 1991 (Garmendia 1994). Since Spanish continues to be the dominant language in most regions of the Basque Country, virtually all Basque speakers are bilingual. Of these, 40% of children and adolescents (between 5-14) are bilingual. Yet, proficiency in Basque is not needed in many areas, since Spanish is the dominant language. This is a precarious balance of sociolinguistic power (Cenoz't forth.)

The situation in Galicia lies somewhere in between, as the data from the Dirección Xeral de Política Lingüística (1995b) reveal. Galicia has a population of around 2,800,000 inhabitants and comprises four provinces: A Coruña, Lugo, Ourense and Pontevedra. With a distribution of the population in 34 areas (for the sake of the analysis in Xunta de Galicia 1995b), in 20 of them, three quarters of the population speak only or preferably Galician, and in 13 of those 20, it amounts to 85% of the total population. Lugo and Ourense are the provinces where a higher percentage of monolingual Spanish speakers is concentrated, however Galician speakers still represent a 40%-79.9% of the population. In 21 of the areas, the number of monolingual Galician-speakers is well over 50%. In 18 of those areas 90%-99% are Galician monolinguals. To put it in simpler terms, 50.7% of the overall population in Galicia is unbalanced bilingual: some speak more Galician than Spanish and some speak more Spanish than Galician. A smaller portion of the population is monolingual: 38.7 of the population has declared to only speak Spanish, while 10.6% has declared to only speak Spanish. The sociolinguistic studies carried out show a correlation between use of Galician

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1 Web pages http://www.galego.org; www.udc.es/dep/lx/linksgen.html
and lower economic status, lower cultural level, and the fishing, building, agricultural trade sectors; whereas use of Spanish correlates with middle and upper economic status, good cultural level, corresponding to a population of liberal professionals and civil servants.

After the dictatorship and particularly after 1983, with the Law of Linguistic Normalization, a whole sector of the middle classes, and the political classes have become involved in giving prestige to the language and raising the number of bilinguals in their territory. Yet Galician is still a minority language, and contrary to what has happened with Basque, it is not yet in a process of reverse language shift. Spanish is the dominant language, and Galician is not needed in most areas. The promotion of Galician in schools, the administration and the media has met with a wide range of reactions from the population.

1.2 Description of area specific understanding of Bilingual Education

The term bilingual education can be used to identify several different types of language programmes in Spain:

Immersion programmes dealing with Catalan, Basque and Galician. Academics identify them as CBLT but characterise them in the following terms. Serra, (1997) from the University of Girona, defines it as an ‘instrumental approach to language teaching’. Cenoz (forth.) from the University of Vitoria-Gasteiz in the Basque country describes the bilingual programmes as: ‘Basque is used as the language of instruction, the methodological approach is ‘content-based’.

‘Interdisciplinarity’ and ‘task-based approach’ are the terms appearing in the new curricula of the Education Reform at Primary and Secondary level, to talk about ‘teaching languages with a topic-content’. The content might be that of the other school subjects, or any other to the students’ taste.

In the Basque country, where CBLT is the methodology said to be used in the bilingual programmes, as mentioned above, there are cases where it has also been applied to Foreign Language Teaching (hereinafter FLT). The term has come to be used to refer to all Modern languages taught in the curriculum, on principles of multicultural and multilingual education within a European perspective.

Programmes involving teachers/teacher trainers with an individual commitment to working with a CBLT approach are not numerous. Their task seems rather isolated, representing an effort of innovation, coming from professionals with good experience in methodologies like projects and tasks, attempting to incorporate the natural next development in the ever dynamic field of the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language (TEFL).

Types 1, 2 are presented below, in this Section of the paper, while types 3, 4 which represent innovation, are described in Section 3. To complete the description of foreign languages in our country, it is necessary to describe those educational institutions dealing with foreign languages, which fall outside (regular) mainstream education.

Foreign private schools

There is no European school in Spain. Foreign private schools, under the provision of foreign Embassies in Spain, offer programmes in which the medium of instruction is their vernacular language. Students at the end of secondary education are entitled to take a special exam to enter Spanish Universities, without needing to follow a Spanish programme alongside the foreign programme. This is the case of the Lycée Français, École Suisse, Deutsche Schule, Liceo Italiano, The American School, The English School, The Japanese School, and a few others.
Besides having taken on the responsibility of educating the offspring of a high status external immigration, and children of bilingual families, they have recently been rather popular among local middle class families, as they are seen to guarantee higher levels of competence in at least one foreign language, and an outward-looking perspective to their curricula. It is interesting to know that, during the dictatorship, they played a very distinctive role in guaranteeing a liberal education: most of them represented the only possibility of schooling which fell outside the control of the ideology of the state or the church, and thus were the first choice of families with a freethinking attitude.

International programmes

A few state Secondary schools (Santiago de Compostela, Galicia; San Sebastian, Basque Country) are running or preparing (Barcelona, Catalonia) the International Bacaloréat organised in Geneva. This allows access to foreign programmes to a larger sector of the population than those catered for by the previously mentioned foreign schools.

Official schools of languages (EOI ‘Escuela Oficial de Idiomas’)

State-run EOIs have been offering courses in the major cities and towns around Spain, for the past decades. They cater for many languages, and grant officially recognized certificates². Their largest department is English, the first language in demand by school students wanting to improve their levels of competence, particularly during after-school hours. Thousands of students do not have the chance to enter the EOIs, and thus turn to any of the many private schools, or academies, a booming profitable sector, growing at the expense of the poorest levels attained in mainstream education.

University schools of languages (EIM ‘Escuela de Idiomas Modernos’)

University-run EIMs have been offering courses in many universities in Spain in recent years. They cater for languages which are in high demand, since they are self-financed institutions, with English being the first language in demand. They keep very high academic standards in a wide range of courses, from the most general to more specific ones. They have recently been incorporated within the university curricula, as students can have the choice of language subjects as part of their undergraduate studies.

Support programmes for non EEC immigrant students

With the relatively recent arrival of non EEC immigrants, local authorities (i.e. Generalitat de Catalunya), and also voluntary organizations have set up academic support programmes for the young immigrants joining the educational system with no language at all. At the same time, programmes to teach their heritage languages have also been set up, yet by their own voluntary organizations. To quote the nearest example, in the province of Girona, the Senegambian community organises Arabic classes on Saturday mornings.

1.2.1 Bilingualism in a second language

Immersion programmes in Catalonia, The Basque country and Galicia were set up in 1983, under the provision of the Law of Linguistic Normalization which regulated the use of the two official languages in those territories. Programmes are described as ‘a model of bilingual education promoting total bilingualism (...) what is specially characteristic in these models is that they are not only addressed to linguistic minorities but to the whole community. They are models of second language teaching addressed to children of a language and culture in a majority situation’ (Serra 1997:15).

Let us now characterise each programme in turn.

*The Basque country*

²They also have organised Teacher Training courses.
Bilingual education is not a recent phenomenon in the Basque country. Some schools were bilingual and even trilingual (i.e. Spanish, Basque and French) at the end of the nineteenth century. During the 60s, despite legal impediments, a number of private Basque-medium schools (Ikastolas) were running successfully. With the Law of Linguistic Normalization of Basque, both Basque and Spanish became compulsory subjects in all schools and 3 models of schooling were established (Models A, B, and D -from the three letters in the Basque alphabet). These models differ with respect to the language or languages of instruction used, their linguistic aim and their intended student population:

MODEL A (Spanish speakers, Spanish instruction, Basque as a second language):
Basque is taught for 4-5 hours a week. These schools provide minimal instruction and thus, minimal proficiency in Basque as a second language.

MODEL B (Spanish speakers, Spanish & Basque instruction):
Basque is taught for approximately a 50% of the instruction time, although there is considerable variation from school to school (Artamendi 1994). These schools are intended for those students who are native speakers of Spanish and want to be bilingual in Basque and Spanish. It is a model which can be compared with European models (Beatens Beadsmore 1993) and with models of partial immersion in Canada, in which French and English are the languages of instruction for majority group English-speaking students (Genesee 1987, Cummins 1997).

MODEL D (Basque & Spanish speakers, Basque instruction, Spanish as a second language):
Basque is the language of instruction and Spanish is taught as a subject for 4-5 hours a week. This model was originally created as a language maintenance programme for native speakers of Basque, but currently it also includes a large number of students with Spanish as their first language. Consequently Model D schools can be regarded as both total immersion programmes for majority language students and first language maintenance programmes for native Basque speakers.

The main characteristics of the programme are as follows:

Parents can choose the model they want for their children, and each model is available both in the public and private sectors. Access to all three options is limited in some areas of the country where there are not enough students interested in a particular model.

Instructional methods vary depending on whether Basque is used as a medium of instruction or is taught as a school subject. When it is the language of instruction, (Models B and D), the methodological approach is content-based. When it is taught as a subject (Model A), with a second language perspective, instruction focuses on grammar and literature, as a second language, most teachers adopt traditional second language instructional approaches with relatively structural syllabae.

While model A currently includes half as many students as in 1982 (75% vs 34%) the Basque-medium instruction, both models B & D show significant increase from 25% in 1982 to 65% in 1995. Evaluations have focused on proficiency in Basque and Spanish, academic development, and foreign language acquisition. The results indicate that proficiency in Basque varies according to the model (Gabiña et al. 1986; Sierra & Olaziregi 1989, 1991; Sierra 1994). Students in Model D are more proficient in Basque than students in Model B who, in turn, are more proficient than students in Model A. Results from the evaluation of proficiency in Spanish indicate that there are no significant differences among the models. Even Model D students achieve very high levels of proficiency. Evaluation of achievement in Mathematics and Social Sciences indicate that there are no significant differences between students in different models (Aierbe et al. 1974, 1989). In general then results corroborate those obtained in Canadian immersion (Genesee, 1987; Swain & Lapkin 1982) and at

3Web page: http://www.redestb.es/personal/josu
the same time extend these results to the case of native speakers of an indigenous minority language (Cenoz forthcoming).

Catalonia

Before 1983, it was not until 1970, that a few hours of the ‘native language’ were allowed in the school curriculum, although Catalan was not obligatory as a subject until 1978. After 1983, full bilingual programmes were implemented with the following characteristics:

The programmes were addressed to a particular sociolinguistic context (children having Spanish as their L1 in their families), with the objective that they eventually achieve total competence in both official languages.

Differently to what was the case in the bilingual programmes carried out in Canada, where the social background of the children was either middle class or high class, the social background of the children in Catalonia was of a low-middle class, low or even very low class. Many of these schools were placed in quite socioeconomically deprived areas with a variety of social problems.

At the beginning of the programme, children did not have any competence in Catalan, the language used in the programme, reflecting the sociolinguistic reality of Catalonia and some of the industrial suburbs. With the situation changing in the past 15 years, this factor experienced an important modification, as well. Nowadays, there are very few areas where the presence of Catalan is null.

The programme had an ‘instrumental’ approach to language teaching. The best way to learn a language is ‘doing’ things with it, use it as the medium of instruction for content subjects. Motivating the students through highly contextualized pleasurable activities was understood as the best way to lead them to understand that Catalan was the language used in the school.

Participation on the programme was totally voluntary between 1983-1992. After that, the law made it possible for parents to choose the school language during primary education only, on an individualised basis, within the main Catalan programme run in each school. Yet, the tendency is for families to ask for the Catalan programme.

Teachers are bilingual.

Oral comprehension and production were primed during its initial years. Students were never forced to use Catalan for their oral exchanges, consequently, particularly in the first stages of the programme, students often used Spanish.

The evaluation of immersion programmes has been very positive. The Gabinet d’Estudis del Servei d’Ensenyament del Català (1983, 1986), and Arnau (1984,1985) show that results with Catalan as a language subject taught 3 hours a week were unsuccessful to develop a real command of the language. They point to the need for bilingual programmes. Serra, J.M. i Vila, I. (1987), show that for the period 3-4, Spanish-speaking children following the immersion programme attain the same level of competence in Spanish written vocabulary as those following a Spanish programme. Bel (1989) and Boixaderas et al. (1991) show that at the age of 6 children following the immersion programme obtain better results in Catalan than those who study it as a language subject. As for Spanish, they show no significant differences as far as the oral language is concerned, but they do show differences in all tests of written production. These students had not had Spanish used as the medium of instruction, and had only had it as a language subject for a year. Ribes (1993) proves that these initial differences are overcome as soon as the children have more hours taught through the medium of Spanish: Catalan-speaking children and Spanish speaking children following the immersion programme, and Spanish-speaking children following a Spanish programme obtain no significant differences. Serra (1997) proves that this is the case even with children from a low and very low socioeconomic background. He finds that the effects of the
immersion programme are even more positive when the students have highly unfavourable conditions (low IQ). As a conclusion Spanish-speaking students following immersion programmes where the **target language is the medium of instruction** achieve similar levels of competence in Spanish to those who follow Spanish programmes, Thus, it can be said that those programmes favour competence in their L1 a the same time as they develop their competence in the L2\(^4\). These results reveal that the bilingual programme has an additive effect on the overall linguistic competence of the children. However, the opinion of parents and teachers, from what they see and hear the students produce is that standards have gone down, overall, and a new dialect has been identified, ironically called ‘catalóol’ (a mixture of ‘Catalan’ and ‘Español’). This is unfortunately being used as a powerful argument by those who are against normalization in general within a so called ‘language war’ orchestrated by Spanish nationalists and some Spanish groups in Catalonia.

**Galicia**

In Galicia, the situation has evolved at a somewhat slower pace, (Artigal 1993). Data from the Conselleria de Organización e Ordeanción Educativa\(^5\) de la Xunta de Galicia (Xunta 1995) also reveal it. The Law of Linguistic Normalization establishes that:

In the first years of Primary education teachers use the predominant language in each class, and make sure students learn to speak and write in the other official language in the territory.

During the final years of Primary education, 2 subjects must be taught in Galician, one of them obligatorily being ‘Natural, social, cultural environment’.

In secondary education three obligatory subjects have to be taught in Galician: Natural Sciences, History and Geography. Two optional subject must also be taught in the second language.

Regulations within each school, involve the normalization of the language through a Commission for the Normalization of Galician, which will ensure that the use of the language spread and improve.

Every administrative decree emphasizes an essential characteristic of the bilingual programme in Galicia which illustrates what its main social objective is:

*Os alumnos non poderán ser separados en centros diferentes por razón da lingua. Tamén se evitará, ..., a separación en aulas diferentes* (Diario Oficial Gallego 4/7/83). (Students will **never be separated in different schools** because of their first language, ..., nor will they be separated in different groups)

### 1.2.2 Foreign languages

The Education Reform (LOGSE 1990) was undertaken against a background of dissatisfaction with the results obtained in compulsory education in Spain. It was also a necessary step to be taken as a consequence of the new political situation. After becoming a member of the European Community, the country had to set itself several objectives as far as education was concerned: meeting new social demands, and new academic goals. After years of experimentation and piloting, the Reform is going to be fully implemented from 1998, affecting primary and secondary education, with the following two main assets which aim at compensating for social inequalities:

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\(^5\) Web page: http://www.xunta.es
a) the extension of the obligatory length of schooling by two years (previously ending at the age of 14 and from now on at the age of 16)

b) the abolition of the two streams of compulsory education, academic and technical, and the organization of a comprehensive school system throughout compulsory education

Foreign language learning was one of the areas where results had not been satisfactory and new goals needed to be set, in order to follow European regulations. It was true that the teaching of foreign languages had not been as generalised or as developed as in the rest of Europe. The widespread switch of the past few years, from French to English as the first foreign language taught did not help either. In addition to this, only those Autonomies with Spanish as the only official language had the legal possibility of allowing the presence of a second foreign language in the school curricula. Thus, with a desire for the improvement of foreign language teaching/learning in Education, the following measures were included in the provisions under the Education Reform, in order to move forward on the way towards Multilingualism:

1. Earlier introduction of foreign languages in the curriculum (before at 10, now at 8)
2. Fewer hours per year as an obligatory subject
3. Project-work and task-based approaches to language teaching
4. A second foreign language as an optional subject

To summarize the changes: the amount of exposure and practice has decreased at the same time as spreading it over time, with an earlier start. Different projects for the evaluation of the results in terms of students’ improvement of their language proficiency, in the short and longer term, are currently being undertaken. Even before data from scientific research can be used as arguments for or against, some critical voices have been raised against the apparent general and specific benefits which the Reform must bring about. As far as foreign languages are concerned, there is no empirical justification that ‘earlier but less’ is a better formula than what was established before particularly when, in fact, levels of competence were visibly rising as far as English was concerned. As for the extension of schooling, and the comprehensive approach to education, there are strong beliefs among a sector of teachers that standards are going to fall. Despite the fact that, in the beginning, the Reform had been endorsed by the main teachers’ unions, with the only criticism that no specific budget was being devoted to its implementation, at a time when the private schools sector, in some Autonomies, was seeing subsidies raise up to 90%.

The early introduction of a foreign language

The age for introducing a foreign language has changed with the Reform. If previously, children started in grade 5, from now on they are going to start in grade 3 (at 8 years of age). There has been some experimentation with a much earlier age, 4 years, at the beginning of

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6 Before, French was the foreign language which everyone learnt at school, and which had University Departments. Departments of English are fairly recent in Spain. Due to parental pressure there has been a gradual decline of French - with teachers of French having to fill up their schedules with other subject matter - and a rise of English as the main foreign language taught in schools.
7 The ‘Age factor’ research project at the University of Barcelona, with my own collaboration from the UPF-funded by a DGICYT from the Ministry of Education - looks into the effects of foreign language instruction at different ages, throughout primary and secondary school, and both within the old and the reformed system.
8 Students coming out of Secondary Education and enrolling in extra-school English classes at the University of Barcelona EIM (see 1.2) were placed in a Level 1 or Level 2 class about 10 years ago. In the past years they have been placed in Level 3 or Level 4 classes.
kindergarten, both in Catalonia (Bernaus 1994) and in the Basque country, where as Cenoz, Lindsay and Espí (1994) report, evaluations have shown that learning English from such an early age does not adversely affect the children’s acquisition of the other 2 languages in the curriculum, Basque and Spanish. The same results apply for Catalonia.

**Fewer hours per year**

The new system establishes 2 types of subjects/credits: obligatory and optional, whereas in the previous system there were only obligatory subjects with a set amount of hours per year which all students should follow. On the one hand, the amount of obligatory hours has decreased, while for every subject there are also optional hours that students can choose to follow. On the other hand, a second foreign language as an optional subject is being offered in most schools. In this way, the teaching of French has not disappeared from education, and/or other languages, mostly German or Italian are also being taught.

**The Education Reform: Task-based, content-based, interdisciplinary approach to FLT**

The Reform recommends that the teaching be organised within a task-based/project work methodology. Such approaches have been incorporated by the official curricula, proposals for materials, and the design of Teacher Training Courses which all language teachers have had to follow. There has been a clear decision made in the direction of CBLT by the administration and official agencies with responsibility in the new policies, curriculae, and materials. Emphasis is made in that teachers produce their own materials, specifically related to their context and setting, in a clear attempt to stop the widespread use of commercialised course books, unrelated to local contexts and students. The term CBLT is not used, yet the word used is ‘interdisciplinarity’. Since the Spanish tradition is one of centralised curricular control and ITE/INSET courses for the Reform are also organised centrally, and designed and taught by officially appointed teacher trainers, the promotion of such a methodology may prove to be effective. Yet control of what then happens in the classroom cannot be a 100% guaranteed. This because the Reform has met with a certain rejection coming from Secondary level teachers, who see the introduction of 12 year old non-selected students in their class as a highly complicated endeavour for which they are not getting any reward in return, neither in terms of salary nor in terms of status or career prospects. Thus, the extent to which teachers are going to follow these recommendations relies on their personal enthusiasm, irrespective of their general attitude towards the Reform.

1.3 **Legislation and language teacher training**

The current legislation concerning teacher education lays down the principles of teacher education and determines which qualifications teachers require and how universities may contribute to the the task of training kindergarten teachers, classroom teachers for Primary education, ‘specialists’ in several subjects, and teachers for Secondary education. The situation matches the one described in the report on ITE in Europe prepared for the SIGMA Conference 1995 and coordinated by Theodor Sandar. Systems and models of ITE in Spain correspond very closely with structures of schooling. As quoted in the report there exists ‘a sharp distinction throughout the last century between public elementary education on the one hand and secondary education for a privileged minority on the other’ (Judge 1990). It can also be said that, in Spain, ITE for primary school teachers focuses on practical training and devalues the importance of both educational theory and academic/scientific knowledge, while for secondary school teachers, an ‘academic’ tradition emphasizes the
high importance of theoretical/scientific knowledge in various academic disciplines, and educational theory and methodology or teaching practices are devalued and neglected.

1.3.1 Subject and educational qualifications

As Primary school teachers

Until the new LRU (Law of University Reform 1987) teacher education for kindergaten and primary school teachers was not the responsibility of universities proper. It was the task of what was called ‘university colleges’, or ‘École normale’, which did not grant graduate degrees. Among many other changes it brought about, under the provision of the LRU, these schools became part of University Departments. At another level of things, all university graduate degrees, which were 5 year-degrees, became 4 year-degrees, although Teacher Education remained as a 3 year Diploma. This was much to the frustration of many educationalists who had long awaited for the University Reform to finally upgrade Primary school teaching. Teacher education studies comprise theoretical courses and a period of tutored practice in primary schools, before the end of the Diploma. Teachers to-be can either have a general qualification, or a specialised qualification into one of the following areas: Music, Foreign Language Teaching, Arts, Special Education, Physical Education, Nursery school, Primary school.

As Secondary school teachers

There has been little change in what concerns teacher education for subject teachers in Secondary education, but some is to come. Teachers require a degree granted by Universities in their one specialised subject. They can then enter the private sector to teach. To teach in the public sector, where teachers become civil servants, they have to pass tenure examinations (otherwise they are only employed on a temporary basis). In the past, the requisite for the tenure exam was the graduate degree on a subject within an area of study (i.e. Architects, Engineers, Mathematicians, Biologists, could become Maths teachers, Science teachers; Historians, Geographers, could become Literature teachers) plus a teacher training course called CAP (Certificado de aptitud pedagógica ‘Certificate of pedagogical expertise’). Years of experience as teachers - either in the private sector or as temporary teachers in the public sector - can substitute for the CAP course. Slowly, the education authorities are introducing a new model, called the CCP (Certificado de capacitación pedagógica ‘Certificate of pedagogical ability’) (see 2.1.1.2).

In those Autonomies with bilingual programmes, teachers are now required a certificate of proficiency in the official autonomous language. They need to prove a certain degree of proficiency in all four skills.

2 Language teacher training in relation to bilingual education

2.1 Initial teacher training

2.1.1 At university level

Organised by Modern Language University Departments, there are undergraduate courses included in the curriculum in Foreign language Departments dealing with ‘Methodology of Language Teaching’, ‘Language Acquisition/learning’, ‘Curriculum development’, ‘Applied Linguistics’. It is all very much a reflection of a new sensitivity among teachers in those Departments towards what is actually going to be the profession of most of their students, the
teaching career. Also, it is a reflection of those teachers’ own involvement in teacher training and classroom research.

At a more structural level, the compulsory Initial Teacher Education courses for Secondary school teachers, CAP/CCP are organised every year, either by an institution devoted to teacher education within Universities called ICEs (Instituto de Ciencias de la Educación, ‘Institute of Education’) or, in those Autonomies where the ICEs have disappeared, by University Departments (Pedagogy, Psychology..).

There is not a single curriculum on CAP/CCP courses throughout the country. Courses have no final exams, so that attendance to lessons guarantees a final certificate. All university students that apply to take the course are guaranteed a place. The course may often be followed concurrently with the last year of undergraduate studies. There is total separation of courses addressed to teachers of languages and content teachers. Although the course is a requisite to take the tenure examination, competition is very high, as the number of tenure posts offered is so much lower than the number of students taking the tenure exam.

Feelings that this is not an ideal situation have led the educational authoritites to try and raise the standards of ITE, at the same time as organising a selective system which would filter those students aiming at tenure positions in secondary schools. Thus, they designed the CCP course consisting of a Master’s degree, lasting a year, with 600 hours of study including a long period of practice in secondary schools. The course would only be followed after the completion of undergraduate degrees. Not surprisingly, so far this format has met with total refutation from undergraduate students, in some subjects, namely English as a foreign language students. This has lead the authorities in many parts of the country to decide on a slow and gradual introduction of the changes. At present, different formats coexist in the same Autonomy, namely those where pilot programmes of the new type are already being run, or different Autonomies have opted for a different format. Let us consider the course as it has existed so far, the CAP, and then talk about innovations under section 3.

### 2.1.1.1 The curriculum

For subject teachers, the 40 hours of the CAP course are devoted to a combination of general pedagogy and specialised methodology. For language teachers, in some Autonomies the weight of general pedagogy has been brought to a minimum, so that those 40 hours are distributed as follows:

‘Language acquisition and Language Learning, Class dynamics, Lesson planning, The four skills, Task-based/Project-based approach, Evaluation, Legislation, The Education Reform.’

### 2.1.1.2 The structure of the programmes

The CAP course involves: 40 hours of theory plus 30 hours of tutored practice under the responsibility of practicing teachers selected by the coordinator/s of the programme.

Students are offered 2 types of courses:

- a) On Saturday mornings throughout the school year
- b) Two evenings throughout the year

Assessment includes attendance at lessons, a period of tutored practice in a secondary school, and the fulfillment of the tasks required by the tutors. Traditionally no stay abroad has been provided for the teachers-to-be to improve their language competence. However, in the recent past, most students of Modern Languages have already enjoyed the possibility of going on an exchange abroad, within the Erasmus programme.
2.1.1.3 Practical training
The practice period involves classroom observation in the tutor’s class and one or two experiences of actual teaching, often in teams. Each tutor is in charge of several trainees which attend his/her class for over 6 weeks, write a report on the experience, and produce a portfolio for their teaching session/s.

2.1.1.4 Impact of community programmes
The situation has changed since Spain joined the EEC. If before, a teacher of foreign languages may have entered the profession with not even a stay in the country where that language is spoken, nowadays, the Erasmus exchange system has allowed most undergraduate students to spend some time abroad.

2.1.2 At non university level
Courses to train teachers in regional languages are organised by the particular Language Normalization Departments of each Autonomy, external to the University. (Sedec in Catalonia, in the Basque Country, in Galicia). They prepare teachers to pass the exams in order to obtain the certificates required for the tenure examinations.

2.2 In-service teacher training (INSET)
In-service teacher training has been an important objective for the education authorities in the past years. Traditionally, the teaching profession has been a very devoted, vocational one, and even during the dictatorship, it created its own voluntary organizations to organise teacher training, called ‘Movements of Pedagogical Innovation’. Nowadays the administration describes teacher training as both a right and an obligation, and understands that it is a determining factor for the quality of the educational system and its constant upkeeping with social demands.

2.2.1 At university level

2.2.1.1 The curriculum
Refer to the following section.

2.2.1.2 The structure of the programmes
Two different structures of courses can be found organised by universities. On the one hand, well established courses which are integrated in the University curriculum (Postgraduate Degrees, Phd Degrees, Master’s Degrees), and on the other hand, courses around specific topics and of a much shorter duration (Seminars, Conferences, Workshops).

Within the first possibility, as has been said above, Modern language Departments are becoming aware of the importance of Applied Linguistics studies for the teaching of foreign languages and are incorporating courses on Methodology, Language Acquisition, etc., in the optional subjects offered to their postgraduate students. Several universities throughout the country have set up Phd programmes dealing with Applied Linguistics and/or Language Acquisition. Those same universities where subjects in the curriculum relate to language teaching and learning are also often becoming involved in the organization of the other
modalities of courses. Language teachers have also set up quite strong professional Associations in the different Autonomous Communities (APIGA in Galicia, APAC in Catalonia, etc.) which are often devoted to the organisation of such a type of events, often in collaboration with coursebook publishers and Foreign Institutes. Among them, the teachers of Spanish as a foreign language are becoming very active.

2.2.1.3 Practical training
Practical training is not normally the objective in in-service teacher training.

2.2.1.4 Impact of community programmes
More and more the EEC is subsidising different types of courses for teachers, exchanges, links between schools and students.

2.2.2. At non-university level

Second languages
The creation development and maintenance of bilingual education in Catalonia, the Basque country and Galicia has required enormous efforts on the part of the Autonomous Governments, individual schools, and teachers. Within the frame of the Law of Linguistic normalization (1983), teachers have progressively had to meet linguistic competence requirements in order to teach at Primary level, using those regional languages. Local courses have been offered after school hours, and different qualifications have been given and included in the requirements for passing tenure examinations.

In the case of Basque, where acquisition is a longer and more complex process due to its linguistic distance with Spanish, things were started almost from scratch as in 1983, 95% of all public school teachers could not speak Basque at all, and the remaining 5% could speak the language but, in most cases, could not use it in written form or for academic purposes. The effort to redress such a situation, has put an even greater pressure on teacher education, materials development and teaching methods. The Government has even been offering leaves of absence and extension courses for teachers who have reached an intermediate level of competence in Basque and would like to study Basque full time in order to extend their proficiency. At present, 50% of practicing teachers have received a certification (Zabilde 1994).

For Kindergarten teachers, in Catalonia the Servei d’Ensenyament del Català (SEDEC) in 1988/89 set up a team to work specifically in nursery education (up to 3 year olds). For primary and secondary school teachers, courses of different types have been designed, in order for them to be able to take the examinations required for teaching practices and tenure.

Foreign languages
The situation of teacher education varies for each Autonomous Community. Within the context of the Education Reform, a whole structure of regional teacher trainers has been

9 Such courses are necessary for practicing teachers with little time, as it is more and more difficult for teachers, particularly at Primary level, to be absent from school for training purposes; a maximum of 2 days and a half are generally allowed.

10 As an example, there area few highly successful Master’s Degrees currently running in different universities, on ELE (Español lengua extranjera ‘Spanish as a foreign language’). A further example is the course books developed for the teaching of our regional languages to foreign students.
operating to cover for all teachers who were summoned by the Administration to take the course and prepare for the Reform. ICEs, or similar institutions called CEPs (Teachers’ Centers) have also organised courses both addressed to prepare teachers for the Reform, or to deal with particular methodological aspects of each subject in the curriculum. The formats of teacher training vary considerably. They include: Courses, Seminars, Conferences, Workshops, Tutorials/Counselling, Stays abroad. The number of Teacher trainers involved full time in this structure is hard to know, but is considerable. A very efficient network of Teachers’ Centers has been operating for a few years. Teachers and teacher trainers provide material, infrastructure, administrative support and managing expertese for all kinds of INSET programmes to be running.

2.2.2.1 The curriculum

Second languages
Teachers can usually opt to different levels of competence. For example, in Catalonia they are organized around modules: Modules A, B, C, D (SEDEC 1986). In the Basque country teachers prepare for two profiles. Profile A, to be able to teach in schools which use Basque. Profile B, to be able to teach in Basque.

Foreign languages
The curriculum proposes a content-based approach organised through tasks or projects. (Generalitat de Catalunya 1993, Zanón & Estaire 1996, Ribé 199)

2.2.2.2 The structure of the programmes

Second languages
Teachers are offered different types of courses which require regular attendance to evening classes throughout the school year.

Foreign languages
Teachers are offered basically 2 types of courses, _ sessions over several weeks within the academic year, or an intensive week in July/September.

2.2.2.3 Practical training

No practical training is offered under the assumption that these are courses addressed to practicing teachers who already have the ‘know-how’ of teaching.

2.1.2.4 Impact of community programmes

Different types of programmes are being implemented at many different levels

3 New developments in the area of language teaching and language teacher training in relation to bilingual education

3.1 New technologies and autonomous learning

Autonomous learning is becoming a generalized objective for teachers. In practice, it is only those institutions with a certain budget autonomy which have been able to organize self-access centers with a perspective of autonomous learning. The EOIs referred to in 1.2 are a case in point. Many Universities directly dealing with languages are also working towards incorporating autonomous learning programmes/centres.

Besides, there is one case of experimentation I can report on. One Basque school with a multilingual programme, described below, has been conducting a 3 year pilot project with the European Institute of Software, whereby computer sciences are taught in English.
Unfortunately the project had to be suspended temporarily due to lack of qualified English speaking teachers.

### 3.2 Initial and INSET training

I have come into contact with one group of teachers in Catalonia who have called themselves “Content teaching group”\(^{11}\). They have been working as teacher trainers in the local state schools, within such an approach, yet their impact has been minimum on other schools or teachers.

### 3.3 Mobility of language teacher trainees and trainers

Mobility among teachers has today become a real possibility within the Comenius programmes, both for Primary and Secondary school teachers. As a matter of fact, I have recently known of a European Project with rural schools on the island of Tenerife, involving 2 schools of a very poor area on the mountains and a school in Gloucester which has brought along enormous benefits for all three partners (Padilla-Mendoza 1997). Such effects prove that the impact of such exchanges may be greater in some areas than in others.

### 3.4 Methodology and Innovations

I have been able to locate 2 programmes where CBLT was explicitely used, the one already mentioned in Catalonia, and one in the Basque country.

As Cenoz (forth.) describes it, it is the Basque country which seems further ahead in CBLT, and with a diversity of initiatives. Some Model A schools have used both Spanish and English as their medium of instruction, this latter for History, Science and Handicrafts (Gaztelueta private school). Several state-run schools have also initiated similar projects using English along with Basque and Spanish as their media of instruction. For example, the Lauro Ikastola, where English is introduced as a subject in the second year of Elementary school with the main objective of preparing students to follow the Arts courses in English in Secondary education. The syllabus is topic-based, teachers develop their own materials. They have 2 weekly lessons of 30 minutes in the first year. When they reach Secondary, students are regrouped according to their proficiency in English. The subjects chosen are those in which students know the basic concepts and terms in Basque and Spanish, and either are highly motivating or highly relevant. The school is experimenting with using it also for History of Religion, Computer Sciences and Science. For those students who are not native speakers of Basque, there are extra lessons focusing on speaking skills and interactional skills in Basque. Spanish is taught for 1 hour, 5 days per week. There is also a class to develop communication skills. Materials are the same as those used in regular Spanish medium schools. The emphasis is on literacy skills. The school organizes summer visits to English speaking countries where children live with families.

### 4 New needs in the area of language teacher training in relation to bilingual education

Of the whole panorama set forth in the previous sections, it appears that teacher education in Spain should prepare teachers to face, assimilate, adapt and improve in the following new circumstances:

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\(^{11}\) Navés, Quineannon, Morer, Raluy, Ravera, Socias 1996 “How to become a young scientist I,II (Let’s investigate detergents)”.
Domain 1: the normalization of Basque, Catalan and Galician (1983-1997)

Domain 2: the decrease in students’ competence due to the reduction of contact hours for FLT, and earlier introduction of foreign languages (1994-2001)

Domain 3: the change in teaching methodologies, from traditional to projects, tasks, and interdisciplinary approaches leading towards CBLT (1994-2001)

ITE should guarantee all teachers the necessary theoretical and technical background to undertake their daily work in the classroom competently in of those three domains. The first domain has been successfully catered for and second languages are, by and large, being taught and learnt with satisfactory levels of attainment. Yet, unfortunately, with respect to the other two domains, the present situation of change in the structure of ITE for content and language subjects does not seem to have clarified the model to be adopted and the steps necessary to attain it.

In the light of results obtained in other countries where it has already been adopted, the presence of a content-based approach in FLT seems a promising development in our country. However, as regards actual levels of proficiency attained by students, further measures should still be taken if the reduction in the number of contact of hours per year in FLT is shown not to be sufficiently compensated by the earlier introduction of the target language. Moreover, as the Reform already advocates the implementation of a content-based approach within the foreign language class, the next step should be to extend such an approach to the teaching of content subjects. Indeed, CBLT would appear to be the only modality of instruction which can guarantee an increase in the number of hours of exposure and practice in a foreign language.

Yet, for CBLT to be implemented a number of factors are necessary. Firstly, the education authorities should monitor levels of attainment reached by our students in the new context. Secondly, they should guarantee that not only language teachers but also content teachers be trained in CBLT. This would entail ensuring a command of a foreign language for content teachers, at primary and secondary level. The fact is, of course, that we still have a long way to go to reach such a situation with respect to foreign languages in this country. In spite of this, it would be a mistake not to take advantage of a situation in which both the whole structure of ITE for secondary school teachers is going through a process of change and, moreover, in which the Reform offers an invaluable ground for experimentation.

In conclusion, the present situation as regards foreign languages in Spain is promising, in that the Education Reform encourages CBLT however, it has to be said that without a serious plan to raise teachers’ competence in foreign languages, and increase students’ exposure to those languages those objectives cannot be realised.

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