

UNIVERSITY OF WESTERN MACEDONIA
FACULTY OF EDUCATION



1st International Conference

EDUCATION ACROSS BORDERS

Florina 5-7 October 2012

CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS

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**PREFECTURAL
ADMINISTRATION OF
FLORINA**



**MUNICIPALITY OF
FLORINA**

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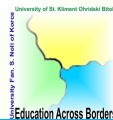
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EDITOR'S INTRODUCTORY NOTE



I am pleased and honored to present the e-book edition of the 1st International Conference entitled: **"Education Across Borders"**, held in Florina on October 5- 7, 2012, as part of the educational/scientific cooperation of the three neighbouring Faculties of Education:

- a. Florina Faculty of Education of the University of Western Macedonia (Greece)
- b. Korca Faculty of Education of Fan S. Noli University (Albania)
- c. Bitola Faculty of Education of St. Kliment Ohridski University (FYROM)

The conference was planned in 2011, after an exchange of visits by delegations of academic staff of the three institutions, with the purpose to establish harmonious neighboring relations and scientific cooperation, as well as to strengthen the bonds with neighboring universities aiming at the cross border scientific and cultural development.

During the conference, the syllabi of the Faculties of Education of the three Universities were presented, some scientific ideas and views were exchanged and suggestions were made about prospective collaboration at undergraduate and postgraduate level.

In the opening-day plenary, some selected papers related to cross-border educational cooperation were presented, while in the second day of the conference presentations and lectures as well as round tables were held, which covered the following thematic strands:

1. History and Culture
2. Information and Communications Technology
3. Language and Literature
4. Mathematics and Science
5. Pedagogy and Psychology

In total, 149 abstracts were submitted to the conference, having been prepared by 247 authors (155 authors from Greece, 43 from Albania and the 49 from FYROM). The total number of presented papers was 119, with 72 papers from Greece, 18 papers from Albania and 29 papers from FYROM.

Drawing attention to the successful outcomes of the conference that were achieved, we highlight the valuable opportunities provided with, for making future exchanges and collaborations between academics of the three Faculties of Education. In this context, the Korca Faculty of Education of Fan. S. Noli University will host the 2nd Conference, which will be held on October 2014.

It is my hope that this institution will be established and the targets, which were set, will be achieved.

Prof. Charalampos. Lemonidis
Dean of the Faculty Of Education



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KEYNOTE PRESENTATION

"CROSS-BORDER- INTERCULTURAL" EDUCATIONAL COOPERATION¹



Prof. em. Dr. Michael Damanakis
University of Crete

1. Introduction

The title of my presentation might cause some puzzlement to readers and listeners, as I was puzzled when invited, as an Intercultural Educator, to a cross border Conference entitled «Education Across Borders».

The organization of such a conference by three neighboring Schools of Education of Balkan Universities (University of Western Macedonia, Fan S. Noli University of Korce, University of St. Kliment Ohridski Bitola) is in itself a transnational praxes, which apparently aims to explore both ways of collaboration between three national institutions and peaceful coexistence of neighboring nations, in a geopolitical region tested in the past, and not free from political problems today.

I admit that I feel an puzzlement similar to that I felt in April 2001 at a conference in Cyprus, with the theme: "Intercultural Education in Cyprus", where I was also one of the main speakers.

The title of my presentation was then "Strengths and limits of intercultural pedagogical approach in conflict situations. The case of Cyprus." In that paper I tried to highlight the weaknesses and deadlocks of the *"national educational paradigm"*, on the one hand, and the *"limits and strengths of the Intercultural pedagogical paradigm"* on the other.

The puzzlment I felt then and the one that I feel now are due to various reasons.

The first of these reasons stems from the very nature of Pedagogy. Pedagogy as an analytical science functions like any social science. But as an applied science, and particularly in relation to classroom teaching, at worst it functions at the behest of political system in power, while, at best, at the behest of the society. As a rule, it functions at the behest of the state. And in that way, Applied Pedagogy is National Pedagogy.

The other two reasons for my puzzlement are related to the subject per se, that I teach Intercultural Education.

Intercultural Education Approach, at least as it used to function until recently and is partly functioning today, has an intrinsic weakness in

¹ First (temporary) publication of the presentation in the Conference «Education Across Borders», Florina, 05-07 October 2012

the sense that the tranquil society to which it targets must pre-exist at least to an extent, so as to allow an intercultural encounter and interaction. This was not the case, for example, for the two ethno cultural communities in Cyprus, at that time.

On the other hand, intercultural education refers to an education within certain boundaries and within the boundaries of a particular state organized society. And this is due to the reasons of the creation of the intercultural approach. This approach grew out of the needs of modern multicultural societies that became or become as such, due to the entrance of a large number of immigrants in them.

In other words, the main subject matter of Intercultural Education is not a potential "cross-border education" or a Global Education, but education in a multicultural society, organized by the state.

From the aforementioned one could conclude that Intercultural Education has no point on the theme of this conference and therefore, no place in it.

Such a conclusion, however, would be hasty and frivolous, because it wouldn't address the question of whether, and to what extent, the analytical tools of Intercultural Education can be applied to, both, pedagogical and educational issues examined in this Conference.

Next, therefore, we shall attempt to examine precisely that, namely, to what extent, the analytical tools of Intercultural Education can be applied to our conference theme and give some, albeit temporary, answers to the questions that concern us, namely those of cooperation and peaceful coexistence in the Balkan Peninsula.

Before we do that, however, we consider it necessary to mention how the historical context, in which the presentation takes place, is perceived from our point of view, and to make our politico-economic, social and cultural assumptions, clear, as they determine, or at least influence our educational analyses.

2. Historical context and assumptions

The Balkan, historical context, according to our perception of history, stems from the Byzantine, as well as the Ottoman Empire and their fall, and their subsequent "Balkan nationalisms" which led to the birth of the modern, Balkan national states.

Moreover, this historical context is a product of the Balkan wars and World War I, World War II and the subsequent creation of the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia. And, of course, is partly a bi-product of the disintegration of Yugoslavia, and the revival of nationalism and the creation of new, independent, national states.

In other words, this presentation starts with the assumption that, the historical memory related to these historical experiences is alive and present, either as an "*experienced memory*" for the older generations, or as "*borrowed memory*"².

And when we refer to "*borrowed memory*" we mean the one transmitted to the new generations through education and mainly through the school subjects of History, Geography and Language but also through Civics.

The school textbooks for these subjects are not, even today, free of ethnocentric contents and negative images of the neighbor. Pertaining to this topic we could refer to the minutes of the conference "*The image of the "Other" / Neighbor in the school books of Balkan Countries*", Thessaloniki 16-18 October 1998 (Τυπωθήτω, Γιώργος Δαρδανός, Αθήνα 2000).

A second assumption is related to the current political relations between the officials of Greece and the neighboring Balkan countries, as well as the peoples of these countries among themselves. For, apart from the improvement of political relation, the social and cultural relations, as a result of the immigration, between the Greek and Balkan neighbors, was and remains far more important.

As an indicative example I mention the Albanians who repatriated from Greece. According to the research data available (see study G. Kapsalis), many repatriate parents send their children to bilingual Greek schools to continue a bilingual education there. This means that, at least, some of the Greek schools in Albania are transformed into a place of an intercultural encounter.

I could also mention other positive examples in Bulgaria and Romania, where there are Greek-owned businesses, as well as schools of Greek-language education. At this point, I shall refer to

² Regarding to the term "*borrowed memory*" see, Viola B. Georgi (2003): *Entlehene Erinnerung. Geschichtsbilder junger Migranten in Deutschland*. Hamburger Edition, Hamburg

you relevant studies of Dinas,K , Soutsiou,T and Christidis, G.

Connecting our socio-cultural assumptions with the historical ones, we come to the general conclusion that, despite the historical "burdened" past and any current disagreements or conflicts, we could say that, the relations between the countries of South Balkan may not be the desirable ones, however, are not conflict-driven, as admitted in the case of Cyprus.

This manifests that a socio-cultural encounter and interaction between the Balkan peoples is possible. Indeed in the case of Greece, on the one hand, and Albania, Bulgaria and Romania on the other, the socio-cultural encounter and interaction arose, naturally, through immigration, but also through the integration of Bulgaria and Romania to the European Union.

Before we move to the core of our presentation, there is one last thing needed to be clarified. The Conference, mainly, focuses on the curricula of the three teacher training Faculties of Education. Our presentation, however, is neither linked to the vocational training of teachers, nor to vocational education in general, but to "general education" and especially to its relation to "intercultural education".

It is hoped that, through the following relevant analyses, answers would be given to the questions raised above, namely, whether Intercultural Education can give some answers to pedagogical and educational issues that, directly or indirectly, concern this Conference.

3. General education and intercultural education

Paideia is gained through the processes of schooling and education. In this sense the term *paideia* includes the terms schooling and education, but it is not equal to it. *Paideia* is something more, because is not limited to attitudes, perceptions, knowledge and skills, but it is related to freedom, autonomy, self-awareness and self-determination of a person.

I would like to use the definition of a contemporary German educator, "Education is what remains when you forget everything you learned in school" (H.E Tenorth, interview to the online newspaper ZEIT ONLINE, on 15/08/2011).

The term "general education" (γενική αγωγή,

allgemeine Bildung, education général) includes historical and institutional dimensions, as well as dimensions of content. The historical evolution of the term dates back to an attempt of "mass education", during the industrial revolution, the breakdown of feudalism and the establishment of the bourgeois national state.

Mass education and its curricula, was limited to a minimum of main contents, common for everyone, namely: *reading, writing and counting*. Even nowadays, *paideia*, in the sense of mass education, appears as a widespread and compulsory education for everyone, accompanied by a series of basic contents in the curricula, necessary for the integration of the individual in the society and the labor market. Within the boundaries of mass or general education – that at times are used interchangeably – is located "higher education" as well, which is directly linked to *freedom, self-determination, self-awareness and critical thinking* of a person (see Meyer, in Krüger-Potratz u.a 2010, pp. 100).

Regarding the national state and its *mass education*, in the sense of the *general compulsory education* and its official curricula, *common and compulsory for everyone*, general education aims to shape citizens with a common, homogenous identity. In that sense the core concept of *general education* in its *national manifestation* is *homogeneity*.

According to the national educational paradigm, *which consists of the national "mass education" and its discourse pertaining to it*, the concept of "difference" is well known, however, not recognized and utilized as such. At best, the external and internal school diversification functions as a device to manage the difference (that exists among the students) and serves the process of *homogenization* (see Damanakis 2007, in Charalambous, page 404).

The rationale of *homogenization*, through the formation of a *collective* (national) *identity*, inevitably leads to oppression or marginalization of the nationally *Others* or of the culturally different. This rationale and the consequential practices are, today, proven to be dysfunctional, due to changing conditions. Specifically, to begin with, economic globalization removes or at least changes some functions of the national state. So does the European integration and particularly the monetary union.

Secondly, massive movements of

populations are changing the demographics of many countries, and new arising minorities are added to the existing ethno-cultural ones, through immigration.

Thirdly, and perhaps most importantly for our topic, the concept of "*diversity*" is not just present in modern societies, but it tends to replace the modern concept of "*individuality*."

Today, the "*right to difference*", tends to mean what it meant, in modernity, the "*right to individuality*". There is, however, a significant difference between the two, because *individuality* developed within a *common culture*. Due to this reason, *individual freedom, autonomy and self-determination* were the components of *mass and general education*.

This is not the case with "*cultural diversity*", which claims its own distinct cultural space, which is perceived by those supporting the national pedagogical paradigm as a threat. According to this view, *cultural diversity*, threatens *cultural identity* and it, therefore, cannot be a component of *general education*.

Diametrically opposite is the argument of more and more educators and social scientists in the Western countries. They argue that, because our modern societies are no longer without cultural difference, it should be integrated into general education. "*Difference is not standing against the General, but should be understood as the General. Intercultural Education makes it very clear*" (see Mecheril, in Krüger-Potratz u.a. 2010, pp. 111). Their position is that modern multicultural societies need an intercultural education, that will form part of general education (see Bokow, in EWE 21/2010 Heft 2, pp. 139).

The attempt to integrate the discourse, regarding intercultural education within in the pedagogical discourse, regarding general education means that Intercultural Education claims to formulate a general theory of pedagogy.

Is this feasible, however, and applicable into pedagogical practice, and particularly in an attempt to "*cross-border educational cooperation*"?

4. Intercultural educational approach and its application limits in a "cross-border educational cooperation"

To answer this question, we will utilize the

"*difference hypothesis*" and the related position of "*cultural enrichment*". Both serve as analytical tools in the context of intercultural educational approach.

What we call, today, Intercultural Education began in the 1960's in the central and northern European countries as "*Education of Foreigners*" (Ausländerpädagogik). The educational standards of that time aimed at integration as the main objective, or rather assimilation of immigrant children in the system of the host country. The theoretical assumption of those assimilation measures was that, the educational capital of the immigrant children was "*deficient*" and "*dysfunctional*" in their new environment and therefore should through proper "compensatory measures" be equated to that of the dominant group children.

This theoretical approach, known as "*deficit hypothesis*", is in the logic of assimilation and homogenization and, therefore, in the spirit of national paradigm, whose main concern is to restore homogeneity, in cases where it does not exist, or to maintain it, in cases where it already exists.

In the framework of the "*deficit hypothesis*" the cultural capital of the ethno cultural "*other*" is deficient, dysfunctional and lower, as in the framework of the national example where the national "*other*" is, if not the enemy, at least below the national Self and his culture is inferior. In both cases it is the same interpretative scheme, which subordinates to the cultures hierarchy, in general, and the cultural capital of the individuals, in particular.

The educational, as well as the political, deadlocks of the "*deficit hypothesis*", led to new problems in the mid 1970's. At the end of this decade and especially in the 1980's, a transition from the "deficit hypothesis" to the "*difference hypothesis*" was attempted, in other words, from the *Education of the Foreigners* to *Intercultural Education*.

Within this approach, the different cultural capital of the immigrants' children is no longer evaluated and it is not ranked as "deficient," but they are, simply, dealt with as "*different*", based on the axiom of "*cultural equality*". The cultural capital of the *Other* is simply different, and it should be accepted as such and be dealt with as equal to that of the dominant group, give students opportunities to utilize it and, in that way, improve their educational opportunities.

This new approach, which integrates the request of "*equation of opportunities*", without making this *equation assimilation*, led to a new pedagogical request. Specifically, the request for assimilation of the minority students' cultural capital with that of the majority students was replaced by the request for a meeting, encounter, interaction and cultural enrichment.

This new approach - known as *difference hypothesis*, or even as *position of cultural enrichment* - we shall pursue, and make an attempt to inquire if it can be applied to cross-border educational issues, this Conference looks forward to.

But, before we proceed, a point needs to be made. From the aforementioned, it is clear that through the *difference hypothesis* the *pedagogical discourse* moves from the unequivocal rationale of *homogeneity* to the logic of *heterogeneity*. The terms "*difference*" and "*diversity*" have a *conceptual status* in pedagogical discourse, next to the terms "*similarity*" and "*identity*". This movement is an attempt to change the pedagogical paradigm, a fact that has opened up a great theoretical discussion.

A basis for our subsequent analyses are the tripartite aims of intercultural education and training, according to Hahmann (1989, 16), beginning with

- a. the "*encounter of cultures*", to move on to
- b. "*overstep the obstacles to this encounter*" to end with
- c. "*cultural exchanges*" and "*cultural enrichment*".

4.1. Encounter of cultures

Concerning the meeting among the Balkan peoples and their subsequent encounters through their civilizations, we shall be reminded that, apart from the cultural co-operations, a socio-cultural encounter already takes place through migration. This is at least what currently stands in the cases of Greece, Albania, Bulgaria and Romania.

However, we cannot claim that the situation is the same, or at the same degree, in the relationships between Greece and Turkey and between Greece and FYROM (Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia) or Macedonia, according to our neighbors. This is because some obstacles lie between the political and cultural encounters.

Before mentioning the obstacles and their shunt, I highlight that the basic requirement for a cultural encounter is the confrontation of the *cultural Other*, based on equity and reciprocity. Facing the *Other* as a culturally equivalent interlocutor does not necessarily mean recognition and acceptance. Although, "cultural equivalence" is a requirement for the cultural encounter and interaction, it is not a sufficient circumstance for cultural recognition. There is a great distance to recognition and cultural enrichment.

Pertaining to the axiom of "cultural equivalence" that has provoked many misunderstandings, let us underline that, for Intercultural Education, its acceptance remain a basic methodological tool, and it does not assume, neither a literal, nor a dogmatic character, for the science.

Science does not exist if we dogmatically admit that a civilization is superior to another. On the other hand, if we literally try to relatively evaluate civilizations and decide the superior and the inferior, we will be faced with the dilemma of choosing criteria, according to which civilizations will be evaluated and assessed³.

Therefore, the acceptance of the "cultures equivalence" is methodologically necessary to science. At the same time, it is practically useful to the culturally different interlocutors, because - as already mentioned - it is a basic requirement to face the *cultural Other*, in terms of equivalence and reciprocity, in order to achieve a cultural encounter and interaction. The application of "*cultural equivalence*" in education is certainly difficult, due to the intervening "*endogenous*" and "*exogenous*" obstacles, which should be put apart, according to the second scheme of the three - part objectives.

4.2. The removal of the intervening obstacles

The endogenous obstacles concern the person and focus on stereotypes, prejudices, nation centered attitudes, idealization of identities and cultural self-references. Exogenous obstacles are mainly political and financial, and go beyond the limits and capabilities of Pedagogy, as an applied

³ The theoretical discussion concerning this dilemma is in progress and is directly bonded with the more general discussion about the "universality" and "relativity" of values.

science. Both, exogenous and endogenous obstacles are not independent with each other. On the contrary, they are directly related, and this is why a combined and simultaneous lifting should be attempted.

If we make a limited effort to set apart the endogenous obstacles, we remain encircled in a "psychological" approach, which ignores the general political, economic and socio-cultural context. On the other hand, if we focus on the exogenous obstacles, there is a danger to be encircled in the aspect that, while the more general political, economic and social problems are not solved, Pedagogy as an applied science remains helpless. This actually takes place in the context of national education, that cause conflicts among nations, and through them prejudices, stereotypes and nationalism are produced.

Regarding to the revocation of obstacles, Intercultural Education, at least in the way I understand it, demands to function as Critical Education. A combining revocation of the endogenous and exogenous obstacles means that, depending on the stage of children's development and their emotional and cognitive capabilities, the existing problems and conflicts, the endogenous and exogenous obstacles, become a matter of examination in the classroom.

This means that, in the case of exogenous obstacles, which go beyond the limits and capacities of Pedagogy, at least the factors, the forces and the interests that are obstacles to an intercultural encounter, interaction and youngsters' self-fulfillment are revealed.

The examination of contemporary problems in the context of teaching offers the child the opportunity to analyze modern reality, considering the developments of history, to comprehend and appreciate its prospects. For example, it is important for the young generations to become aware of the different stages of development of the various countries, either Balkan or European.

The most European countries have fulfilled the process of national- construction and the formation of national identity, and can move beyond the political and cultural nationalism. This is not the case, or at least at the same degree, with the newly- established countries, which resulted from the break-up of Yugoslavia and the former Soviet Union. These are in a

dynamic and transitive stage of nation-formation and the construction of the corresponding identity.

In the contemporary European pedagogical discourse, contemporary problems (key-problems, according to Klafki, in: Gogoli, Krüger-Potratz, Meyer, 1998), which may be international or peripheral, should become a matter of analysis of a contemporary, international and intercultural project of *general education*.

Through the instructive examination of the intervening obstacles - existing problems and conflicts - obstacles are emotionally discharged and become logical, which contributes in their decrease or revocation, and leads to a cultural encounter, interaction and cultural enrichment.

4.3. Cultural enrichment, intercultural competence and general education

Through cultural encounter, exchanges and enrichment, the *Subject* learns to recognize and comprehend the *Other*. In a later stage, it can reach an understanding and accept him. In other words, through meeting the *Other*, the *Subject* obtains what we call "*intercultural competence*". This means *acquaintance and comprehension of the Other, understanding the Other, recognition and acceptance of the Other*.

If I get to know and understand the *Other*, it does not necessarily mean that I agree with him, that I want to come to an understanding or that I am willing to accept him. The meeting and mutual comprehension between the *Subject* and the *Other*, may or may not lead to mutual understanding, recognition and acceptance.

Nevertheless, it does not matter the positive or negative outcome of the meeting between the *Subject* and the *Other*. What matters is that this outcome is the result of the conscious and free choice, and of the *Subject's* critical reflection. The acquaintance and understanding of the *Other*, the different, is nowadays necessary for every *Subject*, because the *difference* is not the exception anymore, but it is part of the rule.

As it is already highlighted, the terms "*difference*" and "*diversity*" have obtained their own *conceptual status*, next to the terms "*similarity*" and "*identity*". Therefore, the *understanding of diversity* should be one of the basic abilities of the *Subject*, and in this sense its acquisition belongs to *general education*.

5. Conclusions

To recapitulate, we sum up, in the following general conclusions, which answer the pedagogical and educational questions of interest.

According to the analysis above, it is clear that Intercultural Pedagogy has gotten an opinion and a resolution on the pedagogical and educational issues, which matter the convention. More specifically, our analysis has shown that the *intercultural competence* is at the core of *intercultural education*, and that it should constitute an inseparable part of the contemporary *general education*.

This conclusion is a thesis and suggestion of Intercultural Education. This specific suggestion is indeed realistic and educationally applicable, due to the fact that it concerns the *general education* of every independent and sovereign state, separately, and it does not presuppose their collaboration. Every state authority has the means and potentiality to enrich or not, *general education*, with elements of *intercultural education*.⁴

The enrichment of *general education* with elements of *intercultural education* does not presuppose a "*cross-border educational cooperation*", however, it leads to it. And, obviously, it facilitates the cooperation of the Pedagogical Faculties, regarding the issue of teacher training.

⁴ There is not a complete view and it is not a matter of the present paper to examine the situation concerning intercultural education in the Balkan countries. However, if the situation is as described in the proceedings of the convention on 9-10 May 2003 in Ochrida on "Intercultural Education in the Balkan Countries (Kyriakidis Brothers s.a. Thessaloniki 2004), then there is a sign of optimism.

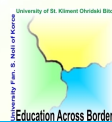


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"SO FAR AWAY, SO CLOSE": HISTORY EDUCATION ACROSS BORDERS OR BEYOND THE NATIONAL SUBJECT MATTER "BOUNDARIES"?

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Abstract

History as a teaching subject was established in the 19th century, a period that was marked by the emergence of the nation states. This has deeply influenced history education despite any changes and initiatives adopted worldwide in the 20th century concerning aims, content subject and teaching practices. The aim of the paper is to discuss some ideas related to the selection of historical propositional (declarative) knowledge included in school curricula. Taking into consideration that in Balkans a nation-centered perspective of history education is dominant due to a series of political and ideological reasons, a reorientation of the nature and purpose of history teaching towards the development of citizenship on a local, national and supranational basis is suggested. This entails a more pluralistic and reflective perception of the past and the introduction of a series of subject matter changes that would underline the historical bonds of the people and the countries rather than the identitarian exploitation and political manipulation of school history.

Keywords: *history education, Balkans, borders, historical knowledge*

1. Introduction: History Education and the Nation

History education in the Western world is a product of the 19th century, a period marked by the emergence of nationalism and the spread of the nation state as the predominant political principle in Europe and beyond (Anderson 2006, Gelner 1983, Hobsbawm 1991, Smith 1991, Smith 2001). As it is acknowledged the nation is a phenomenon of modernity requiring a single political culture and both a mass public education and media system. These factors are requisites in achieving the socialization and acquiescence necessary for future generations to become willing members of the new nation and to cultivate the consciousness of their cultural unity and common national history (Smith 1991: 69, Smith 2001: 34). Under these circumstances history was legitimized as a part of the general education curriculum validating its usage in serving the political motivations of the nation. Since then, in a world gradually fractured into nations, education in general and history

education in particular acquired an ever more significant role in creating and promoting students' homogeneous national identity. This, by its nature, contributed to the emphasis placed on the learning of the language, history, and culture of the nation.

During the 20th century the ideological and political manipulation of school history became a common feature of history education worldwide. This occurred despite the introspection and initiatives born as a consequence of the traumatic experiences of the World Wars as well as the development of history education as a dynamic field of inquiry in its own right from the 60's onwards. Objectives, subject content and teaching practices concerning history were revised in the case of many national education policies, supported by the significant epistemological developments on learning theory, cognitive psychology, educational theory and pedagogy of the last 50 years (e.g. Dickinson & Lee 1978, Dickinson, Lee & Rogers 1984, Levstik & Barton 2008, Portal 1987, Stearns, Seixas, & Wineburg 2000, Wineburg 2001). Nonetheless this scientific progress has not effectively challenged the function of history education as the cornerstone of a student's national socialization.

The classic book of Marc Ferro (2003) "The Use and Abuse of History or How History is Taught" is illuminating in its exposition of the ideological underpinning of school history as an ubiquitous norm in the presentation of national history, especially in the second half of 20th century. As is expressed school histories were modified to match the political and ideological imperatives of the nation-state in countries with a variety of national philosophies ranging from Europe and America to Africa and Asia.

2. The historization of the Balkans and the role of textbooks

Balkan history is a typical example of the political manipulation of the past both in academic and public arenas. It is against this backdrop that history education has become instrumentalised in the promotion of nationhood and stressing of national distinctiveness and significance of separate countries. The present paper aims to examine the segregative issues created by the national borders of the Balkan region and to

explore some ideas concerning the propositional (declarative) knowledge included in the history syllabuses. It would be apt to investigate means of stressing the shared elements of the spatial and temporal historical experience in the Balkans and to promote the notion of democratic citizenship as well as the students' ability for self reflection on the past.

The historical rupture of 1989 and the collapse of the socialist regimes in Eastern and Central Europe signalled the re-emergence of nationalism and the foundation of several new nation states that sought to develop a robust "national narrative" concerning their ancestry and ethnic identity. In the Balkans these political developments set the framework for new and increasingly aggressive and defensive nationalisms (Koulouri 2002b: 16). Scholars have pointed out that history has "returned" to the Balkans triggering considerable developments and adjustments to the national historiographies. In the post-Communist countries the revision - in fact the de-ideologisation - of history has been marked, diverging notably from the pre-1989 Marxist interpretations and analyses combined with a considerable amount of political, military and national history. This revision favoured the re-writing of a "new" collective past, utilising modern or older - from the Communist period - myths, (re)discovering new topoi of memory and dismantling the previous ones. Despite the fact that the Communist period was ultimately rejected, a contradiction and a multiplicity of approaches can be identified ranging from the postmodern questioning of objectivity and validity of history to purely nationalistic and manichaistic readings of complex events in the Balkan's past (Brunnbauer 2004, Konstantakopoulou 2000: 108-109, 110, 115, Koulouri 2002b: 21-27, Koulouri 2009: 54).

These changes in the Balkan's historiography also greatly effected history education as is reflected in the history textbooks of the various nations. Needless to say that history education was found "guilty" as the subjective content of the history textbooks mirrored the extreme military violence and nationalistic conflicts of the recent decades in the region. These political and scientific outcomes in a "region in transition" stung into action various institutions and associations which stressed the need for a history teaching as a part of Peace Education.

Striving for the elimination of negative representations of other Balkan communities and the tempering of the divisive role of pedagogy and education in the reconciliation and appraisal of the common history, culture and education of the Balkan countries have been:

- a. The NGO "Center for Democracy and Reconciliation in Southeast Europe" (CDRSEE), which in 1998 inaugurated the "Joint History project". It aimed to examine the possibility of writing and teaching a common history in all Southeast European countries from Slovenia to Cyprus. The project initiated a series of workshops for presenting the research outcomes of the Balkan history textbooks and curricula, organised teacher training programs, published books on the research conclusions (Koulouri 2001, Koulouri 2002a) and produced four volumes of alternative educational material for the teaching of history in the Balkan languages (Koulouri 2006: 20-27, Koulouri 2009: 59-60).
- b. The "School Textbook Research Unit", run by the Department of Education of the Aristotle University, Greece - currently "Centre of School Textbook and Cross-cultural Education Research" - that has been in operation since 1992. Amongst other research, this Unit has implemented a research project where history and language textbooks for Primary and Secondary Education of five neighbouring Balkan countries (Albania, Bulgaria, FYROM, Turkey and Greece) were analysed (Xochellis & Toloudi 2001).
- c. The "Balkan Society for Pedagogy and Education", active since 1997, have organized a series of thematic conferences with the aim of examining various aspects concerning education in the Balkan countries (<http://basoped.edu.gr/>).

In the last twenty years the history textbooks of Balkan countries have been analysed and thoroughly examined in the context of the above research projects in addition to various other dissertations by authors with a scholarly backgrounds in history, pedagogy, political science and anthropology. Their findings draw

parallels to each other and suggest that consistent stereotypes for the neighbouring countries and denigratory comments on the extranational "other", anachronisms, biases and omissions, an abundance of references to military history and wars, ethnocentric accounts of the national past, even mere nationalistic "expressions" are regularly included (chapters in Dimou 2009, Höpken 1996, Koulouri 2001, Koulouri 2002a, Xochellis & Toloudi 2000, Shiba 2008, Vouri, 1997, see also Koulouri 2006: 18, n. 3 for further bibliography). Balkan history textbooks are notable indicators of how the different Balkan states have conceived their historical uniqueness and perceive their superiority in the past and present.

Can history education go beyond the national borders and provide new critical insights for students in perceiving and understanding the past from a local, national and supranational perspective? In what follows, I will attempt to provide some plausible answers to that question and to discuss some of the issues concerning the quest for the teaching of history in a manner that goes beyond the boundaries set by the ethnic identities in the light of the specific case of the Balkans region.

3. National borders vs shared histories

Since the 18th century the West European political and cultural rhetoric constructed the concept of "Balkanism" as a separate geographical and cultural category with the inherent elements of violence, political unrest, fluidity and primitivism, contrasting with the rest of Europe. The discourse of Balkanism includes both the stereotype of the cultural uniqueness of the region, which was to be rekindled during the Wars of Yugoslav succession, and a negative connotation concerning of the ethnic variety of the Balkan Peninsula (Todorova 2009). Beyond any West-European stereotyped perception of the region, the Balkans were in the past and still are in the present a historically constructed and multicultural mosaic that embodies a combination of different religious, linguistic and cultural traditions of a Mediterranean, Slavic, Islamic and Central-European origins. Apart from the physical borders, the Balkan region is latticed by many other internal cultural, ethnic and religious boundaries, in comparison to the rest of

Europe, as well as a proliferation of political/territorial boundaries, increased by the recent birth of nation states (Koulouri 2002b: 19, 21, 29, 30).

On the other hand, as a counterpoint to the re-emergence of nationalisms and the reinforcement of both old and new national borders, the process of globalisation and the economic, cultural and social integration on an supranational level (Beck 2000, Jameson & Miyoshi 1998) challenge the geographical, cultural and political borders between countries. Many scholars regard this process as a direct threat to the political survival of the nation states (White 2006) while others assume that globalization is even a precondition of the nation state. For example Anthony Giddens perceives globalization as an inherent element of modernity that doesn't overturn the logic of the nation states. Nevertheless, he draws attention to the consequences and dangers of globalisation to the "cultural autonomy" of various ethnic groups (Giddens 1990: 55-78). The case of Greece is indicative of this as globalisation and the post-modernist reflection on Greek history is assumed to negate the validity of classical antiquity as the authoritative agent and the very essence of the distinctiveness of modern Greek identity (Damaskos & Plantzos 2008, Kotsakis 1991) and challenges the spiritual superiority of the classical heritage itself (but see chapters in Plantzos 2009). As a consequence the fear of abolishing cultural identity has built new symbolic borders, fortified by defensive and introverted public perceptions of the Greek past and exclusivist claims on the ancient culture.

Taking into consideration the region's complex geography and past is crucial in identifying the elements of shared histories that can contribute to the abolishment of the conventional boundaries based on dogmatic interpretations of ethnic pasts. According to Christina Koulouri "we could consider Balkan history as unfolding in a continuum of space defined by physical and cultural borders. Moreover, the existence of overlaps in the area, as attested to by name-places and the minorities within national states, is in itself indicative of some aspects of the shared history" (Koulouri 2002b: 30). Thus, the modern national borders intersect the spatial and temporal continuity of the prehistoric period, the Roman times, the eras

of the Byzantine and Ottoman empires, and even of the Communist period in some cases. Needless to say, the multitude of Balkan borders set intellectual barriers which effectively influence effectively subject-matter knowledge in the context of the national history educations of the various countries.

4. Crossing the subject - matter "boundaries"

The quest for a common history education across the borders, literally traversing the national boundaries, involves a variety of issues. It encompasses the objectives of history education in the 21st century, instruction methods and most of all the content knowledge considered appropriate in order to gain a mutual understanding of history as a field of reconciliation between neighbouring countries. The selection of the apposite declarative knowledge is critical, bearing in mind the boundaries set by the ethnocentric perspective of history in education. Any historical content alterations emphasising aspects of a shared past can only be effective in a pedagogical framework that also includes a reconsideration of the aims and the teaching methods of history.

Concerning the purposes of teaching history the theoretical conceptualisation provided by Keith Barton and Linda Lestik in their thoughtful book "Teaching history for the common good" (2004) is quite valuable in consideration of our objectives. The authors suggest that history education for the 21st century should prepare students for democratic citizenship and participation in deliberations over the common good. This purpose involves four principal "stances" towards history that can contribute to fostering students' education with regards to democratic participation. Those activities performed by students when learning history, are classified as the "identification stance" that familiarises people with their personal, family and national history and promotes associations between the national present and past. The "analysis stance" focusing on the exploration of how the past has led to the present, the learning of lessons for the present from the past and the understanding of how historical accounts are created. The "moral response stance" related to the making of judgments on issues of memory

and forgetting, fairness and justice and of the heroic actions of the past. Finally, "the exhibition stance" dealing with the display of historical knowledge as a means of personal fulfilment, in the context of school assessments and as a service to the public. It is of great significance that the authors, without denying the importance of the "identification function" of teaching history, dealing not only with the ethnic identity but also with other aspects of associations between past and present, argue that this type of learning is primarily subjective and does not promote effectively democratic citizenship. Instead they claim that the "analysis stance" is more likely to develop civic responsibility under the condition that history and the human actions of the past are studied under the light of uncertainty.

Another aspect of teaching history beyond any ethnocentric constraints deals with the instruction methods and educational approaches that would be necessary to support the perspective of overcoming the national borders of the Balkans. Learner-centred teaching methods and multi-perspective educational approaches that develop the analytical, interpretative and, foremost, critical thinking skills of the students are needed for contextualising historical narratives and recognising that perceptions about the past are socially and culturally constructed. In several educational systems through Europe and beyond, history is not an autonomous teaching subject but is taught as a part of joint courses of an integrated, interdisciplinary or multidisciplinary character (Slater 1995: 137-139). Based on these educational approaches history education can broaden the interpretations of the past, interacting with other educational fields of similar scopes and perspectives, such as citizenship education, intercultural education and environmental studies. All of these are not restricted by national boundaries and emphasise respectively the idea of citizenship on a national, supranational or global level, the notion of cultural diversity as an immanent feature of modern and globalised societies and the importance of the natural and manmade environment for interpreting human societies. The contribution of history and environmental education as a medium for intercultural cooperation and sustainability has

already been suggested with reference to the case of the Prespes Lakes, a region divided by the modern borders of Greece, Albania and FYROM, albeit indivisible in terms of environment, ecology and many features of history and culture (Andreou & Mavrikaki 2004).

Besides, local history, both as a methodological initiative and as a source of historical knowledge, is an alternative educational approach that adds the dimension of locality to the process of understanding the national, regional and international history. It contributes to the identification of common local historical features in comparative studies of adjacent regions as "no locality is wholly insulated from outside influences" (Stradling 2001: 158-161). In fact in considering this interconnectedness between local histories in border areas many fears emerge for the political and ideological consequences of exploring "dangerous" topics, such as facets of local cultural diversity that could challenge national identity (see Kasvikis & Andreou 2011 for the case of local history teaching in the Florina).

Arriving at the core issue of content changes and the selection of historical subjects that would redraw borders in the context of history education, a more holistic perspective of the past, deviating from political and military history in favour of social, economic and foremost cultural history, is suggested. In the case of Balkan history these subject matter changes should engage historical topics dealing with prehistory, Roman times, the Byzantine and Ottoman periods and lay emphasis on economy, material culture, daily life, art, religion, technology, tradition, customs, mentalities, social practices and ceremonies. Furthermore, perspectives based on the concepts of power, ideology, class and cultural identity could also be embodied.

Let me delineate some examples of propositional knowledge that could contribute in challenging the national borders and promote a sense of a common historical experience. The Neolithic settlements of the Balkans – which were the first Neolithic societies in Europe – are today divided between the various Balkan countries such as Greece, Albania, the different nation states of the Former Yugoslavia and Bulgaria (Bailey 2000). Nevertheless the modern borders provide no obstacle to students in

perceiving the historical context of the first farmers in Europe and appreciating their contribution to the regional, European and world history. As is stressed (Kotsakis 2008) the Neolithic period is difficult to be made contribute directly to the national idea, however its legacy and influence on modern life is crucial and goes beyond the conjectures of the nation building program and the formation of national identities. In an educational framework it is important to realise and appreciate that broad conceptual categories, fundamental to the modern thought, such as nature, space and time, first emerged in a period 8000 years ago or even more. In fact the Neolithic bequeathed to the subsequent societies and to ourselves in the present the concepts of ancestry and genealogy with the past, the household and the privacy, locality, collectivity and the mnemonic arrangement of the dead, all of which were introduced or elaborated upon the context of the Neolithic communities of the region in a period during which modern borders were meaningless.

Another source of subject matter that could ameliorate the idea of a common past deals with the shared heritage of the Byzantine and Ottoman empires, even if some characteristics of the latter are rejected by the modern Balkan societies, due to their current Western orientation or their religious prejudices and beliefs. Elements of this Byzantine and Ottoman heritage, namely religion, architecture, language, legends, cuisine and literary tradition are common but many of them have been divided and individually assimilated into the everyday life of the different Balkan communities so as to be considered as exclusively national (Koulouri 2002b: 28, 35-36, chapters in Koulouri 2002a). The contribution of Orthodoxy and Islam, despite their conflicting differences during the Ottoman period, can also be a subject of taught history that unites the historical experiences of the communities separated by borders. Christian churches and many different types of Muslim monuments along with Byzantine and Ottoman sites of historical significance, distributed throughout the modern Balkan countries in varying states of preservation (Hartmouth 2011), are the visible material manifestations of the historical continuities and discontinuities that the current nation states of the region have respectively embodied or excluded from their

national histories.

From a theoretical point of view historical sites and monuments that have survived until the present day are the material expressions of cultural, social, aesthetic and symbolic values attributed by the various communities of the past. The historical landscape includes public architecture and private buildings, streets and street names, historic and archaeological sites, battlefields, monuments of memory, castles, churches, baths, mosques, graveyards, industrial buildings and factories, public spaces and structures. As educational tools these features comprise many informative, mnemonic and ideological functions and work as tangible resources that can facilitate alternative interpretations and identifications. Historical sites and monuments of all kinds encompass the key features of materiality, visibility and visit potential, all of which encourage teachers and students to become engaged with and explore alternative readings of the past (Kasvikis & Andreou 2008). From the perspective of providing an education across borders the identification of the rich material resources of the Balkan historical landscape is an imperative, as far as it illustrates the multiple and contradictory aspects of local history, microhistory and culture, being avoided or not readily included in the official histories presented in the national curricula or history textbooks.

Needless to say that these subject matter suggestions are related to cultural history, a trend of the discipline that in the recent decades has moved to the core of the historical studies, succeeding in enriching the conventional approaches of political, economic and military history by exploring the multiple categories of the historical record (Burke 2008). One domain of cultural history, which is integral to our investigation, is the consideration of the historical contexts under which phenomena of cultural encounters occur and hybrid cultures are produced (Burke 2009). While cultural integration of all kinds is increasingly frequent in the postmodern societies, cultural hybridity finds its parallels in the past. Several historical cases of cultural exchange and hybridization in neighbouring regions are recorded, such as the cultural encounters along the borders of the Ottoman and Austrian-Hungarian empires (Burke 2009: 75). The history of the Balkans is no

exception as many common cultural traits mentioned above are the result of a two-way cultural exchange and interaction between different communities that lived in the past, rather than a process of a linear transmission from the dominant ethnic group to others.

To reject the boundaries which are based on ethnic identities and to bridge the divided histories of the Balkan countries in the context of history education doesn't necessarily mean to avoid the teaching of sensitive or controversial issues from the region's history or not to stress the existence of multiple interpretations of the same historical events. The acceptance of historical similarities and continuities between different modern Balkan states entails most of all the recognition of the differences and an understanding of how different interpretations of the past are constructed and disseminated in the public sphere.

5. Conclusion

The history of a region exists beyond any political legitimisation, but the interpretation of the past, both academic and public, is defined by present geopolitical, ideological and social conjectures that have shaped the modern national borders. History education can surpass these national boundaries on the condition that the nature and purpose of history teaching focuses on the development of citizenship on a local, national and supranational basis and ensuring a more pluralistic and reflective perception of the past is adopted. The fulfilment of these goals in the case of the Balkans requires a reconsideration of the aims, teaching methods and contents of the different school histories, including learner-centered instructions and teaching approaches and the introduction of a series of subject matter changes that will promote mutual tolerance and a common historical conscience. For that purpose the propositional knowledge included in history curricula, the related textbooks and the content of other teaching initiatives such as local history projects, must diverge from political and military accounts in favour of economic, social and cultural history and underline the historical bonds of the people and their countries. Most of all it requires a change both of the political will that defines the educational policies of various Balkan countries and the mentalities of

educators and teachers involved in history education. A deviation from the rigorous identitarian exploitation and political manipulation of school history, so common in the case of the Balkans, would facilitate diverse and multi perspective interpretations of the region's history and relativise the importance attributed to the singularity of the different national pasts.

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ARTS INTERNATIONALISATION AS A WAY OF APPROACHING AND MITIGATING PROBLEMS BETWEEN BALKAN PEOPLE

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Abstract

Arts and mainly performing ones were for many decades the reason for rapprochement between distant countries. Cultural contact is likely to dampen tensions between nations, for the very simple reason that it easily shifts the centre of gravity from a social or economic problem to art. People give their full attention to the cultural perspective, trying to understand the "opposite" side, offering interchangeably and sequentially, the primary basis of hospitality and approaching the art products through a particular viewpoint. Conflicts between people, either financial or mainly politico-military, may be reduced to a minimum, thanks to the assimilation of cultural themes from a nation to another. Performing arts are characterised, as we know, by a vividness and immediacy in relation to the audience that follows them, and since Balkan people have inherent problems in understanding the individual cultures, these arts can become the first and only instrument of mutual understanding.

Keywords: *Theatre, Cinema, Politics, Internationalisation, Co-productions*

1. Introduction

In this article we examine, through some criteria given by certain institutions and conventions, the potential of performing arts to expand throughout the world, thus to be internationalised. Our effort takes as example the case of art products and examines their potential to be exported in certain countries, while taking into account their qualities, as the reason why they can be diffused abroad. Theoretically, all countries worldwide can be considered as destination countries, although practically -and based on the statistics coming from market research- their actual number is extremely limited. Balkan countries, thanks to their proximity to Greece, but also to common culture points- can easily "import" such products.

It is, of course, well known that for decades and perhaps centuries, many artistic products have crossed the boundaries of their originating country, daring international acclaim (arts of cinema and theatre, and, in a second degree, music, dance and opera). Here it should be emphasised the fact that a lot of similar artistic products have succeeded an international career

in a completely natural way, perhaps owing to the fact they were outstanding ones.

2. Methodology

Our method during the composition of this article was to examine firstly the role of some important cultural institutions in art production, such as festivals. In another focal point, we analysed some of the important treaties and conventions that have been established by certain European institutions: Council of Europe Cultural Convention, "Eurimages" supporting Fund, "Europuddings", and "Theatre Presenting Programme". Through this analysis we tried to examine the weaknesses and strengths (Montana & Charnov 2009: 185) that various conventions offer to European art, so as to find why many cultural products do not have the same impact through national and international markets.

We were assisted on this point by viewing the case of certain American art products: many films of inferior quality are exported yearly from the U.S.A. and distributed in countless foreign countries, but, at the same time, there are other products (movies, theatre performances, musical productions) of superior quality which do not manage to be exported more frequently abroad.

By the term "internationalisation" we mean, on the one hand, the effort of transforming a product intended for national consumption into one aiming for international, and on the other hand, all the practices of diffusion to countries who want potentially to "consume" it (Pavis 2006: 305). In the case of art, the effort of transformation from "national" into "international" product concerns either the package, or the content (ingredients) (Armstrong & Kotler 2009: 73).

3. The role of festivals

Festivals must be legally constituted, artistically mandated, independent, non-profit arts organizations, with a track record of presenting professional performances in professional facilities, with professional technical support. Their programming should contain a variety of content that is not otherwise available in the region. Festivals must have a proven ability to pay reasonable fees and support productions with adequate promotion and publicity and also

be able to demonstrate they have contributed to the touring possibilities of companies. Priority is given to festivals that work with other presenters on a regional, national and international level and that are involved with their immediate artistic community to increase the dissemination and collaboration opportunities of the companies they present. Priority is given to festivals that articulate the artistic vision behind their programming choices and their link with the public and the local theatre community.

4. Co-productions as first step

"Co-production" is a broad term that may apply to any form of financial, creative, and technical collaboration involved in any product. Co-productions have given various eminent advantages throughout art's recent history and have proven to be a crucial means of art production in the world. European countries have especially used co-production as a strategy for art production with relatively high budgets, in order to approach greater access to more markets (Gargalianos 1994: 361). We must mention that there is practically no nation not engaged in co-production of one sort or another. Co-productions thus represent a dominant sector in theatre and film production, to the detriment of nationally or locally relevant traditions and cultures.

Four co-production categories are identified: a) public and private-sector co-productions in a given country, b) public and private-sector co-productions of different countries, c) private capital from different countries and d) treaty co-productions (Brunet 2004). Generally, most films and plays that are considered national co-productions are, in fact, international ones. While factors that have led to this type of art making are various, the presence of Hollywood - as a threat and competitor, or as a facilitator and mutually beneficial collaborator - represents a dominant force through the history concerning co-productions.

Furthermore, some festivals fulfil the dream of municipal and state theatres in Europe, which would like to establish a partnership with foreign theatre groups. By the first year, theatres could have exchanged artistic personnel, while in the second, they might choose to host a guest production from their partner theatre. In the

final year, theatres could organize a co-production to be performed in all municipalities or states. The partner theatres are free to organise the details of their working arrangement, each one committed to its own interests and capacities. The goal is to involve as many members of each theatre in the cooperative venture as possible. Great festivals also provide the option of preserving an existing partnership, given that partner theatres try, in each season, a new project.

A mode of internationalization very popular in the entirety of the different industries is collaboration (Armstrong & Kotler 2009: 72). Called co-production, this mode includes the full-scale, all-inclusive co-productions, where partners in more than one country are committed to both creative and financial level, as one of the partners is especially concerned with the investment aspect of the project.

The objectives are to:

1. Encourage co-production between Balkan theatrical festivals that offer high visibility and theatre producers who develop work of exceptional quality;
2. Enhance the production values and possibilities of new artistic works;
3. Enhance the visibility and impact of new performing works nationally and internationally;
4. Increase national and international touring and co-production opportunities for Balkan theatre companies and artists;
5. Increase audiences for European theatre companies and artists.

The assessment criteria for the festival co-production assistance in Balkan countries are the following:

1. Artistic interest of the proposed creative team.
2. Impact of the collaboration on the proposed production.
3. Impact of the project on the art of theatre and on theatre artists.
4. Public impact and enhanced visibility afforded through the proposed co-production and presentation, including potential future touring or co-production opportunities on a regional, national and international level.
5. Relative importance of the needs identified, given the resources of the co-

producing partners and the financial risk involved in the production.

6. Special consideration will be given to projects from small theatre communities such as Albanian and Skopje.

5. Distributing theatre and cinema

A distributor is a person or a company specialising in the diffusion of certain products, from different sources or producers. He is responsible for the marketing implementation, and the various distribution costs. A distributor may work either on his national market or sell products on a set of territories or all world territories (Brunet 2004).

The ability of a distributor lies on the way he sells the products he represents. The distributor is based on the amount of sales which, in a second hand, allow deductions on promotional expenses. The distributor of a product that seems attractive may offer a guaranty to the producer or even the international collaborators, called "minimum guaranty".

As the distributor represents a set of art products, producers must expect that representations of these products are somewhat diluted (Sandhusen 2009: 783). However, this solution is much less expensive than direct sales, and financial results can be much more advantageous.

A mode of internationalisation very popular in different industries is «co-production». This mode includes the all-inclusive collaboration of partners in more than one country, who are committed to both creative and financial level (Armstrong & Kotler 2009: 687).

Financial relations between partners have an influence on the climate of work and the success of each alliance. All partners should have the complementary assets driving to possible synergies between them. They should be of similar size, otherwise objectives may be different, and the importance given to different projects may not be compatible.

The concept of the packaging in live spectacle is much broader than the one of «normal» products. While the common commercial products packaging is simply a wrapper (e.g. metal, preserved paper, plastics, etc.), in artistic products the same notion mainly is dealing with the reputation of artistic groups

or individual artists.

6. The role of U.T.E., E.F.B. and N.T.N.G

Union of Theatres of Europe (U.T.E.) is an alliance of national theatres. It serves to promote European integration through cultural interaction (www.ntng.gr). We know that U.T.E. is an association that promotes intensive international theatre work with more than ten thousand performances and three million spectators per season, offering festivals, exhibitions, workshops, collaborations with drama schools, colloquiums and co-productions throughout Europe. All these activities have united the thirty four theatre members, currently composed by sixteen European countries, Israel and Russia. Apart from fostering European integration, the initial motivation also was to fight the perceived threat to European cultural diversity posed by globalisation.

U.T.E.'s mission is to contribute to the reinforcement of European Union through culture and theatre, to encourage a collective cultural movement that breaks language barriers, in order to develop an art which is seen as a vector of fraternity among people. U.T.E. promotes productions and co-productions, theatre exchanges and shared experiences, while respecting individual identities and cultures. The sum of these activities is elucidating the objectives of artistic and cultural policies that aim to reinforce artistic cooperation and broader commercial circulation in Europe (Grefe et al. 1991: 90).

U.T.E. represents an “intercultural construction”, a union that consists of nineteen national theatres, but still remains a strong institution at the same time. This “intercultural construction” discusses intensively the questions of a European identity and the role of culture in its formation. Its goal is to promote cultural activities across national borders that respect the principles of the particular identities, something that requires common and continuous research. Its current programme focuses on projects promoting new working methods and unifies experienced theatre creators with enthusiastic newcomers, all this on a long-term scale.

In another side, the “European Fund for the Balkans” (E.F.B.) is a multi-year joint initiative of

European foundations designed to undertake and support initiatives aimed at bringing Balkans closer to the European Union through grant-giving and operational programs and, as such, is focused on individuals and organizations from Balkan countries.

The National Theatre of Northern Greece (N.T.N.G.), member of the U.T.E., established the theatre stage “Open Borders”, wishing to support and highlight the special character of artistic creation in the Balkan area as well as an uninterrupted and substantial communication between theatres of the neighbor countries of Southeastern Europe.

Major productions –performances of ancient drama plays- on October 2012 are presented by the National Theatres of Albania, Serbia and Bulgaria and hosted by the N.T.N.G. This theatre stage is a platform where theatres can meet, exchange views, create a basis of possible collaborations and open up to new perspectives of artistic creation in the neuralgic area of the Balkans, an area with a long and potent tradition in theatre and arts. This meeting point of different cultures, brought together through a common historical and social-political background, can build a strong bridge towards a modern collective identity in the theatrical landscape (Chatzakis 2012).

7. Projects and collaborations

Cinema production in Europe is essentially an activity carried out on a national basis. Cultural projects have been presented in each country; each one with its own clearly defined characteristics. The different traditions typifying Italian, British or French cinema, for example, are readily identifiable.

This situation has led to a basic conception of films targeted on national markets. Of course, the quality and value of some productions has resulted in their being more widely distributed. Neo-realism, the great Italian comedies, Nouvelle Vague and the British Free Cinema, to cite but a few examples, have been hailed far beyond the frontiers of their countries of origin. They were, however, produced by funds based principally on national budgets.

In the early years, co-productions have certainly helped European cinema to survive. To be objective, this kind of production has its

limitations, and may lead to undesirable side-effects (Mallerou 2006: 192). Since it calls for technical, financial and artistic participation, it has led to many creations of artificially conceived works, in which actors and technicians were sometimes chosen more for their national identity, than for reasons connected to the coherence of the film.

While appropriate for bilateral relations, co-production agreements have also been used to set up co-productions involving more than two countries. In fact, most agreements expressively provide that possibility. Bilateral collaborations are not standardised and leave room for disparities, so the high risk is that one of co-producers may offer less favourable terms than the others.

7.1. The importance of "Europuddings"

Authorising financial co-productions, that is co-productions without artistic and technical participation by the minor co-producers, Convention provides a response to traditional co-productions, in which the proportions of contributions by different partners sometimes lead to what has been called "Europuddings": by leaving the majority partner free to retain full technical and artistic control over the work, this type of co-production fosters the defence for the various European countries individual cultural identities, thereby fulfilling one of the aims set forth in the Council's of Europe Cultural Convention.

8. Agreements between nations

Throughout 1950s' and 1960s' bilateral and trilateral co-production treaties, a considerable number of films were exported beyond Europe, in countries like as Canada, Latin America, and North Africa. Films produced in this manner can be classified in three types: art films, genre films, and quality entertainment films. They constitute a sliding scale regarding budgets and identifiable national characteristics. One key factor for commercial success, according to the widest potential appeal across national borders, was finding funds formulae. The most lucrative European co-productions in the 1950s were those in the genre of melodrama and comedy (www.filmreference.com).

The expansion of art cinema in these

decades marks the contradictions inherent in all co-production treaty strategies. Whereas European "quality" filmmaking represented the attempt to fight Hollywood on its own terms (big budgets, star-studded casts, elaborated sets and costumes), art cinema proceeded in the opposite direction, and was connected to a long-standing anti-American sentiment: that the strength of European culture lies in its specific national artistic cultures (Grefe et al. 1991: 26).

It has thus become necessary to adopt rules concerning the whole range of European multilateral co-productions, while of course not calling into question the existing bilateral relations (Mallerou 2006: 209). This kind of convention seems to be the most appropriate form of legal instrument on this purpose.

In fact, a European convention has the advantage of providing a common legal basis, governing the multilateral cinema relations of all members of the Union. In setting out conditions for obtaining co-production status applicable to all parties, such a European convention enables the drawbacks which would result from many different multilateral intergovernmental agreements. These drawbacks derive as much from the disparity of the stipulations laid down by these agreements, as from the complexity of the legal relations. They would ensue regarding state parties, through several bilateral agreements setting out different co-production conditions. A single contractual instrument constitutes an important vehicle of development and promotion on co-productions in Europe and simplifies cinema relations between the producing countries. It should be noted that the European Convention on cinema co-production has an extensive geographic field of application, being open to the members of the Council of Europe and other countries which are European cultural convention members, as well as to the access of European non-member countries.

8.1. Treaty co-productions

Many European countries inaugurated treaty co-productions as a means for facing the Hollywood threat head-on. On one hand, the threat was perceived as cultural, and so several European governments tried to protect national cinematic expression through subsidies for quality or artistic films. On the other hand, the threat was economic, so other subsidies were created to

support the commercial side of filmmaking. Co-production treaties between nations were thus established as a way for maintaining financing standards in order to qualify for state subsidies, while, at the same time, allowing increased resources and budgets available to cinema production (in order to expand local markets) (Grefe et al. 1991: 25). All treaties specified the way the financing would be handled, as well as the percentage of actors and technical crew that should be provided from each participating country. Treaty co-productions soon became common practice in Europe in the early 1950s, aiming cultural and commercial needs they were created to serve.

9. The European Convention on Cinema Co-Productions

European cultural co-operation in the cinema field, takes place primarily through co-productions. In these joint efforts to support creation (for a long time exclusively bilateral, although now increasingly multilateral) the rules governing state support for film production are not always the same. The main objectives of each convention are to minimise these differences and to harmonise multilateral relations between countries, when they decide to co-produce a film.

Designed to encourage the development of film co-productions in Europe, European Convention tries to simplify procedures of production on the basis of criteria established by the Eurimages Fund (a European fund set up within the framework of the Council of Europe in 1988, in order to support co-productions and film distribution, as well as audiovisual productions) (www.filmreference.com). It also constitutes a step forward in lowering the threshold of financial participation in co-productions by permitting financial co-productions, based on European identity. This requirement concerning identity is, in some respects, the guiding principle of the Convention, inspired by a versatile but unified vision of European film production.

Given that various conventions grant to the co-produced films a certain kind of recognition, this must be reflected by a genuine technical and artistic staff of the countries participating in film making. Such participation makes it possible to

create a link between co-produced work and countries. It is clear that where the financial participation fails to be proportional to the artistic and technical participation, the competent authorities may either refuse to grant co-production status to the project or withdraw their provisional agreement.

The obligation to use technicians established in the respective countries, ensures that it will not be possible to use workers enjoying a lower degree of protection, inside the co-production's framework.

Co-productions aim to develop cinema industry in each European country. The development of co-productions is one of the most effective and appropriate instruments for that purpose. The development of traditional or financial co-productions may, in some cases, lead to a lack of balance between a country and one or more partners, over a given period of time. Since in most countries of Europe cinema industry receives substantial financing from public funds, the concern of countries to preserve their own culture is a legitimate one. That's why it is considered necessary to introduce into the agreement's text the concept of an overall balance between countries, which must be applicable to traditional co-productions and financial co-productions alike. Countries should necessarily allow some latitude in the concept of reciprocity, while bearing in mind that co-productions aim to a flexible and open assessment of that principle (Armstrong & Kotler 2009: 687).

9.1. Choosing languages - The translation issue

It has not yet proven possible to clearly formalise this requirement on a legal rule basis. The reason for this is that the language considered as "culturally appropriate", may be defined in several ways. It is generally defined as the language of one of the countries participating in the co-production, but in a tripartite co-production, if the language used is the one of a co-producer whose financial part is only ten per cent (plus it has provided neither the director, nor the actors, nor the story-line), it is clearly artificial (www.filmreference.com). Formalising the requirement of rules concerning languages in co-productions may, in these circumstances, encourage the mounting of "ad hoc" co-

productions.

In fact, the most suitable original version language seems to be the one called "natural language of the narrative", that is the language which the characters would naturally speak according to the screenplay demands (Gargalianos 1994: 369). The narrative language, defined in this way, may be completely unrelated to the financial set-up adopted by the co-production, which means that there can be no legal definition of that version.

10. Conclusion

The potential of movies and plays to expand throughout the world, thus to be internationalised, is enormous. The efforts to transform a national art product into one for international market, and all the practices of diffusion into countries who want, potentially, to consume it, have really been increased during the last thirty years, especially in Balkan countries. The aims of transformation of a product into a "Balkan" one are referring either to the package, or the content (ingredients). The number of the destination countries, theoretically, is relatively limited, and this is either positive or negative for the art product that is going to be sold and "consumed".

A large number of agreements have been drawn up the last thirty years, between Balkan partners. All kind of international co-productions need the establishment of certain conventions between countries, each of them according very carefully to its own national identity to art products. In this way, an art production can take advantage of the benefits granted to national works and attract private or public financing from many countries. It is certain that there needs to be a substantial cultural element in the integration of Balkan Peninsula, where films and theatre productions play a major, fundamental role in both informing people about cultural diversities and providing authenticity, allowing the message of cinema and theatre to be disseminated in all Balkan countries.

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ASSESSING STUDENTS' CULTURAL KNOWLEDGE NEW BLUEPRINT INTERMEDIATE (A CASE STUDY)

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Abstract

This case-study deals with techniques and instruments used in assessing students' cultural knowledge. These techniques and instruments originally developed by the author aim at assessing the three dimensions in culture teaching, and namely:

- knowledge (savoirs)
- know-how (savoir-faire)
- being (savoir-être)

Each dimension of culture covers different aspects of learning. Consequently, the techniques and instruments of assessment will vary accordingly in order to assess the students as efficiently as possible. The techniques and instruments are applied with regard to unit 28 in New Blueprint intermediate students' book (Brian Abbs & Ingrid Freebairn (1995) *New Blueprint intermediate*. Longman.) The author hopes to be able to share this experience and highlight some crucial aspects of culture teaching, the fifth dimension in language teaching which is so pertinent to achieving the so much desired cultural competence.

Keywords: *Culture, intercultural communicative competence, assessing techniques, knowledge, know-how, being*

1. Introduction

The concept of culture has recently become a very important component in foreign language teaching. Students are not only expected to be able to produce correct grammatical sentences, but also to be able to understand the cultural context where these sentences occur. These could be for example: forms of address, thanking, making and responding to requests, greetings, apologizing, giving and receiving compliments and the like. It includes not only knowing the appropriate words and expressions, and knowing when to use them, but also the beliefs and values represented by the different usages and forms of the language.

As foreign language teachers we should aim at making our students both, linguistically and communicatively competent. In this respect Michael Byram writes "The aims of language teaching are to develop both linguistic and cultural competence, which can be called an intercultural communicative

competence."(Byram 1999) The two competences go together due to the opening of frontiers, the rapidly changing world where monolithic cultures are almost extinguished and the fact that English is becoming a global language. Thus, learning a language will involve learning the culture of the language.

On the other hand, due to the political interest in education and the educational standards, which are constantly raising, assessment has become a very important component for students and teachers in the teaching and learning process. Assessment ensures and proves that teaching and learning are given serious attention.

Since the final goal of teaching culture in the national curriculum for primary education is students to develop an intercultural communicative competence the aim of this case study is to give examples of assessing techniques and instruments regarding the three dimensions of intercultural communicative competence - 'knowledge', 'know – how', and 'being'.

2. Defining Culture

Generally, culture is divided in two types: 'big C' culture and 'little c' culture. 'Big C' culture includes elements which are visible like history, geography, art, food, architecture, etc. The less visible elements of culture or 'little c' culture are myths, legends, behaviors, communication styles, cultural norms, verbal and non-verbal language symbols, etc. This division implies that culture is composed of several layers and urges us to think twice when we try to explain what we mean by culture in foreign language teaching.

Kramsch states that "language expresses, embodies, and symbolizes cultural reality" and adds "if speakers of different languages do not understand one another, it is not because their languages cannot be mutually translated into one another. It is because they don't share the same way of viewing and interpreting events; they don't agree on the meaning and the value of the concepts underlying the words" (Kramsch 1998). According to Alptekin "our socially acquired knowledge is organized in culture-specific ways which normally frame our perception of reality such that we largely define the world through the filter of our world view." (Alptekin 1993) Similarly, Bowers defines culture as "an inherited wealth in which we

share memories, metaphors, maxims and myths" (Bowers 1992). Levine and Adelman's iceberg explanation of culture compares the notion of culture to an iceberg where only the tip is visible (food, appearance, language, etc.), whereas the body of the iceberg is difficult to see (attitudes, beliefs, perceptions, values, communication style, etc. (Levine & Adelman 1993). Tomalin and Stempleski define culture as a notion consisting of three elements: "products" including literature, folklore, music and artifacts; "behavior" including customs, habits, dress, foods and leisure and "ideas" including beliefs, values and institutions (Tomalin & Stempleski 1993). Goodenough states that "culture is not a material phenomenon; it does not consist of things, people, behavior, or emotions. It is rather an organization of these things" (Goodenough 1957). The National Center for Cultural Competence defines culture as an "integrated pattern of human behavior that includes thoughts, communications, languages, practices, beliefs, values, customs, courtesies, rituals, manners of interacting and roles, relationships and expected behaviors of a racial, ethnic, religious or social group; and the ability to transmit the above to succeeding generations." (Goode et al. 2003).

All of the above definitions suggest that there are various elements which need to be included in cultural studies. The hesitation about what to include and how to approach cultural studies is reflected in the assessment of students on culture. It is obvious that what is tested is what is taught, and what is taught is what is tested. Teachers either do not assess culture learning, or when they do, they only assess acquired cultural knowledge using indirect testing procedures. According to Corbett "tests focusing only on language may downgrade the status of the cultural elements of a course" (Corbett 2003). Recently, however, as a consequence of the developing standards in education, teachers have started to pay more attention to integrated teaching of language and culture, and assessing students on culture. They do not only teach and assess cultural facts, but also the beliefs and values of the particular culture, represented by the different language forms.

3. Assessing dimensions in intercultural communicative competence

Byram defined intercultural communicative competence as a combination of both linguistic and cultural competence, which students should develop as a consequence of the teaching-learning process. (Byram 1999) In foreign language teaching, teachers should pay equal attention to the linguistic side of the language and its culture. Without simultaneously teaching culture and language students won't receive a well-rounded foreign language education. That is why students' assessment on culture should include the assessment of intercultural communicative competence.

The three dimensions in assessing intercultural communicative competence are: 'knowledge', 'know-how', and 'being'.

1. *Knowledge (savoirs)* refers to acquisition of cultural facts and information, or the 'Big C' Culture. Students are expected to know some facts about the country or countries where the language is spoken in terms of characteristics, symbols, similarities and differences between their own country and the countries where the language is spoken.
2. *Know-how (savoir-faire)* refers to the students' skills to interact in different cultural contexts and the ability to communicate in meaningful and appropriate ways. This refers to the students' competence to function linguistically correct in meaningful and appropriate contexts.
3. *Being (savoir-être)* refers to the attitudes, motivations, values and beliefs. It also refers to understanding and acceptance of other cultures. It includes acceptance of a new worldview, valorization of Otherness, empathy, and the ability to overcome stereotyped relationships.

4. Assessing techniques

The assessment of culture and thus the assessment of intercultural communicative competence are still largely concentrated on the assessment of knowledge, which uses objective testing procedures for testing of knowledge, which primarily measure the learnt cultural facts. But, teachers should take into account all three

dimensions of intercultural communicative competence. When assessing intercultural communicative competence, teachers should use both summative and formative assessing techniques as observation checklists, anecdotal records, portfolios, surveys, self-evaluation reports and students' collection. This enables teachers to use different sources of data and information when deciding on the students' achievement. The "being" dimension cannot be assessed using test scores and standardised tests. The teacher should use other sources of data, such as written products, interest inventories, documentation of task-related behaviours, logs, portfolios, self-evaluation reports, observation checklists, surveys, observation rating scales, etc. In order for the assessment of this kind to be objective teachers need to develop indicators for the different levels of competence, thus providing accurate information on students' progress.

The techniques and instruments of assessment will vary because each dimension of intercultural communicative competence relies on different assessment procedures. We, as teachers are obliged to use different techniques and instruments in order to assess students' achievement and evaluate students' progress in intercultural communicative competence as efficiently as possible. Thus, in general terms

- "Knowledge" can be assessed with indirect testing procedures.
- "Know-how" is based on tasks.
- "Being" relies on self-assessment, teacher's observations, surveys on attitudes, and the student's portfolio.

5. About the students' book - New Blueprint Intermediate

For this case study I used the students' book New Blueprint intermediate by Brian Abbs & Ingrid Freebairn. This course is intended for intermediate students. The material in New Blueprint is based on Project work. This works in two ways. First of all the stories and texts are organized into fifty short units which develop a theme which will be of interest to students. Secondly, as the students work through the projects, they will build up similar projects on their own by doing a number of project tasks. These tasks give students the opportunity to talk and write about the things which are important

in their own lives. Thus, New Blueprint is a truly communicative course, because the language is always used to communicate about something. The students use the language to express their ideas, feelings and interests. Furthermore, the language which is used is presented and practiced in authentic contexts. Students learn about their English-speaking counterparts, and about the world about them. This encourages students to compare life in other countries with their own. In addition, the new language is practiced in meaningful contexts that involve elements on creativity and culture on the part of the student, with an emphasis on moving from accuracy and fluency to using the new language in meaningful contexts. Students can practice producing sentences about themselves, their friends and families, and their wider environment, compared to the lives and environments of people from other countries.

All of the above mentioned gives on opportunity on the part of the teacher to approach the assessment of culture taking into consideration the three dimensions of intercultural communicative competence.

5.1. New Blueprint Intermediate, Unit 28

In unit 28 in New Blueprint the focus is on communication – obligation and prohibition. The students are presented with useful phrases about how to ask about obligation, how to talk about obligation and how to talk about prohibition. In this unit emphasis is drawn to the five skills that students need to develop: speaking, reading, listening, writing and culture.

In the speaking section, students are supposed to conduct a conversation about a

special social event:

- A teacher is leaving after a long time
- An elderly friend of the family is in hospital
- You are invited to a friend's wedding
- You are asked to lunch at your friends parents' house
- A friend of the family dies
- You are inviting a Hindu family to a meal

Students ask and say what they think they should do in the above given social situations, using the presented portion of language for obligation and prohibition. In the reading section, Students are supposed to read a text about table manners in Britain. In this way they learn about some aspects about table manners which exist in British culture. *In the listening section*, students are supposed to listen to a text which focuses on table manners in the USA. *In the writing section*, students should be able to write a few paragraphs about etiquette for visitors to their own country. They should give helpful advice about things like table manners, hospitality and tipping.

5.2. Before teaching unit 28

Before starting to teach unit 28, it would be interesting to find out what students think and to build teaching on the attitudes, the perceptions and apprehensions they expressed. Here is an example of a survey to be filled out by each student as self-evaluation. It will help teachers in observing the learning process and the students to realize the change that can occur during that process.

Table 1: Attitudes concerning eating habits

Opinions	I consider it rude	I consider it acceptable only at home	I consider it completely unacceptable	Why?
Helping yourself to food without asking				
Starting to eat before anyone is served				
Picking at food with your hands				
Reading at the meal table				
Resting your elbows at the table				
Reaching across the table in front of people				
Leaving the table before other people				

Opinions	I consider it rude	I consider it acceptable only at home	I consider it completely unacceptable	Why?
have finished				
Not thanking the cook				
Wiping your plate clean with bread				

The aim of this self-evaluation is the students to come out with a profile of their cultural awareness related to eating habits. Students should not be graded but it could be useful, at the end of the unit, to have the students to complete the task again and find if there are changes in their perceptions and attitudes, not in terms of good and bad, but of judgments they make on other people and cultures.

5.3. During teaching unit 28

One of the techniques which are useful to use for the assessment of intercultural communicative competence is the portfolio. Portfolio helps both, students and teachers to keep records of, and reflect on, experiences that have led to students' progress. It would also help them to give an orderly structure to any pieces of evidence in supporting the levels of competence recorded, regarding the three dimensions of intercultural communicative competence taken into account in the teaching of culture, 'knowledge', 'know-how', and 'being'.

The portfolio represents a collection of students' learning journey through this unit. As students work on their portfolio, they as well as their teacher, will be able to observe progress in the use of their language, intercultural skills and attitudes. The portfolio will provide physical evidence of students' thoughts on topics covered in this unit about table manners, etiquette and polite behavior, and their reflection, projects, and personal interests. Finally, the portfolio is a great way for the teacher to assess students' improvement over this unit. Students should write about interesting things they have learned, questions or concerns that are not answered or addressed in class or in the course book, how their opinions have changed, etc.

Students can write about the following:

- What did you learn from reading about people of other cultures about table manners, etiquette and polite behavior?

- Reflect on your own country: How have you felt about people that express their table manners, etiquette and polite behavior in other ways than you? Has your attitude changed? In what ways?
- What did you find the most interesting in this unit?

5.4. At the end of the unit 28

At the end of the unit, 'knowledge' dimension can be assessed using an indirect testing procedure, 'know-how' can be assessed with a task for the students to perform using the newly learnt portion of the language, and 'being' dimension can be formatively assessed by going through the portfolio and the students' self evaluation together with the student. It is very important not to give any grades concerning the 'being' dimension, but either oral or written feedback from the teacher in order to track the student's progress and learning outcome and give suggestions for further development.

5.5. Assessing intercultural 'Knowledge / Savoirs'

'Knowledge' dimension can be assessed using Bloom's taxonomy either orally or in writing according to the different levels of complexity of the given tasks. Regarding Unit 28, the following classification represents a useful framework for assessing the cognitive domain, taking into consideration the different degrees of difficulty.

- To identify and describe explicit knowledge* (ex: Who is doing what, where, when and why)
- To regroup / to reorganize* (ex: In the following text, group into one column habits which are regarded as rude in the USA and the UK and into another column habits which are regarded rude in your country).
- To compare* (ex: Read the following short text and find three elements that

distinguish table manners, etiquette and polite behavior in your country, in the UK and the USA).

4. *To infer / implicit knowledge* (What relationship exists between the people in the text).
5. *To appreciate* (Refer to the text you've just read and answer in writing what their habits are about the theme. According to you, do you agree or disagree and explain why or why not).
6. *To make a synthesis* (Read the following text and propose an alternative to the habits explained which can be acceptable in your own country).
7. *To evaluate* (Read the text and defend the different habits present in the UK and the USA compared to your own country).

5.5.1. Interview

Context

Choose a target culture and get in touch with a native speaker (or more) that is willing to help and can answer two questions about eating habits in their culture. Try to meet the native speakers several times if possible; you can also find some information about the target culture from other books or using the internet.

Task

After you have gathered the necessary information, in writing (no more than 250 words), *identify* cultural facts that are identical or different between the two cultures; *compare* similarities and differences and give reasons that can *justify* the differences described.

5.5.2. Dating customs

Context

We know that eating habits can vary according to different customs. The statements below give information about the different eating habits in the UK and the USA.

Task

First, read the nine following statements. Then, state if these habits are the *same* or *different* in your country? If different, write a brief note to *explain the differences*.

Table 2: Eating habits – similarities and differences

Statement	Same	Different	Explain why
Helping yourself to food without asking			
Starting to eat before anyone is served			
Picking at food with your hands			
Reading at the meal table			
Leaving the table before other people have finished			
Resting your elbows at the table			
Wiping your plate clean with bread			
Not thanking the cook			
Reaching across the table in front of people			

5.5.3. Writing a text based on proverbs

Context

From the following list of proverbs, select three that can apply to your country; add one that is specific to your own culture and which is not included in the list.

- After dinner sit a while, after supper walk a mile.
- All bread is not baked in one oven.
- All sugar and honey.
- An apple a day keeps the doctor away.
- Any excuse is a good excuse to have a drink.
- Appetite comes with eating.

5.5.4. Progress test - indirect testing procedure

I. Choose the correct word.

1. If you go to the hairdressers, it is polite to leave a *gratuity/tip*.

2. The knife and fork should be laid *side to side/side by side* on the plate.
3. In Britain it *is considered/not considered* rude to eat and drink noisily.
4. If you leave knife and fork apart, it will show that you have *not yet finished eating/finished eating*.
5. In Britain, smoking is *forbidden /not forbidden* in most public places.
6. The dessert spoon and fork are usually laid *at the top/ at the side* of your place setting.
7. At formal meals, the cutlery is placed in order in which it will be used, *starting from the outside and working in/ starting from the inside and working out*.
8. In Britain, people *use/ don't use* side plates for bread.
9. It is considered *impolite/polite* to smoke between courses unless your hosts say otherwise.
10. In America, after a meal, you *are expected/not expected* to thank the person who prepared it.

II. Rearrange the sentences in the correct order to form a paragraph about tipping in restaurants in Britain.

- a. service charge to their customers'
- b. restaurant. However, many restaurants in
- c. been bad, you do not have to pay it.
- d. As a general rule, you are supposed
- e. bill. This means that you are not
- f. you are particularly pleased with
- g. Britain today automatically add 10%
- h. the service. In fact, the service charge is not
- i. expected to leave a tip on top of this unless
- j. obligatory and if you think the service has
- k. to leave 10-12% tip in a

Start like this (d) As a general rule, you are supposed (k) to leave a 10-12% tip in a

5.6. Assessing intercultural 'know-how / savoir-faire'

Regarding Unit 28, the following criteria can be used when assessing 'know-how' dimension either orally or in writing, according to the

different levels of difficulty of the tasks.

- to act in different contexts linguistically correctly but in a socially inappropriate manner.
- to act in different contexts linguistically correctly and in a socially appropriate manner.
- to use in conversations correct verbal and non-verbal behaviors.
- to interact successfully in different conversations using different strategies.
- Some of the techniques that can be used to assess the 'know-how / savoir-faire' of students are:
 - Role-plays
 - simulations
 - case studies
 - problem-solving

5.6.1. Role play

Situation1

You are invited on a trip to Britain and you have been invited to dinner with a British family. In pairs or groups, act out the conversation when you ask before the event what you are supposed to do. Ask about clothes, forms of address, times to arrive and leave, gifts to take and how to thank your hosts.

Situation 2

You are invited on a trip to America and you have been invited to dinner with an American family. In pairs or groups, act out the conversation when you ask before the event what you are supposed to do. Ask about:

- What are you supposed to do before sitting down at the dinner table?
- In which hand do Americans hold their fork?
- When do they use their knife?
- Where do they place the knife afterwards?

During the role play, the teacher's observations and notes are essential in order to decide on the students' linguistic appropriateness.

This task can also be used to assess intercultural "being" because the teacher can observe the attitudes of the learners at the same time.

5.7. Assessing intercultural 'being / savoir- être'

Regarding Unit 28, the following criteria can be used when assessing 'being' dimension, either orally or in writing, according to the different levels of difficulty of the tasks. They are based on Byram's model of intercultural communicative competence.

- To be able to describe the beliefs, attitudes and values represented in other cultures.
- To show tolerance of others and other cultures.
- To accept the beliefs and values of other cultures.
- To be unprejudiced and to be able to compare and contrast other people's beliefs and values with their own.
- To show respect for others and other cultures.
- To change their personal views.
- To demonstrate empathy together with tolerance and sympathy.
- To integrate new beliefs and values.
- To be able to justify other beliefs and values.

Teachers can use a whole array of materials like posters, illustrations or pictures representing some context that could be in conflict with values shared by people who do not come from the same culture. Teachers can conduct oral

discussions or students can write essays or present their point of view of a given ambiguous situation.

5.7.1. Picture Presentation

Context

You are given three pictures of people from different countries sitting at the table at dinner time.

Task

Look at the three pictures and compare either in writing or orally the differences and similarities shown in the pictures. Then compare in writing the similarities and differences with your own culture.

Task

Explain the differences shown in the pictures giving convincing arguments.

5.7.2. Writing

Read the text, and then write a few paragraphs in no more than 250 words, about etiquette for visitors to your country. Give helpful advice about things like table manners, hospitality, and tipping.

Student can also complete the same survey that they had completed before teaching unit 28.

5.8. A self-assessment of my Intercultural Experience

Interest in other people's way of life as a result of teaching - and - learning language - and - culture (Unit 28)

1. I am interested in other people's experience regarding etiquette and table manners particularly those things which are not usually presented through the media.

Example: _____

2. I am also interested in the daily experience of a variety of social groups within a society and not only the dominant culture regarding etiquette and table manners.

Example: _____

Ability to change perspective as a result of teaching - and - learning language - and - culture (Unit 28)

3. I have realized that I can understand other cultures by seeing things from a different point of view and by looking at my culture from their perspective regarding etiquette and table manners.

Example: _____

Knowledge about another country and culture as a result of teaching - and - learning language - and - culture (Unit 28)

4. I know some important facts about other culture and about the country, state and people regarding etiquette and table manners.

Example: _____

5. I know how to engage in conversation with people of the other culture and maintain a conversation regarding etiquette and table manners.

Example: _____

6. Conclusion

Generally, language has been defined as a tool for communication. But people can also communicate a message using eye contact, some facial expression, or body language. Although this is true, still language plays the major role in communication. On the other hand, learning and understanding a language does not include only learning the grammar, but also certain features that are characteristic of a particular culture. Language and culture co-exist, they are inseparable. If language is taught solely in terms of grammar, without teaching culture then students will not be able to act linguistically appropriate in different cultural contexts. Assessment too is of great importance.

Teachers should enter the field of teaching and assessing culture with cautiousness. This is due to the fact that culture is not easily defined or understood, and its teaching and assessment can be subjective on the part of the teacher.

The assessment of culture and its final goal intercultural communicative competence requires using different techniques according to each of the three dimensions. Teachers have a great responsibility in deciding on the types of assessment in the teaching - learning process, and providing precise information about students' progress.

Intercultural communicative competence, mostly the dimensions of 'being' and 'know-how' cannot be properly assessed using traditional assessment procedures, and grading students with a grade. In regard to this, formative assessment techniques can provide more useful information about students' progress. The assessment of these two dimensions can be very demanding, but it can be extremely rewarding as it provides feedback to students related to their cultural understanding and informs the teacher about the nature and level of cultural understanding acquired by the students.

Thus the assessment of culture should be carried out differently according to each of the

three dimensions. When assessing 'knowledge', teachers can use tests based on true/false and multiple-choice questions or matching statements. When assessing 'know-how' dimension, teachers should use techniques which include tasks such as role-plays, problem solving, case studies and simulations, where students are able to interact as if in real life situations. For 'being' dimension, teachers can rely on students' self-assessment, c-logs, reflective thinking, portfolios, and the teacher's observation.

In this context, summative assessment is less appropriate because the goal is not to sum up achievement at the end of a course with a grade.

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AUTHORS AND DOCUMENTS IN THE VLACH (AROMANIAN) language

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Abstract

This paper begins with a presentation of the most important documents written in Vlach (Aromanian) language in Voskopoja. Then we focus on the development of Greek language and education in Voskopoja, which directly contributed to laying the foundations of using Vlach language, or otherwise known as the dialect Kucovllah. Under the trail of such cultivation, our attention captures *a codex of Kastrica monastery in Ioannina*. This codex has been defined as a work written back in the XVIII century. Its content is religious, mainly constituted by ecclesiastical hymnology in Vlach and Bulgarian language. The *Dimone codex – the primary chief bases of Vlach language* will also be a significant part of our paper. Researchers debate on the codex originality and its authorship. The research paper also manifests *the efforts of Voskopoja people in Diaspora for the continuation of traditions*. Since early, as education and culture were developing in Voskopoja, a division between the citizens was highlighted: those who preferred their education in the Greek language and those who aimed education in Vlach language and promoted the cultivation of this language. Some other distinguished written works of Vlach grammarology are *the grammars of Mihail G. Bojaxhiu, Kostandin Okutns and Joan Maksimi*.

Keywords: Vlach, language, document, grammarology, Voskopoja, codex

1. The genesis of grammarology and alphabet of the Vlach language in Voskopoja

The development of the Greek language and education in Voskopoja provided a direct contribution in regard to the foundation of Vlach grammarology, or as otherwise recognized by some field scholars as the *Kucovlach dialect*.

Thus, the script of the prominent Kavalioti's dictionary provides us with the chief reasons which obliged this scholar to undertake the accomplishment of such a work. Maybe the aim of his initiative has therefore been to cultivate the Vlach dialect in order to face such challenges as for example, the translation of ecclesiastical hymnology.

In accordance to the work of the scholar

Evlogjio Kurilla “*The Grammar of Kucovlach Language in the Academy of Voskopoja*” we do therefore learn the following: Voskopoja bears the merit as for the basic laid foundations of the grammatology regarding Kucovlach dialect – a wide range of books were hereto published in this dialect (Kurilla 1930: 123). However, we do therefore learn that, because of the first steps of this language cultivation, there were also encountered difficulties regarding the alphabet in relation to the writing process of Greek words, words translated in the Kucovlach dialect and at that time it generated the natural need for establishing a more appropriate alphabet.

1.1. Data regarding the codex of Kastrica monastery in Ioannina

Under the trail of such cultivation our attention captures even a codex of Kastrica monastery in Ioannina. This codex has been defined as a work written back in the XVIII century; its content is religious, mainly constituted by ecclesiastical hymnology in Vlach and Bulgarian language. The following ecclesiastical hymns may be traced such as: “*Krishti u ngjall...*” (“Christ is raised...”) (Kristos eoueviatu di in marxhi, kumotre premorte uakalaktu, sixhelor di mir muduri viaca laudaruitu), “*Zot i Fuqive*”, (“Lord of Powers”) “*Ne që pamë Ngjalljen e Zotit*” (“We have seen the Lord’s Resurrection”) etc, they are therefore published by the remarkable Greek scholar S. Lambru in the following periodical “*Neos Ellinomnimon*” (Lambrou 1914). The Romanist researchers Hardeu and Densusiano while studying these translations scripts casted the idea of an early tradition existence of ecclesiastical grammatology of Vlach language (Rubin 1913: 126 – 127).

Meanwhile, in analyzing these translations, E. Kurilla claims that they are to be considered as the primal ventures of Vlach language cultivation. Thus, in stating so, we cannot speak of a consolidated tradition, because in accordance to him these translations are to be found mostly in Romanian language. Nevertheless, Kurilla assesses them - they are ecclesiastical translations taken from the Church book “*Libri i Orwve*” (To Orollogjion) - and deems that they have been translated in Kucovlach dialect, too, by the Academy of Voskopoja (Kourilla 1930: 130) – this is the same exact statement made by the author.

1.2. Dimone codex – the primary chief bases of Vlach language

The most valuable monument of Vlach language is the so-called Dimonie Codex, which has been discovered by G. Weigand in 1889 in Ohrid city, during his first visit in the Balkans. In accordance to the data given by the discoverer himself, we have to do with a special codex not only concerning the great lexical enrichment, but first of all regarding its accuracy in writing. As such, this codex is to be considered as the first main bases of Vlach language. A lot of researchers and scholars have therefore been engaged in the study of this codex mostly in detail. This codex was given to Weigand by the two Dimonie brothers: Janko and Mihail. Its writer, in accordance to testimonies, was a scholar and language expert. He possessed the perfect know-how of the following languages: Greek, Albanian, Turkish and Latin language. He spoke Vlach language after Voskopoja dialect, he did not know how to speak Romanian and in accordance to their claims he was the uncle of Dimonie brothers (Weigand 1895: 334, 383).

According to some scholars the codex writer had probably studied in Voskopoja and he may have been student of Danil Vllah Moskopolit. This idea is supported on certain chronologies: in accordance to available data he lived at the beginning of the XIX century. The first who published a part of this codex was Paul Dachsel (Dachsel 1894).

Therefore, there has been much on-going debate in relation to this codex. Some researchers doubt the codex originality as much its authorship is not clear. Besides, if we closely observe the style of writing, we can deduct that from page 68 onwards there is a change of style if it is to be compared to the first part of the codex – thus, it makes you think we are dealing with a mere copy of the codex.

The orthographic mistakes in Greek phrases, in accordance to some other scholars, make you think about the author of this codex: it must be neither Danil Moskopoliti nor anyone amongst his best students in Voskopoja (Kourilla 1930: 124). But the Romanian researcher Nikolla Jorga in his work “*Historia Rumune në Ballkan*” (“Romanian History in the Balkans”) deems with high probability that these translations or copying (Jorga 1909: 54), which are generally thought to be property of Danil Moskopoliti, or

by some others are thought to be property of Ambrosio Pamperi, have therefore come to light by Teodor Kavalioti or even by his student Danil. The researcher Dhimiter Roussos in his work "Helenizmi në Rumani" ("Hellenism in Romania") adds that these scripts are translations from Greek and that they do not therefore pertain to Teodor Kavalioti (Kurillës 1930: 125). Of the same opinion was even the Romanian scholar Papacostea, when highlighting the fact that the greatest part of this codex is a pure translation from Greek language.

1.3. Data relating to Dimone Codex: Opinions by various scholars

According to the scholar Evlogjio Kurilla, the content of Dimonie Codex is mainly composed of translations from the Greek language. He has therefore published his views in his work "I Moskopolis ke I Nea Akadhimia Avtis" (Voskopoja and its New Academy):

1. The word on Shrovetide Sunday.
2. Lessons on Great Lenten.
3. Lessons on charity.
4. Lessons on confession.
5. Evangelical gospel passage according to Evangelist Marco, which is read on the Day of Cross Forgiveness (dupo stomosa di krutse).
6. Lessons from the temptation of St. Anton.
7. Preaching for the Final Judgment Day, etc.

In accordance to this description, the codex does therefore include translations of panegyric speeches of Damaskino Studhitit. A lot of phrases and proverbs and even some passages of Church Patristic have therefore been left in the Greek language and below it is hereby encountered the proper translation in Vllah language. What draws our attention here is the text of the "Description of Church History" of Dharvareosit, which is written in the form of questions and answers. Regarding the construction form we get the conception of a school text. This fact makes you think that the source data by Romanian scholars as for the existence of a school of Vlach language, that was disintegrated at the first city destruction might be right. Nevertheless the novel school headed by Danil Vllahu Moskopoliti, functioning at the beginning of the XIX century, had a strict Hellenic

nature. Such a thing is reinforced in the respective poem which accompanies the first page of his multi-lingual dictionary. This poem encourages the Albanians, Vlach people and Bulgarians to learn the Greek language the sooner the better (Skënderis 1906: 58).

According to some scholars maybe we are able to find in here a kind of explanation related to the total disappearance of the books of Kavalioti and Danial Vllah's - the latter was the writer of the book "Didahis en ti patrio foni" (Studies in the paternal language) - that supposedly were written in Voskopoja in Albanian and Vlach language.

2. Efforts of Voskopoja people in Diaspora for the continuation of traditions

Since earlier, by education and culture development in Voskopoja, there was noticed a division between the citizens: those who tried their best as for the education in Greek language and those who aspired education in Vlach language and at the same time promoted the cultivation of this language. This dualism was also transmitted outside Voskopoja, by the location of Voskopoja people in quite different towns such as Pleshti or in other communities located within the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Despite that, the Voskopoja people always tried to develop as a community and to progress by preserving the customs and traditions which originated by their own country. So, the Voskopoja people constructed their own churches and were preoccupied as for the education in Greek and Vlach language in the cities of Vienna, Trieste and in various other places of Hungary. So, in accordance to data given by the Greek scholar S. Lambrou (Lambrou 1911: 279 – 280) in the periodical "Neos Elinomnimon", we learn that in 1784, 125 families of which 2/3 being considered as Macedonian- Vlachs did therefore demand to Joan Palation, who at the time was the Hungary administrator and brother of King Francesco I of Austria, to intercede as for the construction of an Orthodox Church in Budapest. The duly permission was granted in 1790, so consequently there was constructed the Church of the Dormition of Theotokos Mary. The amount of expenses for that was much considerable and it was afforded by Elinomacedonians and

Kucovlach people. Such churches, the construction of which was granted by the population (mainly by Voskopoja population) were constructed everywhere. Hence, in the cities of Buda and Vienna apart from the construction of Churches there were made efforts as for the submission of two priests who would officiate in Greek and Vlach language alternately.

2.1. Data on the grammar of Mihail G. Bojaxhi

In parallel to the development of the spiritual life, although in exile, the Voskopoja people placed a prominent importance to the further cultivation of Vlach language. Hence, Mihail G. Bojaxhi, a professor of Greek language in Bucharest with a Voskopoja origin, in 1813 publishes in Vienna the “Gramatikën Romane ose Maqedonovllahe të punuar dhe të nxjerrë në dritë nga Mihail G. Bojaxhi” (“Romanian or Macedonian- Vlach grammar released by Mihail G. Bojaxhi”). In this way, he is to become the founder of Vlach Philology. Picot entitles him “Le grand patriote et grammairien de Moskopoleni”. He was a connoisseur of all the Balkan languages and one among the first Balkanologists. He managed to elicit a classical, yet necessary, method as for the study of this language. The later together with a scientific analysis for the time accompanied even by texts in Vlach language, comprised the most mature work at the time being (Picot 1875: 22) in this language.

2.2. Data on Kostandin Okuta's activity

Another remarkable personality who contributed to the cultivation of Vlach grammarology is Kostandin Okuta. He was from Voskopoja by origin and official at the Ohrid Church. After the first Voskopoja destruction in 1769, he was placed in Posen (Poznan), a city in Poland, where he organized a school of Vlach language. He entitles it the school of high studies and heads it quite by merit. At once, Okuta became a priest of the orthodox community for the Macedonian-Vlachs (Kourilla 1930: 154). In accordance to the system of Greek schools at the time, prayers and church service troparia occupied the greatest part of the education program – they served as well for the language exercise. Okuta had the first part of the book of the Church Hours translated in Vlach language, by regarding the

proper Vlach alphabet. This was an important text for the syllabuses of alilo-didactic schools at the time.

2.3. The Grammar of Joan Maksim

The historian and ethnologist Joan K. Maksimos, is at the same time a dignified follower of Bojaxhi's work. So, in 1862 he publishes in Bucharest his work “Një Ide e Përmbledhur e Gramatikës Vllahe” (“A Summarized Idea of Vlach Grammar”). The publishing language was Vlach and popular Greek.

Thus, the Hellenic culture and civilization in Voskopoja territory placed a very important role even for the development and propensity of other languages and thereby cultures.

3. Impact of Voskopoja phenomenon in the Albanian and Vlach grammarology

But the Voskopoja phenomenon has its own importance even in promoting the Albanian language through the dictionaries of Kavalioti and Danil Moskopoliti. It drew close attention of the European linguists, mainly Hellenic ones. Those did therefore show a great interest as for the enrichment and values contained in its principle (Tushi 2010). Marveled by this fact they did study it by complementing it – so, they were converted from Hellenists to Albanologists by resolving a great deal of issues relating to the positioning, origination and contiguity of Albanian language to the other Indo-European languages.

As a conclusion, we may say that in its entirety the Voskopoja phenomenon has great and uncontested values, but its vast contribution, according to our opinion, relies on the fact that it has helped on the establishment of the foundation basis of Vlach and Albanian grammarology.

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CAN LIVED EXPERIENCE CONSTITUTE A RELIABLE SOURCE OF HISTORY?

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Abstract

Historians have at times expressed doubts concerning the credibility of memory itself, the psychology of the relationship between the interviewer and the narrator during the interview, and generally the relationship between memory and history. There is a complex relationship between narration, time and memory. Narration is a lived experience of the past while, at the same time, it provides ways so that people can perceive the present. Oral history has also been described as “the interview of witnesses who participated in the events of the past, with the aim of reconstructing the past”. For many and various reasons, historiography has suppressed or forgotten or neglected or deliberately avoided historical facts which can be retrieved through oral history. The research of oral history does not aim at collecting information about certain events but rather looks for the subjective experience of the event that took place. It is not only interested in what happened, but also in how narrators experienced it. Historians are reserved towards oral accounts as the narration itself is a product of memory. The historian, as a subject of the historical speech, respects the objective existence of historical events.

Keywords: *Memory, history, narration, oral history*

1. Introduction

Memories are living history. According to an African saying, “Each elderly person dying is one library getting burnt”. As researchers converse with their sources, they transform the practice of history in many ways. Apart from recalling memories of the past, a narrator also shares his personal perception of the past. However, historians have at times expressed doubts concerning the credibility of this source of history. They are concerned about the credibility of memory itself, the psychology of the relationship between the interviewer and the narrator during the interview, and generally the relationship between memory and history, the present and the past (Perks & Thomson 2006: 8-11).

In many countries of Europe, such as Greece, oral history started becoming accepted in the framework of historiography during the last

decade. Namely, it became accepted as a credible source of history and as a new conception of history through lived experience of everyday people (Thomson 2008: 23). There is a complex relationship between narration, time and memory because we reconsider and produce the part we have remembered in order to get square with our identity in the present. Narration is a lived experience of the past while, at the same time, it provides ways so that people can perceive the present (Riessman 2008: 23).

Researchers of oral history examine events of the past that vary from an extended issue to a more specific one. A researcher requires the possibility and ability to reconstruct the history of the past, as he connects the pieces from the stories of people that have taken part in a discussion. From the interviewers of oral history, some focus on eminent people, while others are interested in everyday people and their experiences. Life stories are very similar to oral history. However, the difference between them is distinct: in life narrations, people are asked to account the various phases of their lives, while in oral history, interest is focused on the participation in and experience of a particular historical moment (Rubin & Rubin 2005: 7-8).

2. The historical value of narrations

Although lived situations took place in the past, they arrive to the present as a narration, viewed through a context consisting of later changes which affected values and behaviour patterns. As the subject has later acquired new experiences and perceptions and has been affected by them in the meantime separating the historical event from the narration, historian reconstructs the past through a new context (Thomson 2008: 168). At the level of lived history, a historical concurrence may affect the reminiscence of events while it is even possible that the initial feeling is later transformed into its opposite: boredom or cowardice into heroism, pride into shame, self-confidence into guilt. Life narrations that are recorded sometimes enhance an official myth, while other times they vitiate it, they sometimes make painful confessions, while other times they are entrenched in silence (Van Boeschoten 2002: 135-155).

Considering that the narrator knows the story he accounts and this story is real, we should consider the narrator both as an expert and as an

authority on his personal life (Atkinson 1998: 59). However, it is true that in the narration of life stories, disbelief is also implied, because everyone has their own explanation for the events and each one of them has its own value (Clandinin & Connelly 2000: 85). The historical truth is not the purpose in the narration. A narration of a story also involves a specific, and maybe unique, view of the events of history. Two people saying the same story express it in a different way. What we are looking for in the life stories is actually the subjective truth (Atkinson 1998: 60). Oral narrations, however unreal they may seem, are the subjective truth of the narrator, and this truth is part of the historical reality of the period. However, when a personal narration concerns events which happened decades ago, it is hard for the researcher to distinguish what really happened, what the subject of the narration wants to remember or even what the subject would wish to have happened. Although an oral narration involves subjectivity, this does not make it inferior compared with written narration, as it is also subject to subjective opinions and references (Van Boeschoten 2002: 136).

In oral narrations, as they take the form of life narrations, the personal life of the narrator is also the vehicle of the historical experience. Of course, a single life narration presents not only the life of one person, but also integrates experiences of other people (Thomson 2008: 326).

In life narrations, the narrator represents an image of himself through the narrations and reference of specific events of his life. This image of himself is a combination of old experiences and those later lived, of the old explanatory framework and the new one. The self-representation through personal narrations creates a complex image which, according to the narrated events, changes. The personal choices of the narrator or his personal responsibility towards the events he narrates often turn him into a hero or on the contrary, a victim. In other cases, the narrator presents himself as an involuntary viewer who was involved in the tumult of the period's events against his will. However, while in the case of a hero, the subject has freedom of decisions and action, and in the case of a victim, the subject has no choice, in the case of an involuntary viewer, the subject is affected both by external factors, and by the social group to which he belongs (Boeschoten 2002: 143).

2.1. Narrative analysis

In contrast to other quality frameworks, narrative research does not offer automatic start and end points. Since the definition of the term “narration” is still discussed, there are no self-evident categories on which someone can be based, as there are in the thematic approaches based on a text or the analysis of particular elements of the language. Moreover, in contrast to other perspectives of quality research, narrative analysis does not offer general rules regarding the appropriate materials or models of research, or the best level at which someone can study the stories. We do not know if we must look for stories in everyday speech, in interviews, diaries or newspaper articles. We do not know if someone must analyse the stories as individual or integrated in a general context, or what scientific value one must give narrations (Squire et al. 2009: 1).

Oral history may be presented with the form of re-composition. Oral accounts offer the raw materials to support a hypothesis regarding events of the past, as the accounts themselves are subject to comparative analysis. Moreover, oral accounts may be used for quantity calculations (Thomson 2008: 327-328). During the comparative analysis, a comparison between the facts arising among interviews is made, and these are then compared to evidence from other sources. In case the oral evidence does not agree with the written one, this does not mean that the one source is more credible than the other, or on the contrary, less credible. An interview may discover the truth that may hide behind an official document. Many accounts that source from personal experience provide facts of unique value, because there is no other way one can collect this information (Thomson 2008: 330). Social scientists in narrative research have suggested that narrations should be considered as an organisation of a sequence of events within a whole, so that the importance of each event can be understood through the relationship of this event with the whole. The triangle sequence-importance-representation creates a framework within which narrative research has been placed (Tampoukou 2008:284).

Although oral accounts are a source of history, if one takes account of the fact that interviews refer to older times, one understands that the speech of narrators may involve a falsification of events. Although lived situations happened in the past, they arrive to the present as a narration,

viewed through a context consisting of later changes which affected values and behaviour patterns. The past is reconstructed through modern narrations, affected by the experiences and conceptions the subject acquired in the meantime separating the historical event from the narration (Thomson 2008: 168).

2.2. The credibility and validity issue

Regarding research focusing on narrations of people, the issue of credibility and validity arises. While credibility is generally defined as stability of the findings of research, validity refers to the ability of a research to depict an external reality. Moreover, there is a difference between internal and external validity: internal validity refers to the ability to produce results which are not just a product of the research planning, and external validity is the index of the extent to which the findings of research relating to a particular sample can be generalised so that they can be applied to a wider population (Elliott 2009: 22). Regarding, oral accounts, credibility can be checked with the following ways: firstly, by checking the internal cohesion of speech, secondly, by detecting the frequency of suppression and avoidance of answering the questions of the researcher, and thirdly, by comparing the information with other sources (Thomson 2008: 329-330). However, the research of oral history does not aim at collecting information about certain events, namely at discovering the historical “truth”. The researcher looks for the subjective experience of the event. He is not interested in what happened, but in how narrators experienced it. Historians are reserved towards oral accounts as the narration itself is a product of memory. However, in humanities, description is not made in such a way that the object is separated from the subject, as in science. In humanities, “subjective” facts are integrated in “objective” ones, within the framework of a narration, without this meaning that the difference between false and true description is covered (Kiriakidou-Nestoros 1987: 177-188).

In oral history research, there has often been an identification of the concept of subjectivity with the concept of identity. As a historical concept, identity is defined as the depiction of values and behaviours which are fixed at a certain moment. However, this approach of the concept of identity does not take into account that each identity is not firmly detected in a single empirical fact, but on the contrary, moves from the one

content to the other (Passerini 1998: 32). Considering that oral sources have a subjective aspect, they cannot lead to reconstruction of the past, but they connect the past with the present in a relationship with a symbolic meaning (Passerini 1998: 101). Initially, subjectivity was considered as the transition from externality to internality. However, this transition is not from the object to the subject, but a transition from a situation where subjectivity and objectivity are clearly separated to a new one where boundaries are unstable. In this situation, even subjectivity can become a source of scientific procedures (Passerini 1998: 37). Although the historical source which arrives to the research with the mediation of the human perception is subjective, it allows us to converse with this subjectivity. However, it is doubtful if a narrative interview can be completely subjective in the end. All necessary information the interviewer gives at the beginning of the interview (aim, social framework, use of interview) create expectations which affect what narrators shall say (Thomson 2008: 280).

During the procedure of collection of oral accounts, a series of relationships is created between the researcher and the subject, as two different worlds meet, the researcher's world and the narrator's world. This meeting creates obstacles itself, as inequalities sourcing from educational or other qualifications impinge on it. In detail, the researcher acts from a power position, as he specifies the main directions of the conversation, and also directs its progress. However, in a society, there are various exclusion procedures, most obvious of which is prohibition. In an organised and structured society, where there is a pattern of values, attitudes, moral constraints and taboos, it is known that we cannot talk about everything; we have no right to tell everything. In other words, there are prohibitions in speech relating to and imposed by the authority. Thus, under this pattern, the narrator also exercises a form of power. The rescue of accounts initially goes through the pre-choice of the subjects themselves regarding to what they shall say, and the subjects talk only if they want to or deem it necessary, avoid pressures by the researcher and lastly often try to impress (Petronoti 2002: 73-77).

Oral history has also been described as "the interview of witnesses who participated in the events of the past, with the aim of reconstructing the past". Oral history supplements historical facts,

and also often creates new that did not exist until then. For many and various reasons, historiography has suppressed or forgotten or neglected or deliberately avoided historical facts which can be retrieved through oral history. As oral history gives the right of expression to groups considered as excluded from historical reality due to economic, political or social reasons, it may also be considered as a power of democratisation (Del Giudice 2009: 6).

Moreover, the historiographical speech is dominated by objectivity, since, if the historical events and their objective effects feeding the historiographical speech did not exist, it itself would not exist. The historian, as a subject of the historical speech, respects the objective existence of historical events. However, this does not mean that the historiographical speech is not subjective, also taking into account that the subject of the historical speech, as the subject of any speech, is characterised by an ideology (Doksiadis 2008: 172).

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CHILDREN FROM FLORINA, BITOLA, KORCE ARE PAINTING THE BORDERS

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Abstract

Research around sketching expression peaked between 1970 and 1980 and to this day still concerns many researchers. The focus now has shifted to exploring children's sketching capacity itself, but also to its relation with the ability of visualization. The images produced by children represent ideas in a synthetic manner and despite the fact that it is codified; it is not imposed on the receiver directly, but organizes messages in a polysemic way. The historical approach understands boundaries and exclusions as part of the material practices, the ideologies and the narrations through which social groups are created and identities are constructed, focusing on the context in which the concepts society and space coexist. In our research we asked pupils at the age of 11-12 to draw the concept of boundary/border. The sample has been collected from three city elementary schools City of Florina, Korçë, and Bitola. The semiotic qualitative analysis was used in order to approach our sample. Our results show that although there are differences in cultural perceptions in a cross-border environment, these differences do not constitute significant obstacles to cross-border cooperation.

Keywords: *borders, boundaries, cultural perceptions, children, identity*

"The boundaries and borders are cultural creations that lend themselves too many different interpretations"
(Eva, 1999: 34)

1. Introduction

Research around sketching expression peaked between 1970 and 1980 and to this day still concerns many researchers (Davis 1985: 202-213; Van Sommers 1984). The focus now has shifted to exploring children's sketching capacity itself, but also to its relation with the ability of visualization. Despite the strong disagreements regarding the relations between visualization and their sketching depiction (Laszlo & Broderick 1985: 356-370; Olson & Bialystok 1983), new data show that children's paintings largely depict internal representations (Loizou 1995).

In symbolism theory, it is argued that in children's drawings the confusion between

symbols and reality emerges and for that reason, drawings are short and succinct as dreams are (Freud 1994). The image produced by children represents ideas in a synthetic manner and despite the fact that it is codified; it is not imposed on the receiver directly, but organizes messages in a polysemic way (Barthes 1983).

2. On borders and boundaries

The discussion on borders was intense from the 80's onwards by different disciplines taking multiple significations (Newman 2002: 123-37; Newman & Passi 1998: 186-207). The concepts of limit, border, edge, line, border line, verge, boundary, moat, gap, proximity, etc., perceived as modifications of the line in topological thought (Reichert 1992: 87-98), were studied by geographers, political scientists, sociologists, anthropologists, historians and law experts, regarding the practical aspects of formulating, demarking and managing borders (Berg & Van Houtum 2004; Eskelinen Liikanene & Oksa 1999; Ganster & Lorey 2005; Ganster, Sweedler, Scott & Dieter – Eberwein 1997; Kaplan & Hakli 2001; Nicol & Townsend - Gault 2005; Pavlakovich - Kochi, Morehouse & Wastl - Walter 2004; Van Houtum, Kramsch & Zierhoffer 2005).

Traditionally, static geography is the scientific discipline, which defines continents' borders, climate zones, forests and soils. Borders defining our lives are summarized in borders indicating geographical order or class, the shape and structure of spaces. These are borders of building blocks, boundaries of regions, towns, villages, etc. The administrative boundaries of regions are a key point of urban planning, with regard to the needs of the local community and urban functions. Another category of boundaries is that defined by the residents' spatial interactions. Finally, there are linguistic, national, religious borders.

In the 90's, Social sciences and Cultural studies had focused their interest on the concept of *boundary*. Political geographers developed new, sociocultural, approaches in order to reproduce social structure. The rendition of concepts, like *soil*, *boundary*, *diversity*, *identity* etc. in social practice and everyday discourse, prompted scholars to depict sensitively the relations between *social* and *special* boundary.

The historical approach understands boundaries and exclusions as part of the *material*

practices, the ideologies and the narrations through which social groups are created and identities are constructed, focusing on the context in which the concepts society and space coexist.

If we accept that borders are directly related to state characteristics and since they divide territorial entities, we can claim that borders:

- are not eternal nor fixed, but extremely mutable and constructed, with regard to the political, social and cultural contexts in specific historic sites
- are a mental invention for the splitting between "We" and "They" and the exclusion and internment of social groups and populations
- constitute products of interaction and negotiation between different groups trying to use the border to develop relationships of power and hierarchy.

In this context, the boundaries are defined as political, social and cultural "constructions", which create the corresponding differences. We often consider borders as ontologically trivial since it's all about lines on the ground that can be easily engraved or erased. But this is a misplaced perception, since the border is not just a line, but is an element that expresses the difference and differentiation of space by drawing lines on the ground or on the map (Van Houtum, & Strüver 2002: 20-23). Borders cause spatial dynamic in the context of each country, affecting the form and the level of cross-border interaction between countries (Gottmann 1980; Rokkan & Urwin 1983; Crush 1980: 343-350; Hansen 1977: 2-8; Hansen 1983: 255-270; Dimitrov, Petrakos, Totev, & Tsiara 2002: 5-25).

Some of the borders of the past, like the Berlin wall, no longer exist. But "the wall" still exists today on social contracts and in representations of the past. Perhaps, after all, it is not the borders that prevent, but the reality of the borders as an expression of diversity representing the "stone" wall of power, disappointing people on both sides. Berlin's experience makes clear the fact that the endorsement of boundaries is more important than their inscription in a map (Kyridis, Vamvakidou, Zagkos 2011).

3. Research Data

In our research, we chose children's drawings, since the production of signs by kids offers a premium model of thinking for sign creation (Kress & Van Leeuwen 2010: 56). We asked pupils at the age of 11-12 to draw the concept of *boundary/border*. The survey took place during the school year 2011-2012. The sample has been collected from three city elementary schools: the 3rd Elementary School of Florina, the 5th Elementary School of Florina and the 6th Elementary School of Florina (Greece), the Korça Schools "Homer" and the T.T. Koco Music School

in Korça (Albania) as well as the KOJE KAHUHCKU which is in Bitola city (F.Y.R.O.M). Children's graphic representations are structural totalities and can be integrated in both the social framework of cities that are close to the border as well as in the three cities cultural field: City of Florina, Korçë, and Bitola.

3.1. Qualitative analysis

3.1.1. Forms-shape-size

Table 1: Distribution of the volume of forms in drawings by country

Number of forms	N (%)			
	Greece	FYROM	Albania	Total
One form	15 (15,6%)	11 (11,5%)	14 (14,6%)	40 (41,7%)
Two forms	9 (9,4%)	12 (12,5%)	14 (14,6%)	35 (36,5%)
Three forms	3 (3,1%)		2 (2,1%)	5 (5,2%)
Four forms	2 (2,1%)	1 (1%)	7 (7,3%)	14 (10,4%)
Five forms & above	4 (4,1%)		2 (2,1%)	6 (6,2%)
Total	33 (33,4%)	24 (25%)	39 (40,6%)	96 (100%)

In a total of 96 drawings, 40 (41,7%) contained one form, 35 (36,5%) two forms, 5 (5,2%) tree forms, 14 (10,4%) four forms and in 6 (6,2%) drawings we found more than five forms. 33 (33,4%) of the drawings belong to Greek Schools' pupils, 39 (40,6%) to Albanian pupils

and 24 (25%) belonged to pupils from FYROM (table 1).

3.1.2. Symbols

Table 2: Distribution of the type of symbol to drawings by country

Type of symbol	Greece	FYROM	Albania	Total
Flag	8 (14,8%)	10 (18,5%)	33 (61,1%)	51 (94,4%)
Crucifix	2 (3,7%)			2 (3,7%)
Saint Sophia	1 (1,9%)			1 (1,9%)
Total	11 (20,4%)	10 (18,5%)	33 (61,1%)	54 (100%)

2 (3, 7%) Greek pupils had drawn the symbol of the crucifix and also included the symbol of St. Sophia. In 54 drawings, pupils chose to draw the flag: 8 (14, 8%) coming from Greece, 10 (18, 5%) from FYROM and 33 (61, 1%) from Albania (table 2).

The flag, as the dominant symbol of a state, signifies national identity (Golia 2011) and at the

same time functions on a consensus basis, incorporating the competition and possibly the conflicting systems in a single social structure. In the context of a particular social group the symbols are part of the hegemonic group and require a way of reading, a cultural capital (Gagliardi 1996: 568). Symbols as signs, which refer to an object, are interpreted with reference

to this object. In a sign system, the symbolism reflects only one form of relationship between the signifiers and their signifieds (Gagliardi 1996: 568).

3.1.3. Position and shape of the image-space

The usage of space as internal/external, natural/urban in children's synthesis, leads us in analyzing the drawings on the basis of "center and margin" and the horizontal and vertical structure of the image (Gagliardi, 1996: 568).

Table 3: Distribution of drawings' shapes by gender

Shape of the Image	N (%)		
	Boy	Girl	Total
Horizontal	141 (47%)	141 (47%)	282 (94%)
Vertical	8 (2,7%)	10 (3,3%)	18 (6 %)
Total	149 (49,7%)	151 (50,3%)	300 (100%)

Regarding the shape of the painting, we note that in a total of 300 drawings, 282 (94%) have horizontal shape, while 18 (6%) are drawn vertically (table 3).

The informative value of the horizontal axis (left-right), where it appears that there is a sense of complementarity or continuous motion from left to right, a vector is formed leading the viewer's gaze to the message. Usually on the right side there is the basic information that the reader has particularly to watch, that is the side

of the "message" (Kress & Van Leeuwen 2010: 283-286).

An indicative example is image 1 from a Greek girl, who tries to depict in a mirroring manner the transition from Greece to Albania. Even though she repeats symbols (flags), buildings (Customs/Police), procedures (showing id or passport), using different colors for the two countries, the complementarity of sketches and the "ending", i.e. accessing Albania, which is depicted on the right side of the drawing, is obvious. The reason why Albania, positioned on the right, is the message of girl attending a Greek school could probably be interpreted on the basis of her different cultural origin (she is of Albania origin) or through the multicultural environment of today's classrooms.

Such considerations did not arise from image 2, derived from FYROM. The conceptual, i.e. the girl's home, is positioned on the right and is the natural terminal point of cars' course.

In contrast, the Albanian students depict on the right (images 3 & 4) signs/symbols related to the guarding of borders (police, guards, wall), recording their experiences from crossing the border line between Greece and Albania.

Image 1: Greece (girl)

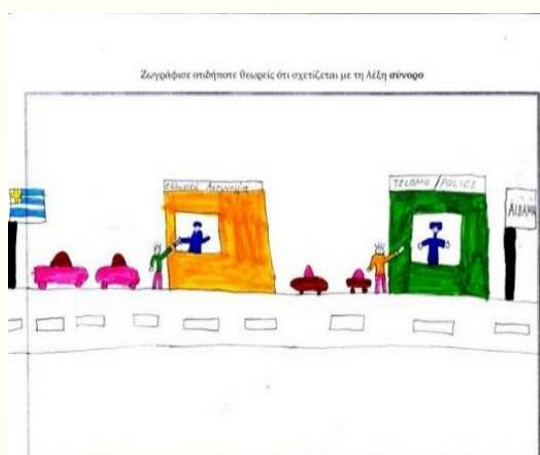


Image 2: FYROM. (girl)



Image 3: Albania (boy)**Image 4: Albania (boy)**

As far as the informative value of the vertical axis (up and down) we note that there is less of a constant movement between the two parts of the composition in relation to the horizontal oriented compositions. The real contradicts that in that it presents more specific information such as directions to action (Kress & Van Leeuwen 2010: 291-293). Thus, in image 5, the conceptual is the sun and the mountains, mutual elements of bordering countries. The reality is depicted through the intense policing on the lower part of the image and the bars that we come across in borders. In the middle of his drawing the pupil leaves his imagination free and by transferring cinematic images creates a ladder which leads to a police airplane and it is used by unknown (to us) people, expressing probably the way in which he would prefer the borders to be policed. The same logic of the vertical axis is depicted in

image 6. In the upper part of the painting there is a neutral portrayal of neighboring countries to Albania. On the down side, though, the reality is depicted through the portrayal of a border line that does not refer to legitimate crossing points, despite the existence of the buffer bar. This impression is accentuated not only by the presence of forms/shapes that is not consistent with the established type of officer that one encounters in customs, but also the orientation of the parked car does not resembles legal border crossing procedures, but maybe the pending illegal immigrants' transfer.

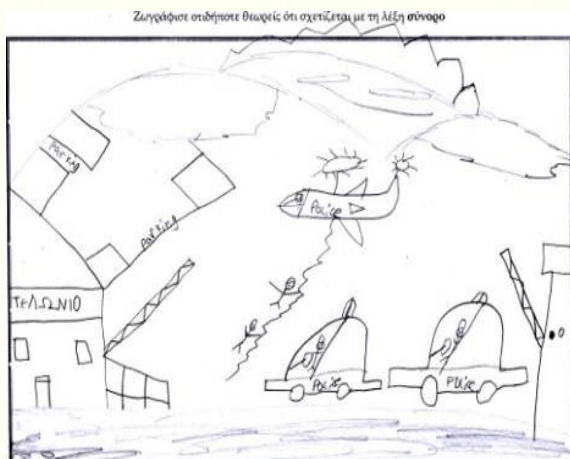
Image 5: Greece (boy)**Image 6: Albania (boy)**

Image 7: Greece (boy)**Image 8: Greece (boy)**

Remaining on the vertical axis, we could consider that in images 7 and 8 the real is Greece, while the conceptual for students is the destination, FYROM and Turkey, respectively.

regard to the representation of the borders as a fence/barrier, students select recurring monochrome motifs, mentioning latticework (image 9) or fences which are typically used to separate fields (images 10 & 11).

3.1.4. Color

Table 4: Distribution of painting by color and gender

Color	N (%)		
	Boy	Girl	Total
Black And White	112 (37,3%)	110 (36,7%)	222 (74%)
Colored	37 (12,3%)	41 (13,6%)	77 (26%)
Total	149 (49,7%)	151 (50,3%)	300 (100%)

The signifier/color that dominates the drawings is black (table 4). In particular, with

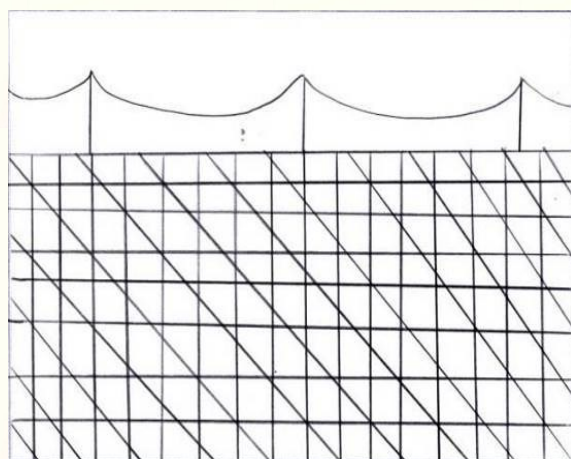
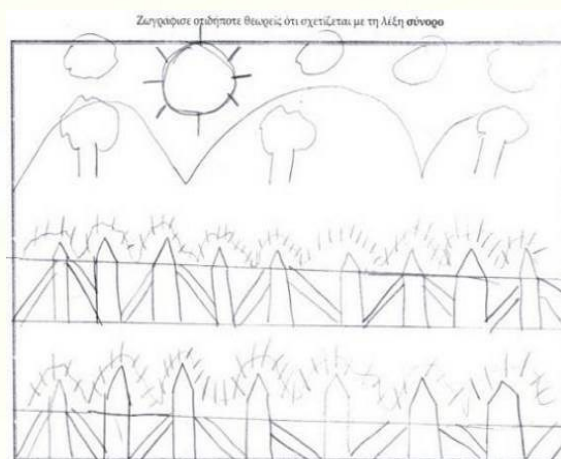
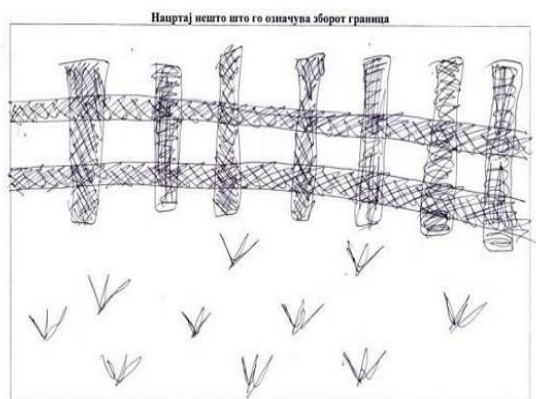
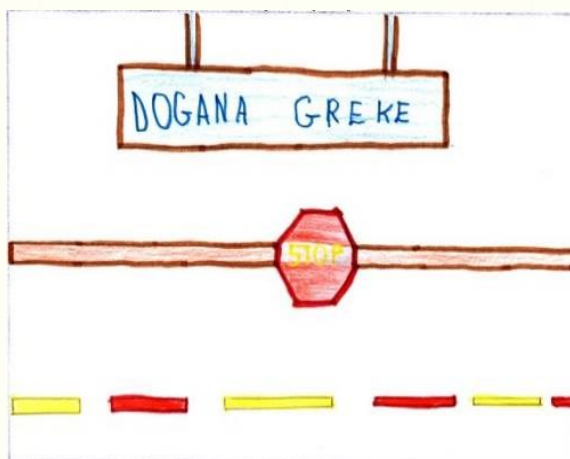
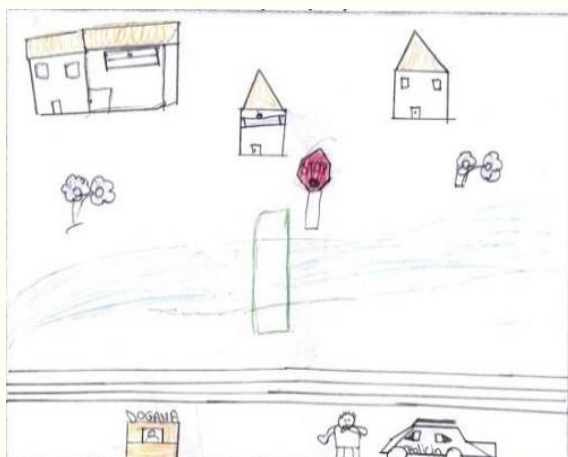
Image 9: Greece (girl)**Image 1: Greece (boy)**

Image 11: Drawing 107, FYROM (girl)

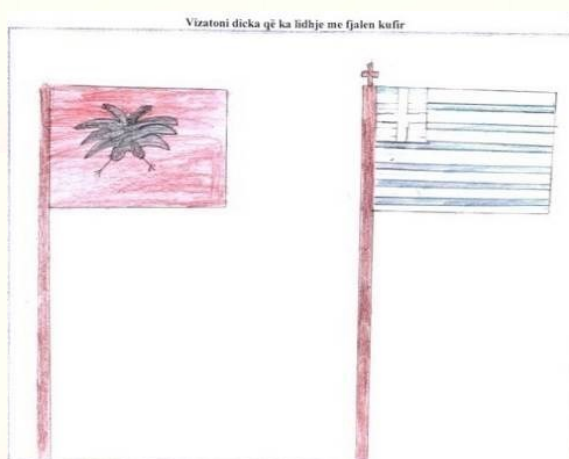
The colorful designs are dominated by the colors blue, yellow and red (images 12 & 13).

Image 12: Albania (boy)**Image 13: Albania (girl)**

The color is an element that attracts kids. According to surveys, the choice of colors reflects the emotional state and is considered as a dynamic element (Sivropoulou, 2003). On the emotional level, color works on psychological links and causing moods and emotions. The calmness that conveys image 14, with pastel shades and soft tonality, and which is not broken by the choice of the red STOP prohibitive, stands in stark contrast with the black in picture 15. In this case, the color black is dominant and is in the national colors of Greece and Albania, which is depicted on the flags of the two countries. The thin bar with red and yellow, as a continuation of the barbed wire, emphasizes the dominance of black, rather than soften the effect.

Image 14: Albania (girl)**Image 15: Albania (boy)**

According to Kress and Van Leeuwen color has always been used as a semiotic resource. For example, in image 16, the colors of flags denote States, which use specific colors to indicate their uniqueness. In this context, students choose the flag as a symbol to indicate their identity. Of course, the colors of the flags suggest States even when they are not formatted in flags (image 17). On the other hand, national symbols such as the flag, even with the absence of color are able to produce stereotypical perceptions of the Other. For example, in image 18 from FYROM, the cross on the Greek flag replaced by the swastika, explicitly refers to the perception that the pupil has shaped for Greece and its policy on FYROM and its name.

Image 16: Albania (girl)**Image 17: Albania (girl)****Image 18: FYROM (boy)**

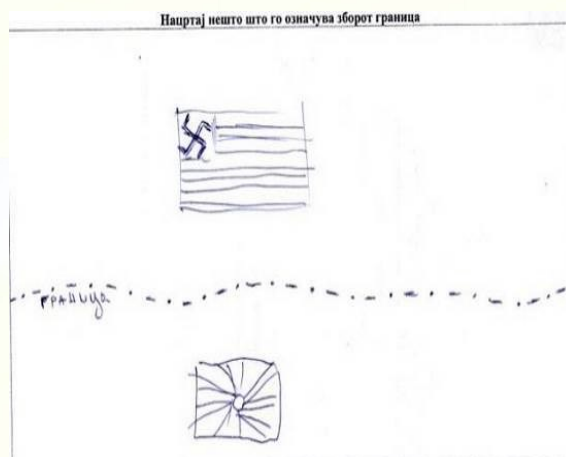
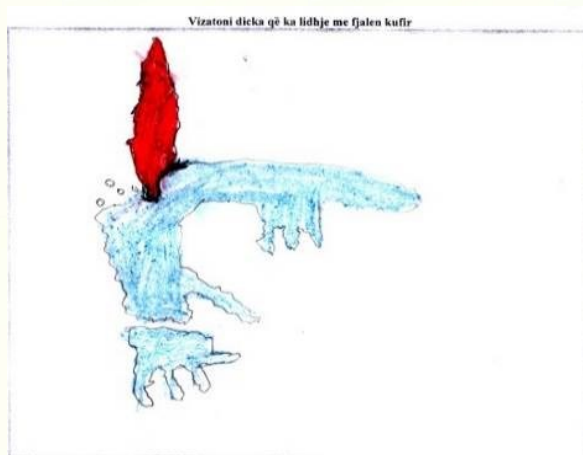


Image 19 forms a vector from the left that leads the viewer's gaze on the right side, into limbo. The important elements in this drawing are color/symbols, with the obvious thematic connections, as used at the same time as another mechanism of integration at the level of design and as a mechanism of separation in terms of color choice. This time, the national colors are rendered in the territories of the two countries.

Image 19: Albania (boy)



Our sample includes also maps, where the color indicates the water, the mountains or the borders. The maps as technical images usually encode an objective attitude and give a sense of reality. In image 20, the schoolgirl streamlining the color palette renders with clear colors, not only the regional variations but also the blue sky, the Orange Sun, the green mountains, the Brown fields, the Black street with the white striping, the grey arch. In images 21 & 22, students choose, copying the map legend, to define the border with pink and blue color. In image 23, the

student not only leverages cartographic symbols for cities and borders, but also attaches to the bottom right corner a map legend, in order to help the viewer understand the map. The other version is image 24, where the formatted map does not render the actual shape of the country and the meaning of borders becomes comprehensible through the naming of the shapes and the use of a symbol that is not mentioned and probably refers to the existence of customs between Greece and Albania.

Image 20: Greece (girl)



Image 21: Greece (boy)

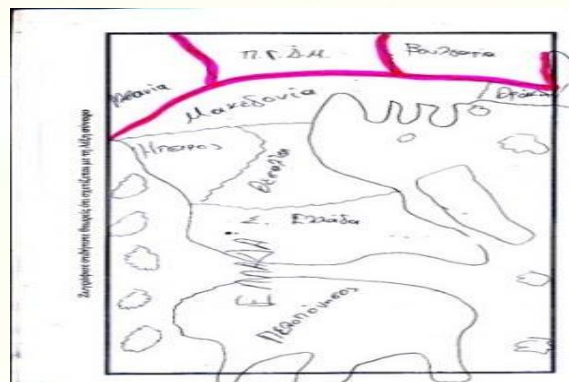


Image 22: Albania (boy)

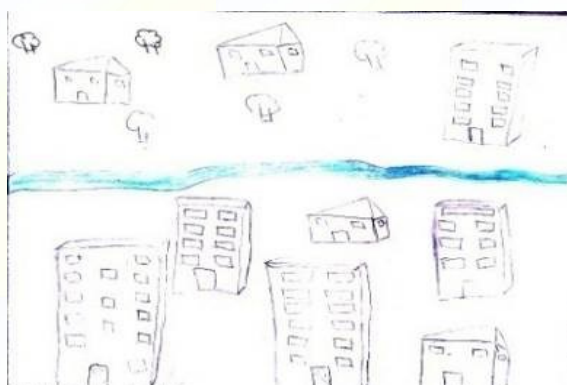


Image 23: Greece (boy)

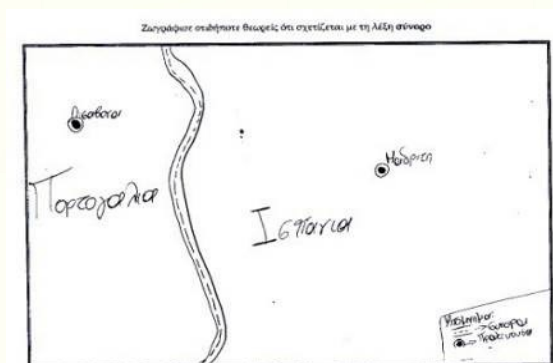


Image 24: Greece (boy)

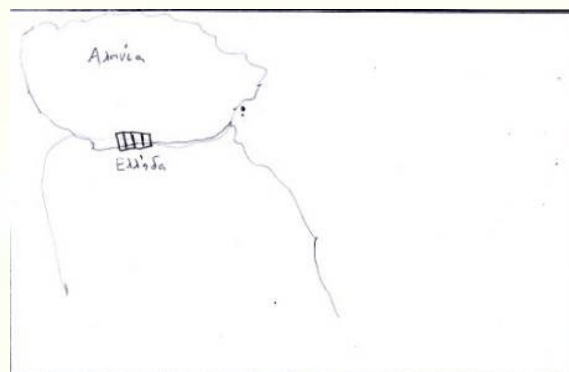


Image 25: Greece (girl)

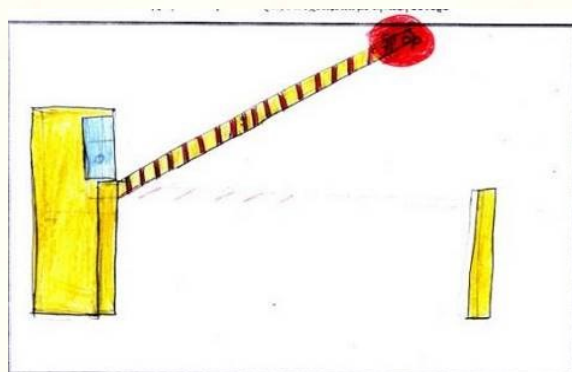


Image 26: Albania (girl)

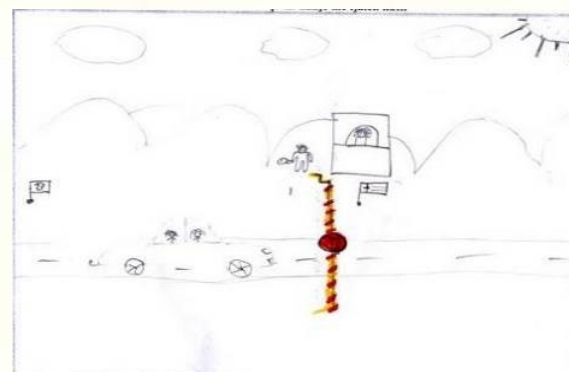
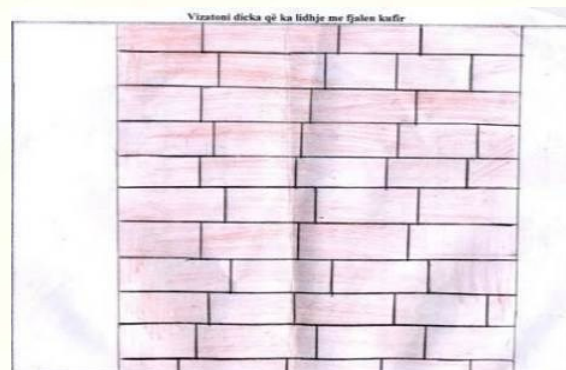
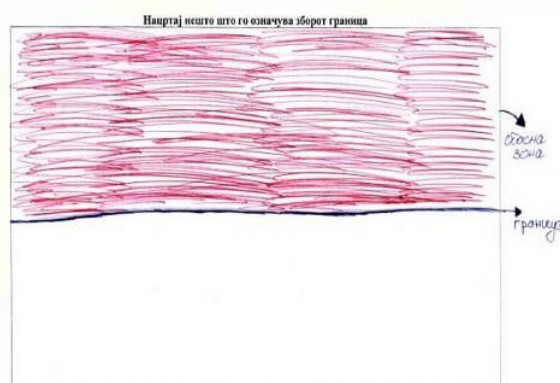


Image 27: Albania (boy)**Image 28: Albania (girl)****Image 29: FYROM (girl)**

Some shapes with orange or red used to impress or intimidate, to warn about risks (images 25, 26, 27, 28, & 29)

4. Final remarks

In the drawings gathered we can find all three semiotic fields: syntax, semantics and pragmatics. The actions or events that are represented on the drawings are organized in chronological sequence, reflecting aspects of life as experienced by people of the borders.

The compositions are described consisting of many people and in most of the forms are fixed to the ground, dynamic without gaps. The majority of forms are in motion. Emphasis is on action and in scripted performance by the children in their drawings. The two-dimensional in children's painting, the buildings, the basis for objects, the delineation of the Earth from the sky, are declared as a way of copying the human condition. The blank space below or above the object-sign, the lack of basis is the limited mental scope of school writing.

Regarding the shapes, most children use

graphical code for human shapes and schematic structures for rendering the concept of borders and elements of geometry-square and rectangular-only to define the shapes.

The color that dominates the rendition of the Greek element morph is the blue shade of the national blue. The red marks both the Turkish and Albanian territory and obviously the choice is linked to the color of their respective national symbols.

The themes that are preferred are mostly people (32%) of which a dominant position is occupied by Customs' employees (20%), followed by the police officers-guards (9%) and the car drivers (3%), who are crossing the border. Relatively large is the percentage which refers to various signs-indexes (26.7%) (STOP, OFFICE, DOGANA, etc.), which shows the influence of the border town in the way children perceive and represent their social environment, where the border is a term used in their daily lives. Nature, weapons and warplanes are used by children as objects of connotation.

The results of our research broadly refer to a rather favorable cross-border environment,

which does not mean that there are no differences in cultural perceptions and in the discernible spatial dimension. Nevertheless we observe that these differences do not constitute significant obstacles to cross-border cooperation.

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CULTURE AND CULTURAL POLICY IN THE FUNCTION OF ENABLING THE YOUNG GENERATIONS FOR A MORE SUCCESSFUL CROSS- BORDER COOPERATION

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Abstract

Living in time of fast paced changes, who evidently lead to general globalization and integration in wider world frameworks, as people that are interested for the future, we cannot allow for our region to be left out of these processes. In that sense, all of the intellectual potential from these territories should be put into function of research for the factors that will make that integration more palpable. The intention of this paper is to emphasize the role of the culture and cultural policy in enabling the young generations from the greater border-line municipalities of this region in which the most significant are Bitola, Florina and Corcha, for their more successful collaboration and integration in the modern European frameworks.

Keywords: *culture, culture policy, cross-border cooperation*

1. Introduction

At a time of such rapid strides of change, such as today's, the younger generation of border municipalities Bitola, Lerin and Korca, impose as an important imperative the need for cooperation as a basic condition for their development and prosperity within their own countries and beyond in Europe and worldwide. A significant part of the before mentioned changes are caused by the globalization process which assumes the process of taking a series of activities of supra-national level that change the relations and somehow produce diminishing physical world. As it is known, the five dimensions of globalization are: society, politics, economy, culture and environment. While all of these segments are connected and interdependent, our intention in this paper is to preserve the culture and cultural policy as a basis for preparing the young generation for improving cross-border cooperation as an initial stage in the process of globalization in the region.

Our deep conviction is that culture with its elements and cultural policies of neighboring countries in the region will contribute to the desired successful globalization which involves leaving the series stereotypes in terms of the old ways of thinking, ideological dogmas coming from territorial restrictions, national specificities and closed within the specified limits. That way the younger generation belonging to these

territorial areas will be able to become an active player in building a global policy, not only within their own countries, but also in how the regional and international level.

Knowing the situation in the region, we are aware that the process of globalization will have its detractors. All those destructive forces (in all three areas mentioned border) who consider linking population of these areas will jeopardize their interests, positions or ideals, will try to stop or at least slow down these processes. However we are optimistic because the world is obvious that the process of globalization is unstoppable and we have witnessed that those countries that oppose such processes remain on the sidelines, or isolated in their closed borders far from positive global trends.

2. Notion determination of key terms

Culture

Culture is a term that is often found in everyday language and in the various disciplines of social sciences. As far as is more common, broader and more widespread use of a term seems to be difficult to find a single meaning or a single paragraph in its definition by most theorists. Such is the case with the term culture, because in practice it is synonymous for many different phenomena in society.

Leaving the realm of nature, man is detained with him much needed and useful habits, tasks and instincts and even more away from its wild and primitive condition, the more inherent in the acquired replacement. At the core of what is gained of what culture includes, it is often found that its conclusion colossal rise owes humanity and of culture. The definition of culture is indeed a very difficult thing. Probably that is due to its multi meaning feature since its introduction as a term. Even Herder himself, in the preface of "Think of Philosophy of History," wrote that "There is no such thing as more as undetermined as the word culture." (Kloskovska 2001: 9). It would be clear if one considers that perception and concepts that referred to the culture occurred several centuries before the introduction of the term. That shows the sum of studies devoted to the culture of the history of European philosophy from ancient times until the beginning of rational thinking of the Enlightenment.

Tracing the definitions of culture, I came to the realization that many of the scholars dealing with this issue often describe culture as something that opposes nature. According to Cicero, the meaning of the term is associated with its etymological genesis relating to farming and is synonymous with the expression of the antithesis of what the social life comes from nature and what comes from the activities. Similarly understanding presents Herder, who sees culture as a source of human dominance over the animal species, which in turn dominates man with his physical strength, skill and ability.

Because of the salient findings that culture as a concept is extremely difficult to define in a few sentences and complex as that term many authors define a different way, and readers in order to easily reach their own views on the concept of culture, the many definitions of them aside:

1. in more broader sense: "I created the human society that exists as a result of physical and mental labor of the people (material culture, spiritual and national culture). (Shirilova 2001: 124).
2. in the strict sense of the word: "Culture is a very broad concept and includes various types of knowledge that people create: art, music, science, skills, beliefs and values, opinions, actions, ideals, laws, customs, norms of behavior, moral, political and family organization and others." (Tonovski 2000: 194)
3. According to the culture at large definition is "a set of material and spiritual values created shoto man throughout his enduring history." (Prangoska 1999: 15)
4. "Culture is a specific phenomenon or process of creating an artificial world by humans (as opposed to its nature or learning) that meets human needs, and provides the continuity and prosperity of society, while at the same time that special element of human existence. Namely it is his creative dimension that distinguishes man from all other living creatures." (Zoglev 2002:305)
5. "Culture functions as a national, but also as an international system, it is a guide to cultural institutions, their complex systems, technology and working

methods, and insight into their mutual cooperation." (Sesic 2003: 13)

6. "The sum of all those processes, changes and creations that have occurred as a consequence of the material and the spiritual intervention of human society (in nature, society and opinion.), A basic sense of culture is that to facilitate the maintenance, renewal and progress human society." (Ilic 1983:13-14)

These definitions lead to the conclusion that culture is only one specific dimension of social life, i.e. its specific crystallization; expressed through everything man creates a material and spiritual products. Linking culture with tradition is unacceptable thinking that culture is solely what has been created throughout history, that what you have created many generations before us. Also unacceptable is the notion that the culture would represent only what is present-day work of the current generation, which somehow eliminates tradition as part of the culture. Rather, the term culture refers to as the complete social heritage and lifestyle, and includes an anthropological perspective, that perspective suggests that culture cannot be fully and easily separated from social life. (Zoglev 2003: 166)

For these reasons it becomes a common consideration of many who believe that people in the course of its life continue to be "exposed" to the cultural influence, because culture is something that is learned. This is confirmed by the following story:

During a survey of the habits of consumers in the U.S., researchers noticed an unusual behavior of a housewife: it whenever purchased salami, for no particular reason, they had cut edges and even then she would put it in the fridge. When researchers asked to explain why she does it, she could not do it. She just explained that her mother did the same thing, so she continued doing it. When researchers went to her mother, they found that she puts the salami in the fridge the same way. But not only that. They found that she cannot explain the reasons why she does it. And she learned that from her mother. The whole story was explained by her grandmother,

from whom the researchers discovered the truth: When I started to buy salami, I had a plate which could not contain the whole salami, so I had every salami cut back when I put it in the fridge. Culture, roughly, is this: once solutions have proven successful in solving the problems, they become subconscious rules of conduct "invisible" but strongly influence the behavior of people.

Source: Nebojsa Janachiević, Faculty of Economics Belgrade

As a result of all that the culture has mentioned in the preceding text, it is certain that the formation of the whole person that is best affected since birth. Therefore, within the theoretical elaboration of culture is good to know the term In-culturalisation which actually is a process of learning one's own culture. (Shirilova 2001)

Of particular importance is the man from the earliest age in order to understand that it is part of a cultural environment that will spontaneously accept, but that has complete freedom of choice as to which culture you belong when you grow up. Besides parents and the environment as very influential factors and who greatly influence the teaching of their own culture there should also be cultural and educational institutions, with their very existence and functioning as contributing to better understanding of the culture, and deeper penetration into it.

It should not be neglected despite the fact that libraries, museums, theater, music, film, and other institutions and activities in the sphere of culture, education through its institutions have an important part in understanding and enriching the cultural life of the people in the near and in the wider environment.

When we talk about culture in general, the specifics of our multicultural, multinational and multi-religious environment the necessity of explaining the term acculturation comes to our mind.

Acculturation is the process of touching the two cultures, the process by which groups or individuals contact each other, exchange cultural characteristics and acquire new ones. (Prangoska 1999: 24)

Acculturation is a kind of cultural change; it is a process of dialectical interaction between the

cultures of two or more social groups of any two reasons come into contact. Process in which the meet, touch and influence each other two cultures.

Acculturation still can be defined as:

1. Modernization of primitive culture
2. Download and adopting elements of foreign cultures
3. Acceptance of the new cultural environment in which they found an individual or a group. (Shirilova 2001)

3. Cultural policy

The expression policy derives from the Greek word polis (city-state region, the sum of citizens who form a city), or politeia (state constitution, political regime, republic, citizenship). According to many sources (dictionaries, internet, etc.), "policy" is defined as a set of processes and methods by which decisions are made within the framework of a group of people. Although politics usually refers to government or rule, it is not strictly a term used in political science, but rather, its use is very extensive. Its wider use refers to culture as a result of the obvious is the use of the term cultural policy.

In accordance with the general definition of politics, cultural policy should be defined as a set of processes and methods with which regulates relations in the sphere of culture within the state or beyond. Analogous to the territorial aspect, it is evident that the approach to the concept of cultural policy in different countries, or different political systems varies greatly. In liberal political systems, the state does not interfere too much in the cultural politics unlike conservative systems where the state is trying to have greater impact on the regulation of this area. In contrast to totalitarian political systems, culture is usually under the direct control of the state.

Cultural Policy is the area of public policy-making that governs activities related to the arts and culture. Generally, this involves fostering processes, legal classifications and institutions which promote cultural diversity and accessibility, as well as enhancing and promulgating the artistic, ethnic, sociolinguistic, literary and other expressions of all people – especially those of indigenous or broadly-representative cultural heritage. (Wikipedia)

Cultural policy in the documents of the

European Union referred to it in recent times, which means that even in the last few years it is a gaining momentum. In addition to this development of the situation and for more effective coordination of national cultural policy and cultural policy of the EU a series working bodies are established, a number of important documents and implemented significant projects. Their task is a continuous and systematic promotion of the best practices in the field of cultural policies at the level of Member States and countries that are potential candidates for membership, and the transfer of experience in the field of cultural heritage, artistic creation and access of citizens to culture. Among other things these bodies perform research on the impact of the integration process on cultural policy, especially the candidate countries and other countries that have some institutional connections in the EU.

4. Opportunities for cross-border cultural cooperation in the region

The rich cultural heritage in this part of Europe testifies to the fact that cultural cooperation between nations or political space could be limited. It is true today, no matter what some of the municipalities in the region belong to the states that are already members of the EU, and others of those who are not. The fact that cultural cooperation among people and states is not a privilege of the European Union can only encourage our continuing commitment to and promotion of intercultural dialogue in the region. According to (ERICarts Institute 2008) Intercultural dialogue is a process that comprises an open and respectful exchange between individuals, groups and organizations from different cultural backgrounds or with different views of the world. The main objective of this kind of cooperation usually promotes mutual understanding of different perspectives and practices, increase participation, ensuring equality and ensuring the emergence of new creative processes. Taking into account the current situation in the region, it is normal to question whether such cooperation is currently possible. Our deep belief is that it is not only possible, but also necessary. Cultural cooperation represents an opportunity to start our final bonding. Such optimism is the

foundation and the fact that all three countries in the region have built a legal basis for this kind of cooperation. Namely, Albania on September 24th, 2006, Greece on January 3rd, 2007 and FYROM¹ on May 22nd, 2007 ratified the UNESCO Convention on the Protection and Promotion of the Diversity of Cultural Expressions. Also, all three states within their cultural policies defined as priorities provisions such cooperation is legalized.

Albania is one of the countries in recent years that leads a solid cultural policy, especially after the fall of communism in Eastern Europe during the early 1990s. This period is used for a possible approximation of Albanian culture to European standards. This tendency is present in Albania today, which further motivates our commitment to cultural cooperation in the region (the municipalities of Korca, Florina and Bitola). Greece as a country with a very rich cultural tradition leads a cultural policy which continuously persists for a longer period. Although the historical development, responsibility for culture and cultural policy was divided among various government ministries, efforts for promotion, development and expansion of cultural cooperation remain unchanged parts of that policy. It was due to the fact that Greece as a member has committed itself to monitor and cultural policy of the Union, which in any case is not that inconsistent with our commitment to regional cross-border cultural cooperation.

Republic of Macedonia after the division of the Yugoslav federation has entered a new stage of development of cultural policy. Slowly but surely in the sphere of culture a consistent policy is built directed at the integration efforts to join the EU, i.e. cultural policy similar to other European countries. This means that the expansion and promotion of cultural cooperation remains continued commitment to its cultural policy and not a legal impediment to our cooperation.

In the end we recall that our commitment to co-operation and in accordance with European cultural policy. The European Cultural Convention may be assessed as an important

starting point for our cultural cooperation and integration. It is a solid foundation for fostering cooperation, not only in culture but also in the wider fields of education, sports and youth, etc. In this regard it is important to mention the Culture Programme (2007-13), adopted by the European Parliament and of the Council of 12 December 2006. This program establishes the instruments and financing of transnational cultural cooperation of entities within the European Union or non-union members, and participate in the program for the period from 1 January 2007 and 31 December 2013.

5. Forms of cross-border municipal cooperation

We must be aware that within our commitment to cultural cooperation have a major role municipalities that belong to this region or those forces that have political and economic power for decision. The fact that these forces cannot be exempt from state influence or impact on those "top" should not hesitate in the academic environment to engage in these processes and to create new policies in these areas. Our conviction is that integration in this region despite the economic condition is best to proceed with in the process of cultural integration because evidently it is much harder if we go with the political and territorial questions. The forms of such cross-border cooperation though may be different, however, to achieve the desired goal should be in scope and content and time frame to be acceptable and beneficial for all participants, regardless of the cultural activity in question. The organizers themselves or participants in cultural events should be independent in deciding whether their cooperation will take place in the stage arts, music, cultural heritage, art, literature and translation or other cultural activity. It is for reasons they best know of what forms the cultural cooperation that will contribute to their cultural rapprochement and better understanding as part of the said desired globalization.

¹ In accordance with UN Resolutions 817 and 845/1993, "The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia" is currently being used by the Council of Europe and the European Union, as the country's interim tag in official and internal documents.

6. Conclusion

The conclusion begins with the thought of the famous French politician, diplomat and one of the architects of the so-called European Union Jean Monnet (Jean Omer Marie Gabriel Monnet, 1888-1979) which clearly states that "When it could be started again, I would start with culture" (Wikipedia / Jean_Monnet). I thought that this confirms the validity of all of our successful efforts to establish cultural cooperation in the region, because obviously it is the foundation for building our future common European cultural heritage and specifically outlined in Article 151 of the Treaty on European Union concerning of culture.

We have no illusions that this process is easy and simple, but we are confident that the successful development of this region will not be successful without the cooperation of all stakeholders who live and work within it. Only cooperation and exchange of good practices in all areas, including culture as one of the most important segments, will enable successful coping with the changes caused by the globalization process and the basis for leaving a series of stereotypes. We believe that this collaboration will allow all generations belonging to these territorial areas to become active players in building a positive climate within their countries and at the regional and international level.

As noted at the beginning, knowing the situation in the region, we are aware that our integration efforts will have to struggle with all those forces that are in some way opposed to such processes. Such efforts will not be any easier, because it will jeopardize their interests, positions or ideals.

Eventually we would like to emphasize that we are deeply convinced that the knowledge of the population of these areas are already at a level where no one can sway in the movement towards world unstoppable process of globalization. It is based on the fact that has become clear that none of us would want to stay out of this process, knowing the consequences.

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DIFFERENCES IN TEACHING OF COMMON HISTORY OF THE BALKANS

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Abstract

Pedagogy as a science has an important geopolitical role in the process of globalization and in attempt to equalize ethnic identity of each nation with the global one. While the globalization enters slowly on the Balkan's scene, many disputes appear between nations, that whether they like it or not, they share this territory for centuries now. The biggest problem occurs at that point when the Balkan states wish to claim the territory of their neighbors. The reasons for this are numerous and different, but they are all based on particular interpretations of history in each of these societies. The fact that history has tight connections with education, one of the most powerful means for creating public opinion, leads to the conclusion that the misunderstandings that exist originate mostly from different interpretations of this science called - "magistra vitae". This problem is most visible in multi-ethnic communities where the schools teach the official state's history while the classes are attended by students of other ethnic groups whose history narrate the "opposite truth". Often, these differences are the exact reasons for intolerance between the nations. Some of those examples that are nowadays cause many disagreements in the Balkans are "the Treaty of London (1913)" and the recent wars in former Yugoslavia. This situation leads us to the doubt: Can we discuss about "education across borders" while in the course of history teaching there are different interpretations of common historical moments that produce constant problem in reconciliation among people of Balkans?

Keywords: *education, textbooks, disputes, differences, Balkans, history*

1. General issues

The idea for this paper came to me after one lecture that took place during the compulsory school practice in primary schools as a part of my studies, which includes monitoring of teaching in order to understand the climate in the classroom as well as the teaching methods that are applied by older colleagues. Considering that the immigration in Greece is at a high level, most classes in Greek schools are multi-national. The protagonist of the event that took me to think about it is one 6th grade pupil from Bulgaria.

At the end of the lecture I discussed with the class teacher about the difficulties faced by foreign students during their schooling. Besides the fact that in most cases the difficulties that appear are related to "language barriers", in the case of the mentioned pupil difficulties have occurred in the teaching of history. Most of the times in history Greece and Bulgaria had disputes between each other, rather than alliance. Consequently, the official history of Greece and Bulgaria has different point of view of these disputes. Difficulties that the class teacher met in the case of mentioned pupil are directly connected to differences in official history of two countries. Colleague told me that after one of the public holidays and parade the pupil came to him and asked: "Why all my friends say that we Bulgarians are bad?" My first thought was about endless presence of division among the people known as division on "self and others" which either it has political or religious or economic dimension it is the source of most of the ethnic strife.

This paper will deal with a general phenomenon, not individual cases. The reasons for this are manifold. Accessing the subject through individual cases and their comparison involves comprehensive analysis of the truth of the interpretation of historical events, which in my case is a thankless task. Analysis of the verity of the historical interpretations is a long and complicated scientific process that often is not objective and difficult to succeed. Of course, the latter is directly related to this topic, because these interpretations are the source for right or wrong school implementation, which is of great importance for the development of social being of every man. What I want to stress in this paper is a danger of the phenomenon of different interpretations for the neighboring nations' history, which determine the past, and may affect the future of those countries.

The first dilemma among the others is: does really education and teaching of common history, directly or indirectly, encourage nationalism and religious intolerance among neighbors? Or is the situation reversed? Otherwise, does nationalism as an ideology or its mechanism affecting the textbooks, and therefore the teaching of history at the school? The problem of nationalism is specially stressed in the territory of the Balkans, where in a very

small area numerous ethnic groups are concentrated without certain and permanent border until the beginning of the 20th century. Historically, as in the other parts of the world, each of these groups tended to consolidate their nation's territorial boundaries by widening and strengthening them. Being part of the Ottoman Empire for a long time, most of the Balkan population, regardless of ethnic group was moving all over the area, which resulted in the subsequent disputed division of the borders. This partition was accepted in different way by all interested parties, something that is still subject to discuss in the interpretation of the individual state histories.

This partition also has an influence on the current redrawing of borders that happens nowadays. Recent changing of the borders, as well as trends towards appropriating neighboring territories was followed by disastrous wars. Unfortunately, national intolerance is not stopped by them, on the contrary, has an immediate support at one of the most important and most sensitive mechanisms in every society, in education. However, the progress of world society has caused the cessation of territorial expansion through war and focused on its metamorphosis in the strengthening of individual states in other ways, mainly economic. In Balkans we still have this first case. Modern geopolitics examines the historical development of nationalism in the Balkans from the political, war or diplomatic standpoint, but not education as well.

Education is one of the most powerful means for producing individuals who are supposed to serve the system. The fact that the education is compulsory and free is not subject to doubts the validity of methods or sources. On the contrary, it has all the dimensions that are necessary to succeed in their goals-mass, availability, as well as resources. Historical education is a compulsory element in all educational systems.

History as a subject in schools aims primarily to introduce students to the previous events and secondly to develop their critical judging abilities depending on age. Both of these aims of history must have objective influence to the students regarding to help the science to accomplish its own goals. This means that the information offered to student must be accurate and objective, but also critical judging of the students

must be developed by appropriate methods. Important in this project is that a proper system of values of students must be built, something that goes beyond the sphere of action of the history as a science and represents a segment of the overall social influence.

"History," which is more or less known to all people is not only a product of the knowledge acquired in schools but also in families, villages, religious communities and all other environments in which an individual makes different contacts. The fact is that it is impossible to avoid all the extracurricular influences that participate in the formation of critical historical consciousness, especially in today's era of the strong influence of the media. Nevertheless, the historical knowledge that every individual has, often rely on what is written in the textbooks. This occurs because the students adopt the historical sources as absolutely correct. On the other hand school books are the result of official educational policy of each state, which means that follow the same trend. Here we come to the main problems where politics entering the school textbooks.

Opinions of historiographers regarding this issue are contrary. While some believe that each nation must have a collective memory as one of its features and that teaching of national history is important, others find just the problems in this area with the justification that such interpretations are subjective and intolerant. This topic receives the attention of scientists for many years with the intensification of the last decade. Such tensions are segment of a wider process that also finds contradictions in the world. The process of globalization does not circumvent any sphere of national equalization of all people by trying to emphasize the importance of a common cause-the general prosperity. This could be succeeded by pointing out the similarities and suppressing the differences. All around the world, most of interpretations of national histories emphasize the differences, something that indirectly caused the rift between the two phenomena of nationalism and globalization.

One explanation of this problem could be that nationalism is a response to globalization. If the goals of globalization are equalization among the people, then the only way out of their national differences is in nationalism, and since

the idea of diversity must be properly forwarded to the masses, the easiest means is education. Perhaps this tendency in education and teaching of history would not be interpreted in a negative context of nationalism if they were not one of the reasons for disagreements among the different ethnic groups.

2. Examples of different interpretations of common history

I believe that in the Balkans we can identify *four types* of different interpretations of history which cause disputes among the peoples. *The first type* is the systematic favoritism of its own history. This case appears in all textbooks in the Balkans and it is a logical consequence of the priorities of the study of national history. There is a characteristic example of Greece where the greatest attention is paid to the Byzantine period, slightly less to the ancient one, followed by the liberation from Ottoman rule and the recent history of Greece. Presentation of European and world's history that does not concern Greece is minimized. Another such example in the former Federal Republic of Yugoslavia is the textbooks written after the collapse of the former Yugoslavia. Research done by professor Dubravka Stojanovic¹ shows that Serbian textbooks meet a little milder, but significant differences, where the ratio of global versus national history represented in textbooks for children 12 to 15 years old on average 1:3 (Stojanovic 2010: 91-92). Such favoritism of national history or indirectly ignoring the parallel existence of the history of the "others" can deceive students and create the sense of superiority over the other. In this way, it is almost unavoidable to come across that already mentioned division of "self and other" which is simply represented in daily discussions on politics.

The second type is the discourse of history of the same country in terms of certain historical events that have divided support among members of the same nation. With this type of politicization of history we can see the changes in the curriculum in relation to the changing trends of a country. In terms of such issue, the

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great importance of development of historical consciousness has extracurricular knowledge that is acquired by "oral history" narratives, media and other means since it is directly related to the people who still live and share impressions. Typical example of this type is the shift in the interpretation of the history of the Second World War in Serbia. Nowadays the royalist members of the military, nationalistic "Chetnik movement"², is more accepted and historically correct in relation to the interpretation of fifty years long that was giving precedence to the Partisans and Communists. Official educational policy standpoint is that by this change in the interpretation we overcome prejudice and stereotypes that have mastered the state historiography, although the effects may be more negative than positive. Except of the excitation of nationalist ideas, the gap between supporters of the Communists and Royalists that occurs among people becomes deep and deeper. This example has its common points of contact with the Greek civil war that still causes controversy among the Greeks, especially in the regions of Western Macedonia and Epirus.

The third type is also very dangerous, given that throughout history this kind of differences were reasons for some of the ethnic conflicts in the Balkans. Different interpretations of common historical moments in two or more countries have significant influence on opponent, unfriendly atmosphere. Naturally, any of the interested parties interpret historical events from their own point of view by analyzing the positive and negative elements of the same. It is logical that in a warring situation there is one winner and one loser. At first glance, this does not exist in anything controversial. However, the teaching of history is not about a simple narrative of events, which subsequently leaves the student to self-analysis, but also touches on the causes and consequences of interpreting them in accordance with the tendencies he has. According to this, one winner will represent different causes and consequences in relation to the losers. While the winner will justify the consequences by the cause, the consequences

will be used by a "loser's" side as a new cause of the conflict. In this way, the disagreement is only deepened.

What is also of great importance for the problem we are dealing in this paper is the way in which the facts are presented. The ways in which historical lessons in the textbooks are written and the vocabulary used can often be a source of misinterpretation. The first criterion is the length of the lesson. Lessons that are too large are often overwhelmed with information that does not encourage students to think critically but they point to the superficial adoption of the same. On the contrary, the lessons written in a concise and poor way may lead students to come to the superficial historically unfounded conclusions. The second criterion is certainly the meaning of the words used. Only a small difference in that one word can change the meaning. The Balkans, a meeting place of many ethnic groups, is a fertile ground for the emergence of such conflicts. Classical examples are the Balkan wars and their consequences that are still appreciable.

Taking the example of Serbian, Albanian, Greek and FYROM textbooks, we observe significant differences. In Serbian textbooks the lessons (Бецић, 2008: 46, Ђорђе Ђурић, Момчило Павловић, 2012: 66-68) are concise and present Balkan wars as wars of liberation of the territories that were under its belonging. The exception is Albania in whose territories Serbia had pretensions. Albanian textbook³ under a negative attitude towards the Albanian side of the outcome of the war and the London Treaty (1913) attaches less importance to the creation of their own independent state for the first time in history, and highlights the fact that the treaty was not right according to the territories that belonged to other countries. Most of the lesson consist the details of the final negotiations over the formation of borders of Albania. The objections to these interpretations are the following.

The Serbian textbook does not indicate that there were hegemonic pretensions to occupy the Albanian coast, but focus shifts to the decision of

² Nationalistic movement built on the work and life of former general of king's army before WW2. The name of the officers of that army četnik is kept and used in negative connotation nowa- days

³ This lesson is part of the book of history for 9th grade of Primary schooling in Albania, published in 2008. Unfortunately I got only the paper with this lesson, and the source that provided it to me couldn't give me exact title and other data until the date of printing this paper.

the great powers of Italy and the Austro-Hungarian Empire that does not allow access to Serbia by sea. Finally, I believe that the omission of the explanation for the first case and the emphasis on the second one trying to make image of conspiracy theory something that only produces hostility toward all parties involved. The Albanian textbook on several occasions referred to the Albanian population living outside the borders of Albania using the exact number as well as extent of territory which is supposed to belong to Albania in accordance with areas where this population lives. One of the key words that can be superficial or wrong interpreted is the verb used to describe this situation. Population who found themselves outside the boundaries is characterized as one that is now exempt from the borders. One gets the impression that the territory that existed officially, reduced. This fact can be interpreted by the students as seeking to unfairly excluded territories must return to previous condition. Together with the first example it represents only one more of the possible reasons for disputes in Balkans.

A similar problem occurs in the textbooks of FYROM in the section about the London Treaty and Balkan wars. According to these lessons, Macedonia was divided among states, Serbia, Greece and Bulgaria whereby Greece is engulfed most of Macedonia. In this case this interpretation could result in a conflict between the peoples as concern the understanding of the term Macedonia. The maps following the text shows the whole Macedonia as a country that is now divided between two states. This could immediately be interpreted as illegal tensions to occupy homeland from the neighbor that done the same thing once.

Greek textbook in this case emphasizes territorial gains at the expense of Turkey (Λούβη και Ξιφάρας, 2006: 45). Pretty similar with Serbian textbook and Greek as well is concise. Perhaps this is because the Balkans wars represent victory for the Greek side. In none segment there is no explanation for the population of - others ethnical communities or they future treatment in the borders of Greece. We can say that Greek textbook in the case of this historical period keep neutral position, but it does not mean that in some other cases happens the same. The best example is the "Catastrophe

of Asia Minor" and the explanation of consequences but not the reasons. Generally, in each textbook without difference, one can find controversial interpretation that could expand hatred between peoples of the Balkans.

Under this type, we can find as well, contradictory interpretations which Patrick Geri considered as the archaeological arguments for the territorial expansion. In a part, the author cites (Patrick, 2007: 27-63) the German example in transition from the 19th century into the 20th century, for which Germany was claimed the rights on the land on which have always lived all Germans. Similar to the previous interpretation of the London Treaty during which is emphasized the territory inhabited with Albanian population, we recognize a quite same situation with other ethnic communities. Thus, in the Serbian interpretations we can find that Military Frontier⁴ is the ancestral homeland of the Serbs, while in the reality they settled there as a buffer zone between the Ottomans and the West. Often this interpretation is considered very literally, so it is not uncommon to hear that the Croats have not lived previously in those areas. The second case is a current problem that exists between FYROM and Greece, basically represented as a conflict over the name of the first state.

However, further analysis leads to the conclusion that the official tendency in FYROM is focused on proving of the nation origin, which is based on a direct connection with the ancient Macedonians, a fact the Greek circles strongly condemn. This conflict can take a much larger scale if it continues its deepening with further attempt to prove this hypothesis. A similar interpretation exists in the case of Greece reference to the territory of West and the Central Macedonia, where the existence of non-recognised Slavophone Greek minority is justified. This creates a tense climate between the members of this community which have been declared as Greeks and at the same time, ethnologically, they are also identify themselves within this minority.

The fourth type of varying interpretations of common historical events is not significantly different from the third, but since it occurs within a sovereign state of Bosnia and

⁴ Part of Croatian land that lived Serbian population until the 5th of August 1995. They moved there in the middle age as a border soldiers

Herzegovina with three equal national entities⁵ that have in the recent past been in conflict, deserves to be mentioned separately. The aforementioned examples illustrate how different interpretations of historical facts can produce inter-ethnic conflicts and nationalism in individual states. This is one of the starting points of this paper where I am trying to define the relationship of these two phenomena and existence of their interconnection. Or whether the presence of nationalism can influence the education, and by this to encourage the new conflicts.

According to Nenad Velickovic (2012), the education system in BaH is the motivation for a new war and war crimes. But what are the reasons for that kind of a curriculum? In his book "Školorečina" the author states that when having three different nationalisms in one country, it is clear that they are discriminating against the others. The factual situation in Bosnia tells us that since 1995 and the Dayton Agreement, the teaching of history, language and literature is performed through three different prisms, Serbian, Croatian and Muslim or Bosniak as they are naming the Muslim population in the newer sources. In this case, the teaching of history is also considering and a pluralism of truths. Especially in the case of interpretation of the events from the last war which are not omitted, despite the lack of temporal distance. Present society in the BaH no matter of the division on the Serbian Republic and the Federation is again mixed. In both entities there are living members of all three nations, their children are going in the same schools, playing and growing up together. But they are not raising them up in the same manner where someone tells the truth and someone tells a lie about controversial topics depending on the viewpoint. Such disadvantages, except the most important influence of causing a conflict among nations, may have harmless -at a first glance- but not less important consequences. They can ruin one child's friendship which can be for 20 years a pillar of a stable tolerant society, or at least a step towards reconciliation.

3. Possible solutions of the problem

⁵ Bosnia and Herzegovina is divided into 2 entities Republic of Srpska and Federation. The three legitimate national entities are the Serbian, the Muslim and the Croatian

The main question that rises is "how can we overcome this encumbrance of history teaching?" Also, can we generally avoid disputes on the ethnic bases among the various ethnic communities on the Balkans? The logical answer is that it is impossible at a general level, because the man is primarily an individual and after a member of the group. As such, each of us is different and acts in accordance with its own values, rather than collective system of values. The correct question would be "Can we have common textbooks in all the Balkan countries where our together historical events will be interpreted in the same way?". To be able to answer this question, we must first overview the goals of this activity, but also and the objective possibilities. The main and foremost objective is to overcome ethnic disputes between different ethnic groups, whether it implies a relation on the interstate level or the relations of the different communities within the same country. On the other hand, the official teaching program will not give up from the interpretation of national history because of the above reasons.

The answer we are getting is that it is almost impossible to apply the use of common textbooks. There are proposals for a solution which should "erase the dominant differences in purpose of reconciliation" and "emphasize the differences for a common goal," (Dimitrijevic, 2011) which found its support in the process of globalization. Center for Democracy and Reconciliation in Southeast Europe, with headquarters in Thessaloniki attempted to answer the problem of different interpretations of history teaching in primary and secondary schools. Using a comparative method, they examined textbooks of all Balkan countries studying the most controversial historical moments in the recent history. Until now four textbooks were published that can be used as a school additional material.

These textbooks are the product of the collaboration of scientists and history teachers from 11 countries and have been translated into seven languages of the Balkans. Textbooks cover the four major historical sites: the Ottoman Empire, Nations and States in Southeast Europe, the Balkan wars and World War II. This ambitious, but almost utopian venture suffered its critics. It could be said that these aspirations are close to the official method and ideology of

"brotherhood and unity"⁶ of the former Yugoslavia, which as a model, not only did not succeed in the long term, but it represents a source for a further and deeper conflict. The document "Guidelines for the Writing and Evaluation of History textbooks for Primary Schools and Secondary Schools in BaH" is a similar project, but at the state level. It approaches BaH problem through the research and reform. The writers of textbooks, teachers and students were interviewed, before and after the implementation of this document and conclusions are drawn. The problem with this approach is that is not easy to influence historical consciousness built on the individual memories and experience. However this attempt is somewhat successful and today in BaH there are some schools that have already implemented these new textbooks, adapted to the common life (Karge & Batarilo, 2010: 307-357).

A potential solution might be the avoidance of teaching some events, but not entirely because on that way history education will stay on "oral history" that has a plurality of truths, depending on the ethnic group in which it occurs. Achieving the historical goal-development of critical thinking of students, it could be achieved by introducing parallel interpretations of common historical events of all interested parties, without specifying what is true and what is not true. This method could be useful in encouraging students for further explore and deepening of knowledge both in school and in activities out of school. Recommendation of variety of sources to students, the local and public libraries, transparent e-learning information, could contribute to improving students' knowledge, their research skills and critical thinking, which can support them in their daily life. Of course, this requires extensive commitment of lecturers in the field of student's animation, and its preparation to give a proper respond to any potential dilemma of students about some topics. One method that can be also very useful is the Project method by which one can approach a particular topic through the inclusion of many other science and arts as prose, poetry, language, geography (analysis of present and

former maps) and the interpretation of "opposite sides". The Project method in its experiential character can hold a thematic visit to the institution that reconciles the two opposing sides as, for e.g. Park of the national reconciliation⁷ in Kastoria.

Finally, as we have pluralism of truths, there is pluralism of solutions for all these above mentioned questions. This fact should become the main subject to improve in all of the countries of the Balkans. Reconciliation is difficult process but not unreachable. Any required effort is nothing compared with the possible results. What is certain is that we should avoid to offer the truth but to encourage students to critically analyze data and sources that are offered. Only in this case we can approach objectivity and teach it at the same time. Reaching of objectivity is one of the hardest, most difficult but the most correct way to build healthy class climate and society.

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⁶ Communist ideology in former Yugoslavia in try to equalize people of different nation and religion that lived together in this country.

⁷ The Park of National Reconciliation (ESL), is established and operates under the supervision of the Foundation of the Parliament. It aims to highlight and exploit the evidence of historical memory and scarce environmental resources in the area of Western Macedonia.

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EDUCATIONAL POLICY CONCERNING ETHNIC MINORITIES IN YUGOSLAVIA FROM (1944-1990). THE CASE OF VOJVODINA

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to present the Policy followed and implemented in relation to the education of Ethnic minorities. Documents of Historic Archives, Reports of Inspectors, and Articles of modern researchers are also presented and analyzed. The findings revealed that Former Yugoslavia followed a positive attitude towards the development of mother tongue of ethnic minorities during that period (1944-1990). It is worth mentioning that since the end of 2nd WW the State had developed curricula and educational programmes related to minority languages. These decisions were taken, because the development was considered as a basic human right that promoted social equity and for this purpose education in the language of origin was every minority's right. For the materialisation of those policies, some actions were carried out; for example a) The provision of primary school teachers' training courses in Hungarian language, b) the foundation of full time professional schools for teachers, c) the introduction of supplementary courses in schools, where minority languages were used as a teaching medium (Yugoslavia's Education Board in April 1961). Concluding, we pose the following question: Did the educational policy, which had been implemented during the specific period, result into the assimilation and acculturation of the minorities? It has been indicated that there was not a certain assimilation-oriented policy from the part of the State towards minorities.

Keywords: *Vojvodina, bilingualism, ethnic minorities, minority language*

Main Article

Vojvodina is a multiethnic, multicultural community, home to a great many ethnic minorities such as Hungarians, Croats, Romanians, Slovaks, etc. These minorities are differentiated from the main population body due to religious, political, traditional, cultural factors. Vojvodina's ethnic and cultural heterogeneous composition is a result of many historical, economical, political, social and demographic influences. This population mosaic was altered over the years. The Hungarians constitute the second biggest population group (14, 28%). A 59% of Hungarians lives in the Northern part of Vojvodina which practically

means than they are the dominant ethnic minority in eight sub-regions: Kanjiža (Magyarkanizsa község 86,52%), Zenta (Zenta község 80,51%), Ada (Ada község 76,64%), Backa Topola (58,94% Topolya község), Mali Idoš (Kishegyes község 55,92%) and Coka (Csóka község 51,56%). The sub-regions with Hungarian almost domination are the following: Bečej (Óbecse község 48,83%) and Subotica (Subotica Város 38,47%). Except the above sub-regions there are more places where the Hungarian minority has also large population: Novi Knezevac (Törökkanizsa község), Kikinda (Kikinda község), Nova Crnja (Magyarcsernye község), Zitiste (Begaszetgyörgy község), Zrenjanin (Nagybecskerek község), Sečanj (Torontálszecsány község) Kovačica (Antalfalva község), Plandište (Zichyfalva község), Vrsac (Versec község), Bela Crkva (Fehértemplom község) Kovin (Kevevára község), Pancevo (Pancso község) Irig (Ürög község) Odžaci (Hódság község), Sombor (Zombor község), Apatin (Apatin község), Temecula (Temecula), Srbobran (Szenttamás), Novi Sad, Kula (*Kúla*) and Novi Bečej (Törökbecse) [http://sr.wikipedia.org/sr-el/Vojvođanski_Mađari (poslednji pristup: 4. mart 2011)]. The town Subotica is the Hungarian cultural and administrative capital of the region (Vojvodina).

Each community chooses to be educated in its ethnic language and this constitutes a fundamental equity condition for national minorities. For over two centuries there were many shifts and changes to Vojvodina's educational policy. These changes were naturally caused by political, legal, funding and social reasons.

From the era of Yugoslavia's Kingdom ensured public education instruction in one's own ethnic language by creating a law about public schools in 1929.

According to this law, all the curriculum classes were taught in minority languages, except from history and naturally the dominant ethnic group's language courses. Unfortunately there was a problem; there wasn't an adequate number of teaching staff to meet these requirements. Teacher training in Hungarian started in Belgrade's Teacher academy in 1933 [Šiling 2003].

During World War 2 (1941-1942, 1943-1944),

in Sombor, in Subotica and in Novi Sad there existed female teacher academies where instructing classes in Hungarian and the female students who were interested in working for Serbian (or German) departments were taught these languages [Žili 1978].

After the end of WW2, in November 11th of 1944, all the state public schools should start in Serbian but also in all the different ethnic languages. The severe lack of teaching staff which would teach in these languages remained a problem. More teachers, schools, staff were needed at that period. According to Janoš data, 650 teachers were required, but Vojvodina had only 150 Hungarian ones. To fill these gaps teaching academy graduates and undergraduates were employed and there were multiple opportunities. These graduates were given the choice to attend a set of courses which would give them a teacher's diploma. There were similar courses (A, B, and C) in minority languages. First in Senta and later in Subotica and Novi Sad there were organised courses provided for those teachers who would choose Hungarian as first language. The first two-months semester (A) was for those who had completed the 4-year teacher academy but never got the chance to get their diploma, the second (B) was for those who studied for 3 years in the academy or completed their high school education and there was a third semester (C) for one-year or for those who finished the 4 years pre-secondary school, the politics school, or war veterans. The last category had to participate in summer courses in order to make up for their unfinished education. An important condition was that: these candidates should be "politically correct" [Žili 1978].

The gates were now open, one-by-one new full curriculum 4 year professional teaching academies were created. In 1947 the teaching academy of Subotica and in 1947 the secondary level education academy based in Novi Sad. This project proved to be quite successful. According to evidence approximately 400 Hungarian teachers graduated in just four years after the WW2 (1945-1949). The educational staff's mission was to train 30000 enlisted students in Hungarian primary schools. The number of students was rising, secondary schools were established, and more than 7000 Hungarian students needed education. This practically

meant that a great part of the specialized teaching staff was needed for secondary level schooling. The annual growth of Hungarian

speaking students during the post-war period is depicted in Table 1.

Table 1: The annual increase of Hungarian students in Vojvodina during 1945-1949[Janoši 1949]

School	1945/46.	1946/47.	1947/48.	1948/49.
Primary School	34.782	28.631	29.445	30.324
Upper Primary School	/	2.869	1.370	1.357
Lyceum(Secondary)	6.082	10.268	10.700	10.460
Teachers Training School	315	323	508	600

A small decrease of higher primary school students is shown here but this is not actual since at the same time slot the number of Hungarian secondary students was increased which reveals the educational and cultural upgrade of the Hungarian's population. A great number of Hungarians managed to get higher education and level up their way of living.

Table 2: The number of primary and secondary Hungarian students who were educated in their own language [Janoši 1949]

Primary		Secondary	
1946	568	1946	34
1947	658	1947	122
1948	2.050	1948	185
Total	3.276	Total	341

In 1954 Subotica Academy got a 5 year studies curriculum which improved academic quality. In 1968 a Hungarian higher teaching academy department was created. In 1973 the school Academy was turned into a school of Education where high school graduates and later on specialized in education undergraduates could get into. Many teachers, from every part of Vojvodina, who only had a high school diploma, could acquire an education specialty. A department of Hungarian language professors was opened in Sombor during 1994-1995, one that still exists in Subotica [Šiling 2003]. At the same period 4 professional departments were created in order to increase the staff's professionalism and skills. Most teachers paid their own way through their education, even though the state granted regular scholarships to poor Hungarian students.

The most glorious example of ethnic equity in the region was the fact that Hungarians could fill in primary and secondary headmaster positions.

Great efforts were made to ensure that these schools would have their Hungarian books. It seemed that the publishing activity could not catch up with the rapid use of Hungarian language in schools. This problem was soon restored, according to 1979 data; the provincial book publishing house printed almost 1500 books in 5 languages in Vojvodina [Equality weaved in life 1979].

A chronological description of socio-political events which interfered with minorities' educational policies during the WW2 period, would fail to provide an objective view of the situation and whether it was culturally assimilating or not. A cross-check of different historical sources proves that there were many different views on the subject. There is no clear evidence that organized, directed state movements were targeted towards assimilation. The reality was that assimilation took place. There were regions with "weak" ethnic minority forces hence no minority language teaching or regions where parents were too narrow-minded to allow their children to travel and get education away from their villages. There were also the mixed marriages, a strong way to assimilate cultures. In that case parents would enroll their children in the regions school even if their language wasn't the dominant one which as a consequence meant that these kids would inevitably send the use of their mother tongue to oblivion.

It seems that national and minority equity was not a given right until then. State documents

which were published during the S.F.D.Y. period prove that government and local officials of the time tried to inspire hatred and antagonism amongst the minorities in order to preserve their own power. The social revolution signified the dawn of a new phase for Vojvodina since for the first time equality rights were given to minorities. After WW2 the S.F.D.Y. constitution which was declared in the 31st of January in 1946, literally brought to the surface these new equal conditions (Constitutional Act of 1953. Constitution of 1961, Constitution of 1974. These legal documents stated that the ethnic minorities and not only the neighboring populations (Serbs, Croats, Slovenians, people from Montenegro) had all the same rights. This newfound equity protection system became a vital part of these people lives, socio-political system, education, cultural and political structure. Even today the state claims that minority equity remains the fundamental base of Vojvodina's community.

Vojvodina's Constitution (1974) states for example: "In S.F.D.Y. all minorities are equal in every aspect of living. Every citizen is free to express its unique cultural view of life through its different national linguistic, cultural, historical characteristics. Each minority has every right to constitute organizations or council boards in accordance with Vojvodina's constitutional rights" (Amendment 4). Every citizen is completely free to preserve and manifest his/her own minority language by using it to write and speak." Every act which could potentially cultivate inequity and hatred and interfere with different minority citizens is against the constitution and will be punished». More than 20 documents existed to support these axioms.

According to the S.F.D.Y. constitution there were 5 spoken and 6 written languages: Serbian-Croatian, Croatian-Serbian, Hungarian, Slovakian, Romanian and Russian. According to 1979 data 21 regions in Vojvodina had the equal use of 2 languages, 12 regions had 3 languages, 6 regions had 4 languages and there was also one municipality which had 5 recorded languages spoken and written also. According to 1985 data in 532 primary schools: 150 primary schools used the Hungarian language in teaching, 29 the Romanian, 22 the Slovakian, 4 the Russian language. In 89 secondary schools: 32 they used as teaching language the Hungarians, 5 the Slovakian, 4 the Romanian and 1 the Russian

language.

The Communist Party, the only force in the region, would set the ideological platform upon which the new education curriculum would be based. Due to 1948 the education curriculum was hardly influenced from the Russia and later this changed quickly.

Janoši (1965), supports the opinion that students of Vojvodina should learn more languages than the ones they've already mastered; their ethnic and the official one. People and nations could collaborate easier and exchange ideas, views and products if they speak multiple languages. Furthermore a rich knowledge of different cultures and languages was a condition for people who wished for better jobs and a higher standard of living by moving to richer and more developed regions of the country.

Janoši says, that all these elements create the modern face of Yugoslavia, a complex social web and at the same time a region of sociological and educational interest. It's therefore the social system's obligation to bring these nations closer [Janoši 1965].

Legislated obligatory primary education for all the children (ages 7-14 or 15). The State education period was updated from seven years to eight. Schools for every minority's need were organized. Common school curriculum was constructed for every student specially the language lesson in their mother tongue. The students attended the history classes more in the level of general history of Yugoslavia in the beginning, with also general knowledge of the national minorities' history.

In relation to History lesson, Vojislav Okilievic states that in Vojvodina minority forces tried to influence their people by providing specialized "classes" in order to enhance their particular identity. The instruction of national history courses was the first step towards the solution of this problem. A new curriculum was created during the year 1963/1964 which was implemented experimentally to some regional primary schools. According to this, students, no matter their ethnic identity, were obliged to attend all the different minority history classes. There were chapters referring to Hungarian, Romanian, Russian, Slovakian and Serbian history [Vojislav 1965].

Okilievic underlines the great difficulties a

historian could face when writing a history book of this kind: «It's a fact that these translated history books which are used in teaching, cannot be purely objective about the past of the minorities. But these are common ideological issues most history books need to resolve. A neutral and objective point of view is important for every history book. But since a school history book tends to be the only source of information the demands are many. Other school teaching aids could help such as maps, teacher manuals, historical narrations, etc. Education policy makers should look into these issues too" [Vojislav 1965].

Ethnic minorities and their cultural characteristics were not just protected by the constitution but respected in all the aspects of social life. Gabor Janoš writes in one of his articles (1949), that the Communist Party's revolution during WW2 provided new financial, cultural and political opportunities to these people. At the same time the chance to get then included in the government's plan to upgrade schooling and education. A set of constitutional principles were created according to which "ethnic minorities in F.D.O.Y. have every legal right to protect their culture and language". What better proof than the opening of Hungarian schools after Vojvodina's liberation. Gabor continues: "Hungarians got the opportunity through their schools to master their own language and blossom culturally and in this manner were recognized as equal to the other minorities"[Janoš 1949, 1965].

Inevitably some problems would appear. Sabo Tzertz made a criticism about the Hungarian school function since 1949, and he states that a 2 year teacher training course could not possibly be enough for students to master Hungarian language and literature. The University of Belgrade should host a Hungarian literature and language department which would provide 4 year studies. In the same work Sabo claims that many teachers tried to conceal their ignorance by making political patriotic speeches. Sabo also blamed these inadequate teachers and their mistakes for the low educational level of the students.

The literature teachers could not clearly approach their lessons through aesthetics and

literary definitions but they chose to interpret historical facts through socio-economical prisms. Sabo writes:"Our students are not aware of the rules, the syntax, the structures, the richness of our language because they are not exposed to an efficient body of literary and scientific work" [Reform of education 1985].

According the data from 1979, over 40.000 minority volunteer students attended primary and secondary educational institutes where Serbo-Croatian language was taught. Approximately the same number of Serbians, Croats and people from Montenegro were studying minority languages [Equality weaved in life 1979].

During the following years many social and political changes took place, but they didn't affect minority language teaching in Vojvodina. Even though the schools and minority students were increased, there was the impression that their identity was somewhat lost.

A list of primary and secondary schools could be found at tables 3 and 4.

There was still no constitutional evidence or law enforcement to show that the government made organized efforts to dissimilate these minorities. Increased mixed marriage rates in comparison with lower birth rates directed the minorities towards a form of dissimilation. As the years went by curriculum changes and old books took their toll upon minority education. Students could not get books from Hungary and there was a shortage of teachers which meant that they had to attend some Serbian classes.

Table 3: A list of primary schools where ethnic minority students got part of their education in their

native language in Vojvodina

	School name and location	Language
1.	Čeh Karolj, Ada	Serbian, Hungarian
2.	Novak Radonić, Mol	
3.	Jožef Atila, Kupusina	
4.	Kiš Ferenc, Svilojevo	
5.	Bratstvo-jedinstvo, Bajša	
6.	Čaki Lajoš, Bačka Topola	
7.	Nikola Tesla, Bačka Topola	
8.	Moša Pijade, Pačir	
9.	Đorđe Maletić, Jasenovo	
10.	Šamu Mihalj, Bečej	
11.	Petefi Šandor, Bečej	
12.	Sever Đurkić, Bečej	
13.	Zdravko Gložanski, Bečej	
14.	Svetozar Marković, Bačko Gradište	
15.	Šamu Mihalj, Bačko Petrovo Selo	
16.	Miloš Crnjanski, Srpski Itebej	
17.	Nikola Tesla, Banatsko Karađorđevo	
18.	Sonja Marinković, Zrenjanin	
19.	Servo Mihalj, Mužlja	
20.	10. oktobar, Horgoš	
21.	Jovan Jovanović Zmaj, Kanjiža	
22.	Gligorije Popov, Rusko Selo	
23.	Sveti Sava, Kikinda	
24.	Feješ Klara, Kikinda	
25.	Moša Pijade, Debeljača	
26.	Petefi Brigada, Kula	
27.	Adi Endre, Mali Iđoš	
28.	Nikola Đurković, Feketić	
29.	Petefi Šandor, Nova Crnja	
30.	Miloje Čiplič, Novi Bečej	
31.	Dr Đorđe Joanović, Novo Miloševo	
32.	Jovan Jovanović Zmaj, Novi Kneževac	
33.	Nikola Tesla, Novi Sad	
34.	Petefi Šandor, Novi Sad	
35.	Sonja Marinković, Novi Sad	
36.	Jožef Atila, Novi Sad	
37.	Ivo Andrić, Budisava	
38.	Sveti Sava, Rumenka	

	School name and location	Language
39.	Jožef Atila, Bogojevo	
40.	Bratstvo-jedinstvo, Pančevo	
41.	Stevan Sremac, Senta	
42.	Braća Stefanović, Neuzina	
43.	Bratstvo-jedinstvo, Sombor	
44.	Bratstvo-jedinstvo, Svetozar Miletić	
45.	Kiš Ferenc, Telečka	
46.	Bratstvo-jedinstvo, Bezdan	
47.	Petefi Šandor, Doroslovo	
48.	Jovan Jovanović Zmaj, Srbobran	
49.	Miroslav Antić, Palić	
50.	Miloš Crnjanski, Subotica	
51.	Đuro Salaj, Subotica	
52.	Ivan Goran Kovačić, Subotica	
53.	Sečenji Ištvan, Subotica	
54.	Jovan Jovanović Zmaj, Subotica	
55.	Jovan Mikić, Subotica	
56.	Kizur Ištvan, Subotica	
57.	Sonja Marinković, Subotica	
58.	10. oktobar, Subotica	
59.	Majšanski put, Subotica	
60.	Sveti Sava, Subotica	
61.	Vuk Karadžić, Bajmok	
62.	Hunjadi Janoš, Čantavir	
63.	Petar Kočić, Temerin	
64.	Dr Tihomir Ostojić, Ostojićevo	
65.	Jovan Popović, Čoka	
66.	Servo Mihalj, Padej	
67.	Bratstvo, Bečej*	
68.	9. maj, Zrenjanin*	
69.	Vuk Karadžić, Sombor*	
70.	Žarko Zrenjanin, Subotica*	
71.	Bartok Bela, Ada**	
72.	Stevan Hristić, Apatin (Kupusin)**	
73.	School of basic Music education, Bačka Topola**	
74.	Petar Konjović, Bečej**	
75.	Osnovna muzička škola, Kanjiža**	
76.	Osnovna muzička škola, Novi Kneževac**	
77.	Stevan Mokranjac, Senta**	
78.	Muzička škola, Subotica**	

	School name and location	Language
79.	Doža Đerđ, Gunaroš	Hungarian
80.	Stari Kovač Đula, Stara Moravica	
81.	18. oktobar, Novo Orahovo	
82.	Kiš Ferenc, Trešnjevac	
83.	Mora Karolj, Sajan	
84.	Žarko Zrenjanin, Skorenovac	
85.	Petefi Šandor, Hajdukovo	Serbian, Rumanian, Hungarian,
86.	Kokai Imre, Temerin	
87.	Sveti Sava, Žitište	
88.	Dositej Obradović, Plandište	
89.	Bratstvo-jedinstvo, Belo Blato	
90.	Milan Petrović, Novi Sad*	
91.	Bratstvo-jedinstvo, Alibunar	Serbian, Rumanian
92.	1. maj, Vladimirovac	
93.	Branko Radičević, Uljma	
94.	Branko Radičević, Veliko Središte	
95.	Olga Petrov-Radišić, Vršac	
96.	Moša Pijade, Gudurica (Markovac)	
97.	Dr Aleksandar Sabovljević, Ečka	Rumanian
98.	Đura Jakšić, Zrenjanin	
99.	Sveti Georgije, Uzdin	
100.	Aksentije Maksimović, Dolovo	
101.	Žarko Zrenjanin, Bantsko Novo Selo	
102.	Ivo Lola Ribar, Sutjeska	
103.	2. oktobar, Nikolinci	Serbian, Slovakian
104.	3. oktobar, Lokve	
105.	Mihail Sadoveanu, Grebenac	
106.	Koriolan Doban, Kuštilj	
107.	15. oktobar, Pivnice	
108.	Braća Novakov, Silbaš	
109.	Jan Čajak, Bački Petrovac	Slovakian
110.	Jan Amos Komenski, Kulpin	
111.	Jovan Popović, Susek	
112.	Bratstvo, Aradac	
113.	22. jul, Krčedin	
114.	Mlada pokolenja, Kovačica	
115.	Ljudovit Štur, Kisač	Slovakian
116.	Nestor Žučni, Lalić	
117.	Savo Šumanović, Erdevik	
118.	Tomaš Garig Masarik, Janošik	

	School name and location	Language
119.	Jan Kolar, Selenča	
120.	Jozef Marčok Dragutin, Gložan	
121.	Maršal Tito, Padina	
122.	Heroj Janko Čmelik, Stara Pazova	
123.	Bratstvo-jedinstvo, Kucura	Serbian, Russian
124.	Jovan Jovanović Zmaj, Đurđevo	
125.	Petro Kuzmjak, Ruski Krstur	Russian

*Primary and secondary education for special needs students

**Music schools and music academies

Table 4: A list of Secondary schools where classes of minorities' language were taught in Vojvodina

	School name and location	Language
1.	Tehnička škola, Ada	Serbian, Hungarian
2.	Gimnazija i ekonomska škola „Dositej Obradović”, Bačka Topola	
3.	Poljoprivredna škola, Bačka Topola	
4.	Srednja tehnička škola „Šinković Jožef”, Bačka Topola	
5.	Gimnazija, Bečej	
6.	Ekonomsko trgovinska škola, Bečej	
7.	Tehnička škola, Bečej	
8.	Zrenjaninska Gimnazija, Zrenjanin	
9.	Ekonomsko trgovinska škola „Jovan Trajković”, Zrenjanin	
10.	Medicinska škola, Zrenjanin	
11.	Srednja poljoprivredna škola, Zrenjanin	
12.	Tehnička, škola, Zrenjanin	
13.	Elektrotehnička i građevinska škola „Nikola Tesla”, Zrenjanin	
14.	Poljoprivredno-tehnički srednjoškolski centar „Besedeš Jožef”, Kanjiža	
15.	Gimnazija „Svetozar Marković”, Novi Sad	
16.	Medicinska škola „7. april”, Novi Sad	
17.	Elektrotehnička škola “Mihajlo Pupin”, Novi Sad	
18.	Škola za dizajn “Bogdan Šuput”, Novi Sad	
19.	Poljoprivredna škola, Futog	
20.	Gimnazija, Novi Kneževac	
21.	Srednja škola „Dositej Obradović”, Novi Kneževac	
22.	Senčanska Gimnazija, Senta	
23.	Ekonomsko-trgovinska srednja škola, Senta	
24.	Srednja medicinska škola, Senta	
25.	Gimnazija „Veljko Petrović”, Sombor	
26.	Srednja medicinska škola „Dr Ružica Rip”, Sombor	
27.	Srednja tehnička škola, Sombor	

28.	Gimnazija „Svetozar Marković”, Subotica	
29.	Ekonomska srednja škola „Bosa Milićević”, Subotica	
30.	Sredna medicinska škola, Subotica	
31.	Politehnička škola, Subotica	
32.	Hemijsko-tehnološka škola, Subotica	
33.	Tehnička škola, Subotica	
34.	Muzička škola, Subotica	
35.	Srednja škola „Lukijan Mušicki”, Temerin	
36.	Hemijsko-prehrambena srednja škola, Čoka	
37.	Osnovna i srednja škola „Žarko Zrenjanin”, Subotica*	
38.	Gimnazija za talentovane učenike „Boljai”, Senta	Hungarian
39.	Gimnazija za talentovane učenike “Deže Kostolanji”, Subotica	
40.	Ekonomsko-trgovinska škola „Dositej Obradović”, Alibunar	Serbian, Rumanian
41.	Gimnazija „Borislav Petrov Braca”, Vršac	
42.	Gimnazija „Jan Kolar”, Bački Petrovac	Serbian, Slovakian
43.	Gimnazija „Mihajlo Pupin”, Kovačica	
44.	Osnovna škola i gimnazija „Petro Kuzmjak”, Ruski Krstur	Serbian, Russian

* Secondary education for special needs students

Hungarian and other Vojvodina minorities enjoyed equality and rights in culture and information. Vojvodina has a rich tradition in cultural, literary and artistic publications. These magazines were used by minority language teacher as teaching platforms and aids. The publications in Hungarian language were:

- Jó Pajtás (1946): Hungarian weekly magazine for children
- Képes ifjúság (1947) : magazine for young readers
- Mézeskalács (1953) : a monthly magazine for young children still in publication
- Magyar Szó : a daily newspaper published in Subotica, Senta and Novi Sand
- Hét nap, weekly newspaper in Subotica.

We should also mention: *Üzenet. Symposium, Aracs, Létünk, Bácsország, Sikoly*, which were literary, cultural and historical magazines. Also the following *Hungarológiai, Közlemények* and *Tanulmányok* magazines of the Head Office of Hungarian Language and Literature of the Philosophical School of Novi Sad and *Új Kép* educational magazine .

Publications in Slovakian:

- In 1948, the Literature and Cultural magazine *Nový život*.
- In 1970, the youth magazine *Vzlet*
- *Zornička*, from 1939 still in publication.
- *Liber*, the magazine of the Library, Štefan Homola from Bački Petrovac
- *Rovina* family magazine
- *Obzor* : magazine for Culture, Science , Literature and Arts.
- *Slovakistický zborník*, Anthology a Collection of the Slovakian in Vojvodina.
- *Traf!* : a magazine for University students.

Publications in Romanian:

- The *Lumina* magazine was first published in 1947 and for 60 years played a mentoring role for Romanian writers.
- *Bucuria copiilor* (1946) and *Tineretea*(1972) were two magazines for children which inspired young writers and journalists who were members of Vojvodina's Romanian minority.
- *Tradita*-folklore and ethnography
- *Floare de lanitate*-culture and spirituality
- *Tibiscus*-a monthly magazine
- *Tezaur Romanesc*-culture, literature and

spirituality

- Graiu Banatanului-a magazine written in Banat dialect, a Rumanian dialect.

Publications in Russian:

- Švetlosć magazine - first published in 1952 and focuses in Russian languages and translations.
- Mak (1972) : youth magazine.
- Zagradka (1937) : magazine for children.
- Erato nad Kucurom/Kocurom was a magazine published by writers', journalists' and translators' journalists who lived in Kucura.

It is a fact, the culture, literature, and art magazines contributed positive to the development of a unique creativity, relates to the languages of the ethnic minorities in Vojvodina, and at the same time they contributed also to the mutual acquaintance among the ethnic cultures.

During the existence of Former Yugoslavia and afterwards in Vojvodina were many cultural-educational centers, as well as cultural-artistic organizations which worked the spirit and culture of national minorities living in Vojvodina. Additionally, theatrical performances, literary evenings, exhibitions and traditional events were taken part very often with the primary aim of the care of tradition and culture of national minorities.

Realize that Vojvodina was always very special regarding the ethnic diversity we could argue that the issue of equality of nations and national minorities is not a static topic which could be solved once and for all, but it was and remains a "living body", which is constantly evolving and becoming richer. Tolerance and equality in all forms of public life of members belonging to national minorities living in Vojvodina mean the rejection of dogmatism and autocracy, the promotion of the standards laid down in international instruments relating to human rights.

The balance between nations and ethnic minorities in practice was difficult to achieve, but the above mentioned show that State and society in Vojvodina after the second world war, tried to create a system of equality that will accept members of national minorities with all their differences – history, culture, language and all the important values that govern a nation.

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FLORINA AND URBAN DEVELOPMENT: POTENTIAL AND WEAKNESSES ON SITE

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Abstract

Urban development is a group of activities that affects individual and social prosperity through changes in the nature or intensity of land use in urban areas and regulates these changes in four major objectives: economic, social, environmental and urban impact. Aim of this paper is the presentation of urban development strategies in the region of Florina with its potential and weaknesses. An integrated plan for sustainable urban development includes a system of interrelated actions, aimed at achieving long-term improvement of economical, physical, social and environmental conditions in cities. The vision of such a project could become possible only through the understanding of its potential and weaknesses on site and the effort in promoting or in the case of weaknesses finding solutions. European development programs can collaborate in preserving the wealth of natural and cultural heritage, managing urban resources, establishing integrated urban renewal proposals. The harsh climate conditions, lack of transport nodes in relation to unemployment, and the decline in population in relation to the increasing number of immigrants lead to a distinctive isolation, which in the past may had contributed in the preservation of a particular cultural identity of the people of Florina, but today blocks the way to sustainable urban development.

Keywords: *Florina, potential, weaknesses, sustainable urban development*

1. On urban development

"Florina and urban development: potential and weaknesses on site" was presented during the course: "Urban Policies in SE Europe" (assist. prof. E.G. Gavra). The course examines, through a series of lectures and presentation of specific examples of application, within the regulatory framework and political trends in urban management, with emphasis on the geographic region SE Europe.

Urban development: is a group of activities that affect individual and social welfare through changes in nature or intensity of land use in urban areas and regulating these changes. In this field, Structural Funds interventions have four major objectives; the economic impact in the form of employment openings and businesses;

social impact; environmental impact and use of natural resources. Urban development effects in the sense of motivating citizens in the process that shapes their lives and their urban environment. Its purpose is usually twofold: to nurture the growth of fortified cities and to reduce the disparity between the poor and underprivileged areas. Main objective of urban development is to eliminate inequalities and to deal with the problems arising from intense urbanization and unregulated expansion of the urban fabric¹.

The objectives / policies of urban development pursued over time through a series of programmatic contexts - financial support. One of the first "integrated approaches" development planning was the "Integrated Mediterranean Programmes" of 1986 to 1992. While European economic and monetary union was processed, the ESDP (European Spatial Development Plan) was established, followed by the Study Program on European Spatial Planning, and after those the European Spatial Planning Observation Network in an effort to upgrade spatial planning.

A Community Support Framework is established for the whole country, under which the Regional Operational Programme (ROP) is established. As part of ROP the Special Development Plans of Local Government are implemented to promote forms of endogenous local development (Thoidou 2004: 221-232).

The National Strategic Reference Framework (NSRF) is the reference document of EU programming Funds at national level. Developed under the Strategic Approach for the Cohesion Policy of the European Union, according to which the NSRF "... ensures that contribution from the Funds is consistent with the Community strategic guidelines on cohesion and identifies the link between Community priorities, on the one hand and the NRP on the other..."². Additionally, and mainly due to the financial crisis, funds have been established to promote growth, such as the JESSICA FUND³ as a "new" way of utilizing EU funding to promote sustainable investment and to promote growth in urban areas.

Aim of this paper is to document and present the potential and weaknesses of the city of

Florina and how urban development can be implemented at fulfilling its goals. Reference is also made on the perspectives of the region, and the appropriate action that will lead to an integrated plan for sustainable urban development.

2. Florina

The Prefecture of Florina is located in the northwestern part of Greece and belongs to the Western Macedonia Region. It is bordered on the west by Albania, on the east by the prefecture of Pella, on the north by FYROM and on the southeast and southwest by Kozani and Kastoria prefectures. At the east of the region are the mountain ranges of Mount Vora (Kaimaktsalan), the third highest mountain peak in Greece - 2524 m altitude - and the road crossing of Kelli to Thessaloniki and Kozani. In the west there is the Varnounta Mountain, the highest peak in Greece defined by Oriza or Peristeri (2334m), Vernon maintain with its peak called Vitsi (2128m), while there is a road crossing, Vigla, to Lakes Prespes, FYROM and Albania. Between the mountain ranges are lakes, some of which harbor rare wetlands, including the small and large Prespa, Vegoritida, Lake Petron, the Chimaditis and Zazari.

The Prefecture covers an area of 1,924 sq km of which about 74% is covered by mountainous and hilly areas while only 26% is covered by plains. According to the classification of the NSS (National Statistical Service of Greece), from all the municipalities of the Prefecture, 37% are flat, 16% foothills and mountain 37%. The classification of agricultural areas of the county (areas) in accordance with Directive 75/268 gives 0% lowland, 55.6% and 44.4% favored mountain. The corresponding rates for the region is (0%) plains, 50 i.e. (100%) favored and 40 i.e. (100%) mountain. It is an area of special environmental interest (both natural and anthropogenic).

It is an area that ecosystems coexist (6 Natura areas⁴) which are key factors of good quality life in the region. The natural environment of the county is rich and includes: mountains- Varnounta, Vitsi and Vora, six protected lakes, with special ecological interest, the National Park at the Prespes area, significant

¹ <http://www.infosoc.gr/infosoc/el-GR/services/leksiko/353.htm>

² <http://www.espa.gr/el/Pages/DictionaryFS.aspx?item=146>

³ <http://jessicafund.gr/>

⁴ More on Natura 2000:

<http://eurlex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:32006D0613%2081%29:EN:NOT>

flora and fauna meanwhile the landscape shows transitions.

Climatologically the area is characterized by high rainfall, snowfall, dry periods, frost, hail, local winds. We distinguish the following types of climate in the region: semiarid and Mediterranean which is characterized by alternating a hot - dry season with a cold - wet one.

Furthermore, in Amyndeon area there is significant wine and winemaking tradition. We also note that the County identify noteworthy features of anthropogenic environment, and among others we mention: archaeological sites- such as Petron and St. Panteleimon, interesting villages with special traditional architecture as Nymphaeum, Lechovo, Agio Germano, Psarades, Akritas, Cratero- some of which have been declared protected traditional settlements (Nymphaeum, Psarades) (Gavra 2007: 98-113).

3. Florina: Strengths and weaknesses on site

3.1. Natural and antropogenic features

The natural environment in Florina prefecture along with interesting anthropogenic environment, are most definitely requirements/features of urban development. The most important wetlands in the prefecture are its six lakes, Mikri and Megali Prespa, Zazari, Chimaditis, Lake Petron and Vegoritida. The lakes of Mikri and Megali Prespa are located on the west of Florina.



Lake Zazari is one of the most beautiful lakes in Greece, ideal for leisure

Very close to the borders of the region we come across mountain ecosystems, including:

Varnountas, the Vernon (or Vitsi), and Vora (Pella), which is the natural boundary of the prefectures of Florina and Pella (Dimitrakopoulos 1989: 66). One of the last expansions of the bear (*ursus arctos*) in Europe is the mountains of Florina, which is the typical representative of wild mammals.

In the last quarter of the 20th century the prefecture of Florina has made significant progress in all areas of social life, as seen in the rest of Greece. Despite these phenomena, which elsewhere led to the leveling of local identity, the local folk tradition and memories of historical events emerged over time as the most important chapter of Florina. Of course, culture is not only what we produce in the present but also the historical past. Nooadays, the Byzantine period is presented in the Archaeolocial Museum of Florina. At the Archaeological Museum of Florina are exhibited archeological finds from the region of Florina, ancient Lyngistis. The Museum of Contemporary Art includes an important collection of 480 paintings, sculptures, prints and artistic photography. The Artists Gallery of Florinian Artists and other interesting museums located in villages of the county, truly display the modern interesting cultural reality of the region today.

The importance of natural and human environment of the prefecture of Florina, particularly that of the environment of the rural area gives a strong comparative advantage to the region (growth potential, in this case). Among others, recently it has been established at European level, with the designation of the county as one of the most remarkable agro destinations in Europe⁵. Since, Florina was on the route of Via Egnatia, obviously ancient engraving, according to Latin author Cicero, and Polybius, one sees that tourism development and the history of Florina simply continue their temporal route⁶.

3.2. Weaknesses on site

During the first year of the Civil War, Florina prefecture experienced all the problems of economic backwardness and tortuous development that in the same period almost in

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http://ec.europa.eu/enterprise/sectors/tourism/eden/destinations-2007/index_en.htm

⁶ <http://www.florina.gr/el/Πολιτισμός/Η-Τουριστική-ανάπτυξη/>

entirely all Greek countryside was facing. The inherent economic depression, low farm income (in 1961, 86% of the population of the county were registered as farmers), and the recent trauma of German occupation and the civil war led to a significant part of the working population, firstly in urbanization, secondly in emigration. Whole villages were decimated; each village of the region shrank. The population of the county declined by about 22% since the early 1940's until the 1960's (from 88,895 in 1940 to 69,351 in 1951 and 67,356 residents in 1961). The communication of expatriates with their homelands marked the history of the last decades of the county and is to this date element of the particular profile of Florina.

The distinguishing qualities of the region have survived despite the devastation of mountain villages and social modernization of lowland communities, which was accelerated, during the 1960 and 1970, with a series of projects: the establishment and operation of some large industrial units (Ptolemaida, Xino Nero, Amyntaio). On the one hand created "one of the largest lignite centers in the world"⁷ but the drying of the Chimaditis' and Petron'lakes, changes in crops and the asphaltting of provincial road network seriously affected the natural environment. The electricity plants across the county created an additional problem of air pollution.

The collapse of socialism in the Balkans and the opening of borders has created new positive outlook for the prefecture of Florina. The initial financial precipitation of these countries followed a period of rationalization and development and the effect of this mutation is the entry of Bulgaria and Romania to the European Union (January 1st 2007). Unfortunately, due to political problems with neighboring FYROM, the county does not enjoy the expected benefits. Particularly we note that FYROM, being in conflict with Greece deviates from the basic economic goal that of its economic growth, resulting in high unemployment and low incomes. In such a situation the contribution to the development of the Prefecture of Florina is expected to be very small (Varsakelis 2007: 178).

Today the population of the county is 54,751 people, according to the 2001 census, of which

50.9% are male and 49.1% female. In total population at county level, 18,880 people are economically active, 88.05% of which are employed and 11.95% unemployed. In the economically active population 41% are self-employed, 39% are employees, while the remaining 20% have part-time jobs⁸.

The causes that drive urban expansion in Florina are various and complex and may include:

- a. lower land prices in non-urbanized areas than in central cities,
- b. increase of personal income,
- c. desire to live in green areas,
- d. desire of the owners of rural land to remain in their "place", etc.

While many factors promote urban sprawl mainly due to economic reasons, all can be controlled to some extent by the makers of regional and spatial policy. Regarding the licensing and control of land use, our country has imposed a complex system that involved too many agencies (ministries, chambers, organizations etc.). It is evident that there is a lack of coordination as well as not planning cities with the logic of unity and programming. The controversial status of use, the "unknown" and many owners blocks any promoted reforms. Moreover, modernist modes of intervention through flexible planning zones always met resistance from traditional structures (smallholders, interests of investors), which alter or destroy the targets of an organized plan of public intervention and control (Getimis 1993: 320-321). Piecemeal decisions (for example arbitrary regularization) maintain the reproductive system of political clientele "removing the vision for an integrated urban development plan" (Getimis 1993: 317-319).

Lack of transport nodes

The main problem the county is facing is its road axis. One component of the problem is the vertical connection of the county with the "Egnatia Odos" (Egnatia highway) and secondary the condition of provincial and district road network.

Sometimes the lack or the wrong temporal prioritization, sometimes late claims, sometimes the rigidity of ministries is responsible for

⁷ <http://www.pepkm.gr/>

⁸

http://www.anflo.gr/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=3&Itemid=25

cleavage of the county from “Egnatia Odos”. The roads of Vevi –Florina and Ptolemaida- Vevi have become, under the current conditions, the main roads of the county and have contributed significantly to the removal of geographic isolation. This isolation will automatically be diminished while creating the vertical axis connecting Florina-Ptolemaida with similar specifications to those of the “Egnatia highway”. This means that projects that could have been avoided costed the State; there was loss of time and money that could have been allocated to other needs of the county, if Egnatia Odos was to be designed primarily to the fitted needs of the region.

There is a necessity to connect the county with Greece’s main motorway given the weather conditions prevailing in the region. The failure to give emphasis to the Nea Egnatia Odos design, given the non-crossing of the county, made the focus of an entirely new vertical axis of Egnatia standards lose funding opportunities from previous development projects. Even today there are efforts to integrate the work of widening the current road leading to the city and ending of the existing Egnatia route by ESPA funds without success. It’s a paradox on behalf of the state that on the preliminary draft of the special spatial framework for tourism neither Niki (border with FYROM) was named between the international gateways or the road Niki-Kozani-Larissa between key vertical roads in the country. It is obvious that all efforts offer temporal resolution to a growing problem leading to decisions that lack planning and often situational awareness of the county road (Kolokontes *et al* 2009: 211-212).

Moreover, TRAINOSE, in implementing the provisions of the bill for the reorganization and development of the Greek railway, among other things removed lose making routes and proceeded to suspend dozens daily. The most painful reorganization of the railroad was the recent suspension of services in Western Macedonia that left Florina without train! The section of Line Edessa - Amyntaio - Florina, was closed for about five years for the renewal of the line, which was financed by EU funds and OSE loans. With a cost of around € 80 million the line has been renovated with good standards and started operating in late October 2006⁹.

⁹There were four rail services daily from Thessaloniki to

Influx

Understanding the demographic factors of a society is essential for the development of a healthy urban policy. The characteristics of the population are changing in response to changing social, political and economic forces. Low-income groups, as the immigrants, converge towards the center of cities where housing prices are lower. The inner city is characterized, and as the economic crisis deepens, as abandoned by businesses and waste. The large influx of immigrants is changing the profile of cities, introduces cultural diversity and new social issues.

According to the NSS, we note that there is only recording of immigrants legally residing in the country without counting the ones from EU countries; in 2005 the number of foreign nationals increased reaching to 4% of the total population of the county. Most of the immigrants were from Albania, while smaller percentages recorded by FYROM and other EU countries (Gavra 2007:74).

One of the basic principles of the EU is the free circulation of citizens. However, this freedom is the cause of a serious problem of mass immigration, particularly in urban areas. In an area so close to the border, the influx from neighboring countries creates social concern and reinforces the feeling of the local population that some jobs are suitable only for immigrants. The result of such behavior is the manifestation of inertia on behalf of local populations. Combined with low birth rates, the gaps in the tax system are compensated by immigrants, and thus contribute to the local economy.

The aging population

“Disappointing” is the first official provisional data of Census announced by the Greek Statistical Authority showing clearly that Greeks are far fewer than the previous census in 2001, as ELSTAT estimates. At the general census of 2001 the population of the country had been measured in 10,964,020 people, while in 2009 according to ELSTAT that exceeded, as estimated at 11,282,571 people. The population of the prefecture of Florina in the 2001 census was

Florina (at 6:18, 11:12, 15:10 19:11) respectively and four others from Florina (at 06:08, 09:41, 15:01, 19:26) with occupancy of 75%. In cases of heavy snow train was the safest means of transportation and now the people and departments of universities feel that with this move OSE completely cut them off from the rest of Greece.

54,768 inhabitants, while the 2011 census 51,080. Main cause of the population reduction is the aging of the population and certainly was exacerbated by the economic crisis of recent years. The wave of immigration over the last year due to the financial crisis and unemployment led also to the same result (Gavra 2007: 67-70).

Unemployment

The unemployment rate in Florina was 18.1% (2005). The highest percentage of unemployment (44%) affects young people, creating escape trends to the active population¹⁰. The loss of a job can be a harrowing event, particularly where social safety nets in the city are already pressured or unavailable. The shock of personal safety due to job loss may trigger / or worsen a chain reaction within the individual's social network, expanding to their community. In addition, unemployment worsens the conditions of poverty and inequality, which increase the likelihood of criminal behavior and thus have a negative impact on public safety. The migration to large urban centers and abroad is a natural consequence.

4. Prospects for sustainable urban development

Restoring nature in the city is not a luxury, and is vital to the health and wellbeing of people. The city of Florina, must become more human and friendlier to the environment, cash its green stocks and expand the presence of so many natural systems located within its boundaries. This can be achieved through a concerted program of sustainable urban management to maintain and expand green spaces, protect waterways, encourage green development and educate the younger generation and adults in the implementation of this policy. Such initiatives can greatly benefit the physical and mental health of residents while helping the environment. Citizen participation is essential to the success of any such program through initiatives that could be adopted by the city if it had the active cooperation and support. These may be:

- Expansion of green spaces
- More Planting

- Reduction of Urban Expansion
- Exploitation of Urban Water Streets
- Sustainable management of waste-recycling
- Alternative energy¹¹

The residential development could be concentrated along transport routes and nodes that facilitate access to public transportation, labor, services and other facilities, leaving more open space within cities. In this way and through concerted efforts and appropriate infrastructure the reliance on cars would be minimized. Creating flexible urban zones is the way which makes the city safer and friendlier to the environment.

Urban zone is a form of regulation that controls the type and intensity of land use. Into predetermined zones, certain types of growth as independent family homes (low density) or multistory apartment buildings (high density) which are compatible with one another are permitted. The urban area can also adjust the plan and height of the building, the amount of the surface percentage that it can occupy, the location of the building in a growth area, rates of different types of sites in the area (i.e. green space, shaded area) and how much parking place must be provided¹².

The new urban development means more than just to construct buildings and roads. Electricity, police services, removal and disposal of waste, road maintenance and health facilities are between the demands of the new development. These services do not appear overnight but governed by a gradual development as a general increase in development and population. The residential development requires commercial services, access to employment areas, schools and recreational activities. This emphasizes the need for planning and scheduling of public improvements so that the services are available as needed by the growing population. For any city the public transportation system is essential in order to function efficiently and effectively. However, urban expansion in the region doesn't support alternative modes of transportation

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http://www.proudcities.gr/Greek/Sustainable_Urban_Management_Greek.pdf

¹²

http://www.proudcities.gr/Greek/Sustainable_Urban_Management_Greek.pdf

¹⁰ Ministry of Economy and Finance, National Strategic Reference Framework 2007 - 2013, Athens, January 2007, page 27

such as public transport and cycling, promoting instead more personal ways of transport, for example car use.

Urban expansion also has a social dimension. The population is disproportionately redistributed. Those removed from urban areas with high density to lower density areas tend to be wealthier and therefore can afford to live in these areas. The issue is presented to the competent designers with a particular question - how to balance social equality with urban development. One of the most serious issues facing Europe today, but also the region of Florina, is the changing face of the population, from youthful and healthy, to elderly and vulnerable. Because the elderly are often unable to care for themselves, their families are smaller and scattered in various towns and villages than in the past, existing and new services should be developed to cover the needs of the elderly and not only.

Florina is the first urban center encountered when coming from Albania or FYROM. Thus, the establishment of a commercial hub seems feasible with the contribution of domestic and EU funds. In Florina's Industrial Area a transit center is already in use. The normalization of political problems with FYROM could help the region to facilitate trade with its neighbors, and promote its development (Gavra 2007: 61). To this direction, in December 1995 (Official Gazette No. 823/17-02-1995) by decision of local government bodies A and B grade, Cooperatives, Associations and Individuals the Florina Development (ANFLO) was founded, which was an important vehicle for growth for the county. Since May 2006, ANFLO is certified with the Quality Management System (QMS) in the standards of EN ISO 9001:2000. Since 07/04/2008 ANFLO was re-certified under a new quality system (Certificate No.: 760/D/2008, EUROCERT / 3) for the following purposes: "technical support of local authorities, consulting services and studies. Planning, design and maturation, implementation, monitoring and management of co-financed projects".

The preservation and enhancement of traditional custom revival, such as "Foties" and the Carnival of Xino Nero, is vital for the county. Also cultural events, which are no longer traditions, such as "Prespeia", with the necessary physical participation of the residents are presented as an asset to Florina. Therefore, the

contribution of local clubs like "Aristotle" is very important. Another key development agency in the region, is the University of Florina (PD 9/11-4-2003 founded in the same year and began operation). The Department of Balkan Studies, with its international prospects can become more competitive, particularly in the Balkans, contributing to the development of Florina and beyond. The two departments of education of the University contribute successfully to the local economy, by reducing unemployment, promoting the city's image, etc. (Gavra 2007: 62). Integrated programs and events designed by local actors, along with the contribution of the Department of Fine and Applied Arts in Florina, could lead to the promotion of both cultural reserve and natural environment of the area.

The natural and cultural heritage as a growth element, its preservation and development is an important factor of regional development. The wealth of cultural landscapes in combination with physical characteristics as an expression of identity must be preserved. The options proposed are the preservation and promotion of cultural landscapes with special historical, aesthetic and ecological importance, rise of their value and comprehensive strategies to protect cultural heritage at risk. The conservation and creative redesigning of urban ensembles worthy of protection aims to awaken the contribution of urban policy and spatial development concerning cultural heritage for future generations (Andrikopoulou 2004: 194-195). The archaeological sites of the county, the museums, the churches, and the museum of contemporary art, the art gallery, and the workshops of artists from Florina do not receive any promotion from local agencies and visitors often find them closed without notice. The same applies to historical monuments such as the "Cave of Zachariadis" in Prespa, where there was no point in spending 450.000 € from INTERREG III for restoration, since the visitor ignores the existence of such a site. (Kolokontes and others 2009: 210).

An integral part of the county's aesthetic is the local architecture, revealed in the remaining buildings along the Sakouleva River, which constitute examples of this type of architecture. The vertical construction along the river, instead of preserving them, would be easier if enlargement of the town plan had been followed. The flexibility shown by the other counties of western Macedonia is not to be seen

here. The completion of the river's restoration is necessary as well as better cleaning (like the rest of Florina,) as a sign of civilization. Grandiose plans for example the lift to the "Cross", at the hill of the city, could be left aside for the moment and give focus to the real issues of the city.

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HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY OF THE SOUTHWESTERN PART OF PASA SANCAĞI IN EARLY OTTOMAN PERIOD: SOME ASPECTS OF THE SETTLEMENT NETWORK

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Abstract

The subject of this presentation is an investigation on the location and description of the settlement network of the southwestern part of the Pasa Sancağı, which corresponds to the current region of Western Macedonia within the nation state of Greece including the areas of Kastoria, Florina, Kozani, in Early Ottoman Period (15th – 17th centuries), as well as how this may be interpreted as a factor of social and economic development. The settlements are studied in terms of their location in the area and relative geographical (economic, social) position. The natural geographical context is examined and the geographical scope of the area of study is defined. The insufficient sources (Ottoman tax registers) of the Early Ottoman period are mentioned and commented on. The primary and secondary settlement network is identified and a hierarchy of the settlements is proposed based on the number of timariot (feudal) homes, in conjunction with the examination of the settlement network as per the economic geographical territory, not for the total time period, given that the facts are insufficient for an overall approximation. The administrative division of the area of south-western part of the Pasa Sancağı in the Early Ottoman Period is provided in two chronological phases, which define the period of study: one at the end of the 15th century and one in the second half of the 17th century. This study provides data about the existence of the significant settlements which are administrative headquarters for the regions.

Keywords: *Pasa Sancağı, Western Macedonia, Ottoman period, Kastoria, Florina, Servia, settlement network, handicraft trade settlements*

1. Introduction

This paper presents some aspects of the settlement network of the southwestern part of the Pasa Sancağı in Early Ottoman Period (15th – 17th centuries). It is a geographical territory corresponding to the current region of Western Macedonia within the nation state of Greece. The military administrative area of Pasa Sancağı (sanjak or sancak of Pasa) or Liva-i- Pasa belonged to the eyalet of Rumeli or Rumeli beylerbeyliği of the Ottoman Empire from 15th until 17th century, Later, the huge territory of the Pasa Sancağı was divided into smaller

sancaks and the western parts of Macedonia were incorporated into the sancaks of Thessaloniki and Skopje (Kotzageorgis 2007). In this paper we use the term *southwestern part of the Pasa Sancağı* as a geographical and not as a historical or political one, whereas in the time period we investigate the region of current Western Macedonia was included in Pasa Sancağı but not as an isolated administrative subdivision of it.

The study of the settlement network of a region falls within the discipline of human geography (Garner 1967: 303) and, as it was previously explored, the analysis concerns human geography within the historical context, therefore historical (human) geography (Johnston *et al* 1981). These settlements are the most common area of study by individuals concerned with historical geography, especially within the Greek domain (Ε. Δημητριάδης 1985: 18).

The settlements are considered to be points within the geographical area. The settlement network of a region is deemed to be the settlement nexus, which is comprised of the aggregate of settlements and the relationships between them. These relationships relate to the allocation of activities from a functional perspective (the functions of town planning) within the geographical area. The primary settlement network is deemed as that which is comprised of the largest settlements, which are distinguished in terms of population (population scale) and the significant functions of town planning, although the secondary settlement network consists of the smaller settlements. The distinction between the primary and secondary settlement networks is not only made on the basis of population, but is also complemented by other criteria – such as demographic, social and economic ones – or a combination of criteria which corresponds with functions and differentiates the settlements. The primary and secondary settlement networks are presented in this paper as the derivatives of the socio-economic domain (Lefebvre 1972, Λαγόπουλος 1994: 124) as well as in conjunction with the economic climate, so that regional variations can be identified.

The settlement network of Western Macedonia in the Early Ottoman Period indicates an interesting development (Τσότσος 2011: 206-

211, 445-453). During the first centuries (15th to early 16th century), the settlements were totally integrated into the feudal system of the Ottoman Empire, with agriculture as the main area of production. By the end of the 16th and in the 17th century, certain mountainous settlements indicated significant economic, demographic and cultural evolution, passing through successive phases of development: animal husbandry, cottage industry-handicrafts and trade. Some of these settlements evolved into local settlement centres with signs of early urban development, promoting trade relations with the northern Balkans and central Europe and interfacing with the urban centres of these countries via merchants who had emigrated, resulting in permanent establishments.

2. The natural geographical context

Western Macedonia is a mountainous area and is characterized by long mountain ranges and intermediary highlands (Κόλιας 1948: 330). The mountains of Western Macedonia consist of four mountain ranges, three of which (eastern, central and western) have parallel directions from northwest to southeast, whereas the fourth barricades the geographical area toward the south. The continuous mountain ranges isolate the intermediary areas and constitute an obstacle to communications. In between the three parallel mountain ranges, two extensive, basin-like plateaus- highlands are formed with an average altitude of 500 to 800 metres, which comprise the primary natural, geographical feature of the western Macedonian region.

On the basis of the data above, the natural environment of Western Macedonia is constituted by three essential, parallel mountain ranges: eastern, central and western (Northern Pindos). In between these ranges that in some way comprise the “structural frame” of the region, two basins extend east and west. The three ranges and the intermediary basins constitute the basic and dominant geomorphological characteristic of the western Macedonian region. The structure of the natural, geographical area enables transportation towards the north, via the Florina plateau, while obstructing Western Macedonia’s communication with its neighbouring regions. In the east, toward Central Macedonia, there are

passages to the northern and southern edges of Mount Vermion, whereas in the central range, the only low altitude passage is the one between Mount Velia and Mount Bourinos, which also connects Kozani with Siatista and, overall, the eastern basin and the valley of Upper Aliakmon.

3. Historical – social – economic development structure of the settlement network

The absolute prevalence of the feudal system during the 15th and in the beginning of the 16th century resulted in the existence, during this period, of a single socio-economic domain. In the lowlands (basins and valleys above and around the Aliakmon River) as well as in the mountainous region, all of the settlements belonged to Timarli Sipahi (Timariots), and the main activity of the inhabitants was farming, whereas the mountain settlements were smaller in terms of population compared with those in the basins. According to our investigation, during the 15th to 16th centuries, the hierarchy within the settlement network disappeared, a fact which is attributed to the feudal method of production. Continuity as well as stability is ascertained in the settlement network, in which the positions of the settlements of the 15th to 17th centuries are identical to those of the 20th (Tsótsos 2011: 206-234).

The settlements of Muslim immigrants had not reached massive proportions yet and the Muslim contingency was minimal. The immigration of the Yürük Turks from Asia Minor continued until the 17th century (Gökbilgin 1957:265). Alongside the Muslim immigration from Asia Minor during the 17th century, the phenomenon of Islamization was occurring in Western Macedonia to some Greek populations, mainly in the basin of Upper Aliakmon: the regions of Grevena and Anaselitsa (Voio) and a few settlements south of Kastoria. These populations, called Vallahades, maintained the Greek language, many customs and traditions (Καλινδέρης 1977: 315-366 and Τσέτλακα 2011: 171-190). The immigration of Muslims, in addition to the local Islamization of the 17th century, incited disruptions to the settlement network as well as to the migration of the populace on a local scale.

Meanwhile, during the same period, the

mountain settlements of Pindos (Samarina, Smixi etc) were small, self-sufficient agricultural settlements, in lower positions at the depths of the valleys, and from the 16th century they began to develop substantial animal husbandry and cottage industry activities (Tsótsos 2011: 115-459).

Due to the decline of the Ottoman Empire, from approximately the middle of the 16th and especially during the 17th century, a dichotomy becomes apparent between the lowlands and highlands in the unified socio-economic domain. Within the deteriorating socio-economic conditions, the Muslim and Christian populations in the lowlands were engaged in primary production and were characterized by economic and intellectual stagnation. In the mountainous region, the Christian populations were involved in primary, secondary and tertiary production and manifested economic and intellectual development, a precursory phenomenon to the imminent urbanization that was to occur in some of them during the 18th century (Βακαλόπουλος 1958, passim and Βακαλόπουλος 1988, passim). The economic and social stagnation of the lowland area – in which the Ottoman economic structure of the era prevailed and the Muslim as well as the Christian contingency resided (compared to the developed mountainous area where only Christians resided) – was also a common phenomenon of this period in the neighbouring regions of Thessalia and Epirus (Μουτσόπουλος 2004: 351-355). This phenomenon gave rise to a feature and basic ingredient for the regeneration process of the Greek settlements in the 18th to 19th centuries (Ε. Δημητριάδης 2004: 357.).

The development of the mountainous region was related to the retreat of the Christian populations to the highlands, after the middle of the 16th century, which resulted in the mountainous settlements flourishing, through the development of animal husbandry, followed by the manufacture of products arising from animal husbandry activities, the circulation of capital within the economy and the development of trade in many of the mountainous and semi-mountainous settlements. These settlements, and in particular those that had expatriate merchants in the northern Balkans and Central Europe during the 17th to 19th centuries, have been named by G. Tsotsos as *handicraft trade*

settlements (Τσότσος 2011: 446-471).

A succinct diagram of the socio-economic structure of the settlement network's development, as described, is provided in the Table below.

<i>West Macedonian space</i>	<i>15th century</i>	<i>16th century</i>	<i>17th century</i>
lowlands	timar (feudal) system farming	transition from timar system to creation of chiflik (large landed estates)	creation of chiflik
mountainous regions		development of animal husbandry	cottage industry handicraft trade

It is worth noting that no Muslim settlement, among those that were established by the Turkish settlers, was developed into a town or a handicraft trade settlement. The Muslim settlement - administrative centers of the eastern lowlands remained underdeveloped demographically and economically even until the 19th-20th centuries. (Τσότσος 2011:485-488).

Kastoria and Servia, which were two cities with mixed populations (both Christian and Muslim), maintained their position as principal urban centers of Western Macedonia throughout the 14th-17th centuries; they had already established this position in the Byzantine period. In contrast, two Greek - Christian settlements which developed into cities from the end of the 17th century and later, Kozani and Siatista, had absolutely no Muslim population. They were not connected to the Ottoman administrative system but only with the corresponding Greek ecclesiastical system, as they were headquarters for ecclesiastical administration. The fact that the headquarters of the metropolis of Sisani was transferred to Siatista at the end of the 17th century, as well as the headquarters of the diocese of Servia to Kozani in 1745 (Λιούφης 1924: 51, Δάρδας 1989: 47-84), validates the role of the two cities in the settlement network on behalf of the Greek-Orthodox community of Western Macedonia. It also emphasizes the dichotomy between the Muslim population – which remained in the context and conventions of feudalism that was based on agricultural production – and the enslaved Greek-Christian population, which attempted to become modernized via the development of handicraft

trade settlements and the connection to European countries, in order to transcend frontiers and the impervious nature of Ottoman feudalism.

In conclusion, the Christian populations of Western Macedonia, through the process of *population growth in the mountainous region – turning to animal husbandry – developing cottage industry, handicraft and trade – emigration to European countries*, found their way toward economic development and to intellectual and national awakening in the 18th-19th centuries (Καρύδης 2004: 343).

4. Administrative division

In 15th and the first half of 16th centuries the geographical territory of Pasa Sancağı (sanjak) or Liva-i-Pasa extended from Adrianopolis (Edirne) up to mountain Pindos and lake Prespa (Todorov and Velkov 1988). Current Western Macedonia was included in this sanjak (map 1), and was divided in smaller provinces: *nahiyes* or *vilayets* (15th – 16th century) and, later, *kazas* (17th century). In 17th century Western Macedonia still belonged to Pasa Sancagi, as mentioned in Ottoman tax registers (Stoikov 1970, 208-210) and Hadschi Chalfa's travel (Hadschi Chalfa 1812, 97-99).

Map 1: Pasa Sancağı in 1525. Modification from D. E. Pitcher 1972, pict. 26, by Tsotsos 2011, 424



4.1. The administrative division at the end of the 15th century

Significant inferences regarding the exploration of the land-use planning network and the administrative division of the southwestern part of the Pasa Sancağı toward the end of the 15th century constitute the Ottoman tax register of 1490-1491, published by Bulgarian historians (Todorov and Velkov 1988). This register contains records with the total sum of poll tax (*haraç*, *cizye*) for the area on the Balkan peninsula, per vilayet and sanjak. It is evident in the text that the sanjak was a broader administrative area compared to the vilayet, and one sanjak included more than one vilayet. The sanjak was divided into vilayets, contrary to what was happening in the 19th century (Inalcik 1987: 108). Western Macedonia, with the exception of the vilayet of Grevena, appeared to belong to the Paşa sancağı. It is also noted that at the beginning of the 16th century an individual sanjak of Florina is mentioned, possibly consisting just of the city of Florina (Todorov and Velkov 1988: 9).

It is apparent from the register's content that the ambit of the vilayets in the western Macedonian region at the end of the 15th century was approximately that of a small prefecture in the current era (such as the

prefectures of Kastoria, Florina and Grevena) or of a small province of a bigger prefecture (such as the current prefectures of Voio, Eordaia, Kozani within the prefecture of Kozani). The references in the vilayet tax register also comprise indirect references to large settlements, which were the corresponding capitals of the vilayets. In this way, from the register's records which pertain to a number of other Balkan vilayets, it is possible to ascertain the following western Macedonian vilayets with the corresponding number of residences (*hane* - households), per year of registration (in parentheses are our suggestions for the identifying names of the vilayets) (Tsotsos 2011: 155-159) and in the sequence of their entries in the original document (from two tables, entitled «Données issues du registre pour le džizie perçu en 1490-91 par vilayets» and «Donées générales pour le džizie perçu en 1490-91 par sandžaks», in Todorov and Velkov 1988: 12, table 1 and 22, table 2).

<i>vilayets</i>	<i>year 1490</i>	<i>year 1491</i>
Praspa (Prespa)	1968 hane	2062 hane
Şişan (Sisani)	1583 »	1644 »
Serviya - Serfidže (Servia)	3350 »	3528 »
Grabene (Grevena)	6885 »	6656 »
Filorine (Florina)	4051 »	4099 »
Moleskova (Moleskos - Moliskos)	2624 »	2777 »
Kestriye (Kastoria)	4923 »	5153 »
Praspa (Prespa)	2412 »	2582 »
Aştinili (area of Chroupista – current Argos Orestiko)	8153 »	8514 »

The name Prespa (*Praspa*) is mentioned twice in the records with different numbers of residences: the first time it is mentioned in between the vilayets *Ohrid* (Achrída), *Debritza* (Debre - Dibra) and *Mokra* (next to Lake Prespa), and second time it is mentioned between the (neighbouring) vilayet of Kastoria and the vilayet of Aştinili. Therefore, the region around Lake Prespa is possibly divided into two homonymous vilayets, one of which is possibly further north (towards Ohrid) and the other, further south (towards Kastoria). A similar division into two administrative districts – one in the north and one in the south – is encountered during the 19th century in the geographical area of the basin of Prespa (Stoikov1970: 209, note 41). The name *Praspa* rather than Prespa is not unusual as the homonymous diocese is cited as the diocese of *Πρεασπών* (17th century) and *Πρασπών* (1706) (Gelzer 1902: 19-20, 29-31). The area of Gora – Mokra it is, also, well known as the homonymous diocese (17th century) of the Archdiocese Achridos (Ochrid) (Γεδεών 1905: 593), and corresponds to the current region of Pogradets, southwestern of lake Ochrid.

The vilayet *Aştinili* (which is found, in the register's sequence, between Kastoria and Prespa) is referred to, verbatim, in the Turkish text as *vilayet Aştinili and Yanoli village*. There is no clarification about whether Yanoli was part of the vilayet of Aştinili or was located outside of it, and whether the tax collector was merely assigned to this village as well, in addition to the vilayet within his jurisdiction. The same vilayet is mentioned in an Ottoman archive of 1519, where it appears that it was named after a Turkish toparch (timariot ?) called *Aştin*

(Gökbilgin 1956: 264, note 41). According to the publisher of this archive, Chroupista (the current Argos Orestiko) was the settlement centre of this vilayet. Consequently, toward the end of the 15th century and the beginning of the 16th century, the vilayet of *Aştinili* must have expanded out around Chroupista in approximately the south and the southwestern part of the current prefecture of Kastoria. Since the number of residences in the vilayet was bigger than the rest of the vilayets, it must be assumed that it occupied a large area, possibly even the north part of the current province of Voio, in addition to the entire mountainous expanse of Grammos. Its capital was, quite likely, Chroupista, although this is not absolutely certain, as the city is not explicitly mentioned in the register.

The vilayet *Şişan* must be identical to the vilayet of Sisani, because it is referred to along with its neighbouring vilayets of northern Epirus *Korça*, *Kolonja* (Koritsa, Kolonia), but also because according to other Ottoman tax records it was known as the administrative region of *Isin* in 1445 and as the *vilayet of Isin* in 1481 (Τσότσος 2011: 138-144). The vilayets for this region are mentioned in the records in this order: *Korça*, *Kolonja* (Koritsa - Kolonia) - *Muzeqeja* (Muzakia of southern Albania) - *Opar* (Opari, west of Koritsa) - *Şişan* (in the published text it is also referred to as *Šišan*) - *Vulkašin*, *Dimo vojvoda*. The last vilayet is unknown to us, but from the content of the register it appears to be located somewhere within the current area of southwest Albania. According to oral information by Dr. Pirros Thomos, the former director of restoration and preservation of

monuments in the region of Koritsa, the administrative region Vulkašin - Dimo vojvoda is also known from other Ottoman registers to other scientists of southern Albania, only appearing in the sources during the 15th century. It has not been identified with certitude and is generally located somewhere in the region of Koritsa. From our research, it arose that in a register of 1431-1432 for the Albanian region, there is a reference of a "timar of Vulkašin" in the nahiye of Muzakia (H. Inalcik 1987, 94, p. 116α in the register). According to Gökbilgin (Gökbilgin 1956: 264, note 42), Biglista was the capital of the vilayet Vulkašin (obviously named after the Serb prince Vukašin), in early 16th century.

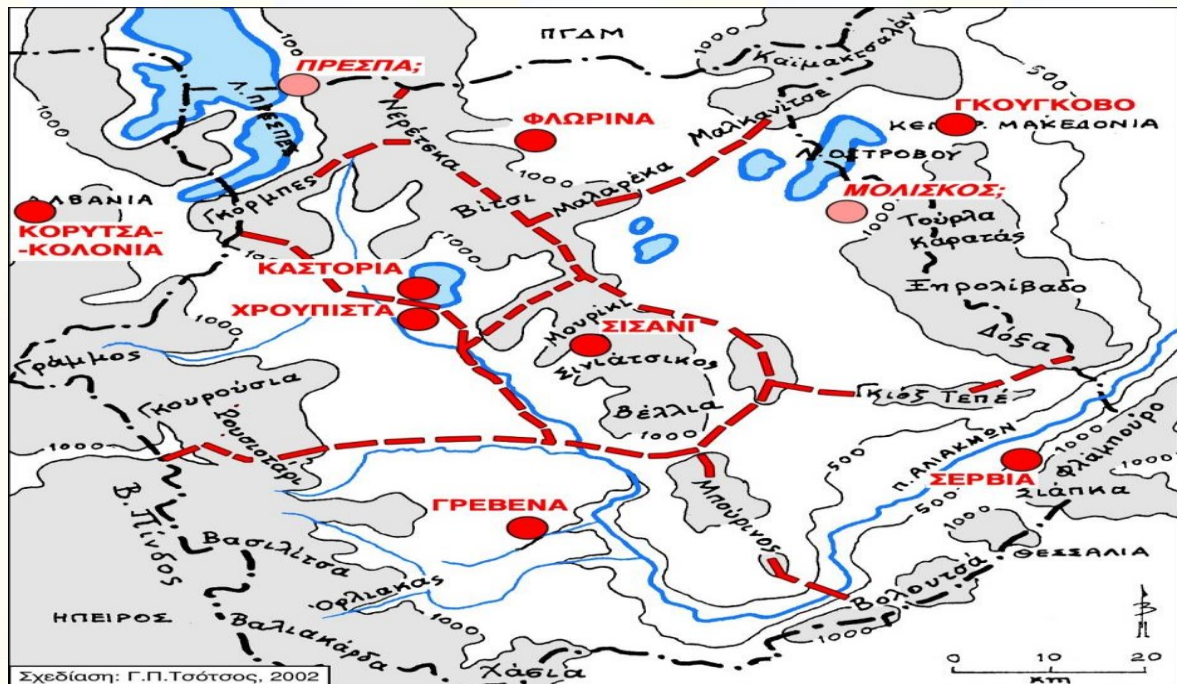
The vilayet of Grevena (*Grabene*) is mentioned along with the vilayets of Epirus and, as it was previously stated, it was the only one in Western Macedonia which was not part of the sanjak of Pasha, but belonged to the sanjak of Ioannina.

It is apparent that the vilayet of *Moleskova* coincided with the area of Moleskos (or Moliskos or Moleshos), which is a name that is known to us from the ecclesiastical province of Moliskos (Τσεκουάρης 1999) and from the post-Byzantine fortress and hamlet of Moliskos. The province of Moliskos and the homonymous city-castle have not yet been identified with certainty, but they are approximately located in the current province of Eordaia. This approximate presumption corresponds with the data of the register, where the vilayet of Moleskova is referred to as being positioned between the vilayet of Florina (to the north of the current province of Eordaia) and the vilayet of *Guguva*, the headquarters of which are identical to Gugovo (currently Vryta of Edessa). Gugovo is found on the east of Lake Ostrovo (Vegoritida), that is, on the north-eastern boundaries of the current province of Eordaia.

The above designations of the vilayets confirm that Sisani, Servia, Grevena, Florina, Kastoria and possibly Chroupista were relatively large settlements in the western Macedonian region during the end of the 15th century, and were the local administrative headquarters for the region (map 2). In contrast, the capitals of the remaining vilayets of Prespa and Moliskos - Moleskova are not known yet. The existence of

an established city named Prespa is disputed (in the sense that it could have been made up of fortified settlements on the island of St. Achilles and scattered settlements in the surrounding area) (Moutsopoulos 1989: 194), but even if it did exist, it is unknown whether it was maintained until the 15th century. Similarly, it is unknown whether the city-castle Moliskos, which is cited at the latest by the 13th century, endured until the end of the 15th century.

Map 2: The natural geographical region of Western Macedonia with the geophysical data nomenclature of the Turkish domination period with the administrative regions and the corresponding headquarters in the area of Western Macedonia by the end of the 15th century



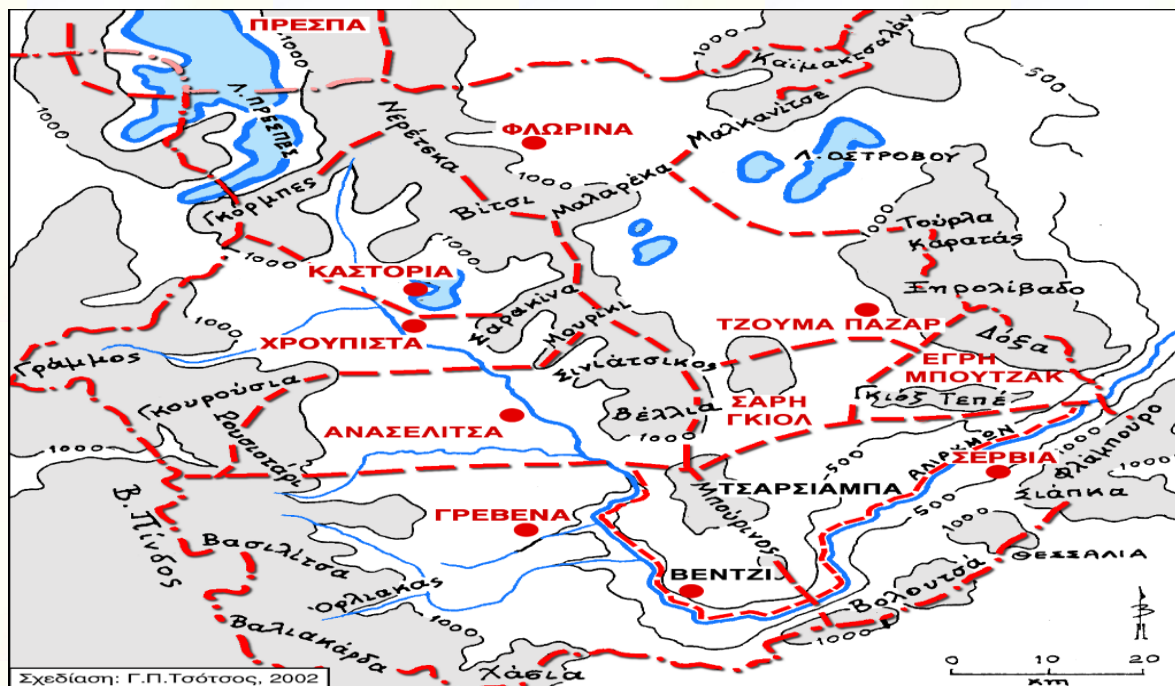
The boundaries of the regions are approximately designated. The headquarters of the regions of Prespa and Moliskos are unknown and located on the map approximately (source: Τσότης 2011: 200)

4.2. The administrative division in the second half of the 17th century

According to the Ottoman sources (B. Δημητριάδης 1973:161-206, Τσότης 2011: 426-427), the most typical administrative division of the western Macedonia region during the second half of the 17th century (map 3) includes the following twelve kazas: Florina, Djuma Pazar, Sarigöl, Egri Boujak, Tsarshiaba, Servia, Ventzi, Grevena, Anaselitsa, Chroupista, Kastoria, Prespes. Also during the same period, isolated references are encountered about the nahiye or kaza Djuma Pazar, nahiye Sisani and Djuma Pazar-Sisani, nahiye Rudnik, nahiye Karabeg-Itsi and the kazas of Chroupista and Anaselitsa. The homonymous settlements-headquarters of these administrative units were settlements positioned in the administrative system of the Ottoman Empire, with the reservation that the settlements-headquarters of the homonymous administrations of Tsarshiaba, Sarigöl, Egri Boujak, Prespes, Karabeg-Itsi are unknown; while the settlements of Ventzi (currently Kentron), Djuma Pazar (currently Charavgi) and Rudnik

(currently Anargiri) are included, they were not continuously and for large spans of time, within the research period, the headquarters of the local administration. In addition, the existence of the city of Grevena is disputed during the 16th to 17th centuries, (a temporarily deserted settlement) (Τσότης 2011:476). At the same time, the headquarters of the Christian ecclesiastical administration (metropolis, diocese) were: Kastoria, Sisani, Servia (17th century) and Kastoria, Siatista, Servia and later Kozani (18th century).

Map 3: An approximate designation of the administrative division into kazas of the western Macedonian region during the second half of the 17th century, according to the Ottoman sources of the period.



The headquarters of the kazas of Prespas, Sarigöl, Egri Boujak, Tsarshiaba are unknown (unidentified) settlements. In addition, the existence of the city of Grevena is disputed during that period and therefore the headquarters of kaza were most likely in another (unknown) settlement. The boundaries of the kazas are approximately ascribed. (source: Τσότσος 2011: 425).

5. Primary network

15th century: The post-Byzantine primary settlement network continued to be maintained in keeping with its basic characteristics. The larger cities remained Kastoria, Servia and Grevena, while Sisani and Moliskos deteriorated and disappeared. The most populous settlement was Katranitsa, which many equate with Moliskos. In the primary network of the 15th century Kastoria, which had developed secondary and tertiary production, was first in the hierarchy. In terms of population, it was one of the biggest cities in the Greek area as well as the southern Balkans.

16th century: The primary network was comprised of Kastoria, Servia, Florina and Chroupista, which were local administrative centers and mixed cities with a Christian majority. During this century, in Western Macedonia as in the greater part of the Balkans, the dichotomy between the Muslim city and the Christian countryside is not yet evident. Kastoria,

with its developed secondary and tertiary production, continued to be the largest city of Western Macedonia.

17th century: The 17th century was a transitional period for the primary settlement network of Western Macedonia, which from then on remained stable until the beginning of the 20th century. New, ostensibly handicraft trade settlements, which had animal husbandry as the origin of their development, developed close to the old medieval cities (Kastoria, Servia). The primary military, administrative and economic centres were Kastoria and Servia, whilst the smaller cities of Florina and Chroupista (currently Argos Orestiko) were merely administrative centres. All four of these cities exhibit an augmented percentage of Muslim population, in comparison to the corresponding percentage of the 16th century. The most significant handicraft trade settlements were firstly, Kozani and Siatista, followed by Selitsa (currently Eratyra), Kleisoura,

Katranitsa (currently Pyrgoi) and Blatsi (currently Vlasti) (Τσότσος 2011:471-484). These settlements were not associated with the administrative system of the Ottoman Empire and exhibited autonomous economic development, dependent on (at the start of the 17th century) the development of animal husbandry activity, and were progressively, indirectly connected with international trade at the end of the same century, through the expansion of economic activity with the ports of the Adriatic, and the cities of the northern Balkans as well as central Europe. The existence of a significant number of immigrants abroad (in the northern Balkans and Central Europe) is considered to be a characteristic aspect of the integration of the handicraft trade settlements in the primary network.

6. Secondary network

The rest of the settlements were integrated into the secondary network and reference is made to the most important ones, with regard to population and city planning functions (Τσότσος 2011: 486-489). Among these are two settlements which had a distinguished participation, for long periods of time, in the administrative system (political or ecclesiastical): Anaselitsa or Lipsista (currently Neapoli) and Sisani. The rest of the settlements with a certain position in the administrative system were the Muslim settlements of Kaylar (currently Ptolemaida), Djuma Pazar, Egri Boujak, Sarigöl, Tsarshiaba (the last three being unidentified) and from these it appears that Kaylar (or Kaylaria) was the most important one. These are settlements which, despite the fact that they were headquarters for local administration, remained insignificant villages, with no particular role in the local economic activity.

It is required to mention that – due to the lack of exploitable demographic data that spans the entire western Macedonia region during the 15th to 17th centuries – two general groups of Christian settlements of the secondary network are identified (Τσότσος 2011: 504-507):

(i) The lowlands and semi-mountainous settlements, which were expected, in the context of the prevailing Ottoman land-owning system, to have become chifliks.

(ii) The mountainous settlements, which

were expected to have developed animal husbandry activities and cottage industry of animal husbandry products. Among the most significant (largest in population and most developed) settlements of this category, for which there is data, were certain Vlach-speaking settlements of Pindos in Western Macedonia such as Samarina and Perivoli, as well as three, also Vlach-speaking settlements of Grammos: Grammosta, Linotopi, Nikolitsa, which indicated exceptional development during the 17th to 18th centuries, only to be later deserted (Κουκούδης 2000: 390-423). Nikolitsa belonged to the Albanian territory, but is included in our research, owing to the fact that it was near the other two settlements that shared the same progress. These settlements also gave rise to artisans, especially Nikolitsa (silversmith activities and garment-making) and Linotopi (painting, icon painting and woodcrafts) (Μαρτινιανός 1957: 133), while Samarina, Perivoli and Grammosta were, generally-speaking, mainly animal husbandry settlements and couriers (mule-drivers).

Among the settlements worth mentioning, were the headquarters of the larger annual trade fairs that also had a seat in the economic system: Mavrovo (currently Mavrochori), Tsotyli, Mavronoros (Τσότσος 2011: 453-459).

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STUDENTS IN THE PEDAGOGIC FACULTY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF WESTERN MACEDONIA AND IN THE FACULTY OF EDUCATION OF THE UNIVERSITY OF BITOLA, DESCRIBE THE BORDERS

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Abstract

In this study we are trying to examine and expand our views on a border's significance: in specific we have asked students in the Pedagogic Faculty (Florina) and in the Faculty of Education, Bitola to define by brainstorming the term 'borders'. We collected 100 definitions and we apply the narrative analysis. When we talk about Brainstorming we refer to the technique Alex Osborn defined in his classic book *Applied Imagination* (3rd revised edition by the author): "a creative conference for the sole purpose of producing a checklist of ideas – ideas which can serve as leads to problem solution – ideas which can subsequently be evaluated and further processed". Theoretical field: Scott See, (University of Maine Libra) Professor of History, invited listeners to consider borders in geographical space, in the history of nations and empires, in human interaction and in the imagination. Distinguishing the border from the borderlands on either side, he illustrated his talk with a series of maps showing the historical evolution of today's 5,500-mile border between the United States and Canada – the world's longest international boundary. He suggested a commonality among all people who live in the space along borders, even though it is uncertain where a borderland ends as one moves away from the boundaries between countries. In Houlton, 20 people formed concentric circles at Cary Library to talk about how language, dress, customs and value systems can become "walls." They examined the concept of "country" and its relationship to personal identity. The Canadians will always be "over-homers" and some people will always be "from away" until the day they die and the obituary reports where they were from . . . originally. Immigrant populations begin to view themselves as "locals" as newer immigrants move in and become "the outsiders." Methodology: We choose the narrative analysis as narrative "is a basic human way of making sense of the world – we lead 'storied lives' (Riessman, 1993), and also is constitutive of reality as well as of identity/subjectivity". Thus we focus on the link between language and power because: Language is not neutral – the power to name things (Foucault, 1980 on 'regimes of truth'). We focus on meaning and interpretation as: Who is narrating to whom and

to what aim and we are interested in the historical, social and local/interactional context of narration.

Keywords: *Borders, Narrative, Students, Language, Meaning, Ideology*

1. Introduction

1.1. Conceptualized remarks concerning the role of national ideology in shaping the borders

With no doubt the aspect of borders consists one of the most significant issues in the modern cultural, historical and social theory. This means that there are many different facets and parameters in order to define, analyze and interpret the multimodal phenomenon of borders in contemporary societies. Factors such as language, religion, customs, geopolitical interests, dominant ideologies, national myths, historical backgrounds, synthesize the framework of a dynamic scientific field, specifically nowadays, under the ideological sovereignty of globalization. With no second thought, the issue of borders consists one of the main landmarks of the western social, political and cultural heritage.

The borders in Europe until the time of Louis XIV were significant only for princes and soldiers in wartime. It is characteristic that none of the conditions signed by Louis XIV contained the term border or a synonym. The French and the American Revolution that followed added a dimension of sovereignty of the people in the territorial limits of the state. This resulted in the border be strictly defined lines that divide nations - states with a high level of internal consistency.

The Cold War divided the European continent into "West" and "East". Within this outline, Western Europe was identified with the "Europe" and that Western institutions such as the European Community, the Council of Europe and NATO, were identified with the "free world". In contrast, Eastern Europe was identified with the "Eurasian unfree Europe. The borders of East - West, although imposed arbitrarily, disregarding historical and cultural bonds between peoples, were stable and not negotiable.

Common cause of disciplines that explore issues with reference to the border is that the

border of one state in one way or another has an impact on perceptions of people living or working near it. Some even argue that people in border areas (borderlanders) differ from those living in non-border areas in terms of living conditions, perceptions of the adjacent country, and forms of interaction that develop on the opposite side. In a more anthropocentric approach, the way they think, feel and behave the people near the border makes the border regions 'social constructions', where different images and concepts are meeting each other.

In geopolitical level wars are still on the border to preserve territorial level, are crossed or violated, in symbolic terms affect the identity of people with different ways of creating dichotomies, tripartite divisions and exclusions or embodiments.

The discussion above, linking the local to the European and global, refers only indirectly to the contemporary discourse on the nation - state in the era of globalization, through the role of culture and cultural identity.

If, for example, someone analyzes the proximity of areas only in terms of distances to justify the favorable context of a cross-while ignoring the perceptions of people on both sides of the border, it is certain that this analysis will be incomplete. The findings of the literature confirm that the actual distances are not always kept pace with the mental. Instead it found that there is a dialectical relationship between space and perceptions, the relationship is a continuous representation over time.

To shape a complete picture about the meaning of the border as one of the main drivers of particular forms of maintaining cultural patterns, and negotiated the largest "community" called state. This is illustrated by the fact that often a potential crisis on the border automatically converted into a total crisis of political and ideological hegemony of the state. In this light the 'boundary' is both a local and a global or supralocal symbol that constantly mutates, transforming the existing format and nations.

In this study area - Florina, Bitola - borders after the fall of the Ottoman Empire were drawn on the map, usually as a result of war or international agreements. What is interesting here is whether in making a map revision is consistent with a corresponding map of perceptions, as the history and culture as images

are dynamic and complex collective representations in relation to the border. In this sense, coexist contrasting images and ideas from a single Balkan identity, but the divisions East - West, North - South, inside - outside the European Union. Images simultaneously even on the same side of the border is not uniform, but affected by the perceptions, expectations and interests of each group, such as business, government, the government and various agencies. However, factors such as language and religion are not in the same year the degree of "liquidity" as the historical and cultural differences, forming a sort of "fixed" at the borders in relation to their role in cross-border interaction.

2. Research Material

In this context, we have students of pedagogical faculty of Florina and Bitola asked to describe briefly the borders.

The research material in combination with research data and the theoretical searches of Social Sciences identify the research area, determine the themes of work and dictate their individual goals.

The involvement with the study of borders is opposed to the concept of globalization, implying a world "without borders", where the restriction imposed by the border makes the human factor seems to be insignificant. The global economic liberalism and developments in cyberspace caused gradual expansion up to abolition of borders. This twist has particularly affected Western Europe because of the growing European Union, where EU residents began to freely pass the boundary of the border. Faced with a world where borders are blunted, scholars have rekindled their interest in a world "without borders", claiming that each of us, but individuals, groups, countries with which we link, we live in a world with borders which eventually normalized our lives.

*Boundaries and borders are cultural creations
susceptible to many different explanations
(Eva 1999: 34)*

During the 90's, the Social Sciences and Cultural Studies focused their interest on the notion boundary. The new political geography, developed sociocultural, approaches to

reconstruct the social structure. The performance of concepts such as ground boundary, diversity, identity etc. in social practice and everyday speech, urged scholars to sensitively portray the relationship between social and spatial limits.

The boundaries and their relation with power, action, interaction, mobility and identities are key points, according to which we can interpret the capacity of the modern world. The relations between the state, nation and identity reinforce the perception that government limits - not as clean lines, but as specific forms of capacity, ideology and practice - become part of everyday practice. The identity and boundaries are the two sides of the same coin, but the limits are structural components of identity.

The historical approach understands the limitations and exclusions as part of the material practices, ideologies and narratives through which social groups are formed and constructed their identities, focusing on the context in which the concepts co-exist society and space.

Lexicographically, the term border is assigned according to Babinotis as:

- a. Real or imaginary line that separates two places, which defines the end of a specific area: e.g. The Evros is the natural border between Greece and Turkey.
- b. According to the Oxford dictionary, the lemma border is literally given as:
- c. Border between the countries / fields with the terms border, boundary, frontier, line.
- d. Metaphorically, as madness limits, limits of human knowledge with the terms verge, limits, boundaries, frontiers.

3. Research Tool

Content analysis is a research tool that is used to determine the existence of certain words or meanings in a text. B. Berelson believes that the analysis of this type is available for the study of the opinions or beliefs of a person or group of persons. I. De Sola Pool gives a different dimension to content analysis, noting that it is ideal for studying meanings and semiotic relationships contained in a written or spoken word. Several years later, M. Palmquist uses content analysis to written texts. However, French literature gives a different dimension to this method, rejuvenating both the technique,

and potential use. The basic principle of content analysis is the identification and collection of data which make up a message, giving the possibility to combine quantitative and qualitative data for exploring notions and the ways in which perceive the subjects. Also provided for detecting and recording historical and cultural elements, while record and analyze the social ideologies. In other words, this analysis compiles the details of the material into thematic categories according to their importance, which are then counted and analyzed as appropriate. Interest many times shows the investigation of the absence of some issues, always in relation to the objectives of the research. The formation of thematic categories, categories and subcategories resulted from the careful study of the responses of students.

4. The Data from Florina and Bitola

4.1. Description of the Borders

4.1.1. *The Borders According to Students from the Faculty of Education in Florina*

1. Borders: Borderline between states, which distinguished the people between different countries in terms of identity, religion, language, ethnicity. Identify the boundaries of a state.
2. Constitute a dividing line between the states and regions of the earth. The borders show us the limits and the area occupied but one state or country than another.
3. The word borders almost always refers to territorial boundaries. It describes the boundaries of two states, separates and defines the territorial boundaries. When used metaphorically is usually chosen to give a negative connotation to the phrase. The borders in this case used with the meaning of the obstacle
4. The term borders literally used to describe the way in which borders are separated. Metaphorically I understand the "limits" as restricting.
5. The borders are only on maps. They are strong to remind us where a country ends and another begins. Otherwise, love, love songs, emotions, thoughts do not exist on maps and should not exist either in the mind.
6. I understand the word borders as the boundaries of a geographical area so as to distinguish the towns, villages, countries. And that in this sense define our national identity, for example Greek, French etc.
7. Borders are certain limits that restrict us. That cannot be easily moved from one limited environment to another. If we talk about geographical boundaries / borders do not define them ourselves.
8. It is an area which separates two pieces. We choose the limits if it is for our daily lives otherwise the others set them for us.
9. The word borders mean the separating in countries. With the borders countries define their territory and separate it from neighboring countries.
10. The borders used to define the territories and avoid misunderstandings between nations.
11. Borders are the boundaries. Boundaries between countries, cities, etc. There are geographical, physical, social boundaries.
12. The borders are imaginary boundaries that separate the states together. The borders established after wars between states. The borders can be natural, geographical.
13. The borders of each country are typically set partitions under various battles that have taken place in the past. Initially the displacement of populations from the border of each country was prohibitive and then "opened" the border and there was more exchange of populations. Always with restrictions.
14. Borders are a red line on the map. Boundaries of ourselves and each other. Financial and trading institution.
15. The borders are the boundaries that come between states and thus delimit the area of each state. Many times other than the legitimate borders of a state we have a natural limit which borders us.
16. Although defined borders between countries, people certainly cannot be separated. Obviously dominate different language, religion and customs of each country. However, people may have emotional attachment and that makes

- the border look even tougher.
17. Borders are the wounds on the body of the world.
 18. Borders are an "invention" of man to separate mentally and in fact some things that in nature do not exist.
 19. Are boundaries between regions that prevent the free movement from one area to another.
 20. The borders are divided into natural and human. Natural borders are the separation lines between areas for geographical reasons. Human borders are the boundaries set by people to overcome barriers between them.
 21. The border is a division of the ranks of people in different countries. The separation of people but cannot be meaningful as possible people of the same race with the same cultural characteristics, customs and traditions belong to different countries because of the border to classify a country or another. We can therefore consider the boundaries in some cases as a mental separation and not as a factor which shows the cultural diversity.
 22. There are two types of borders. The physical and the mental. The physical is the mountains, rivers, lakes and seas. Over time these borders have been used by people for various reasons, mainly economic, trading and social multiple times. Then these natural borders were not enough so constructed imaginary boundaries. Imaginary lines that divide the countries.
 23. The borders are those that put some limits on a country or a nation, so as to avoid reflection in between. The borders show the rights that each country compared with another.
 24. The borders are the geographical boundaries of a country. The boundaries, borders define what the geographical area was practically. Beyond the border there is the same country. Borders are strictly defined and need a passport for crossing the borders of a foreign country.
 25. The borders help us to set some boundaries between different geographical areas, so as not to create problems as they show the rights that each country has.
 26. Borders: national, psychological, racial, enemy
 27. Borders are imaginary lines that establish the principles for an overall peace between the countries. But sometimes borders lead to alienation of people social and psychological. People are alienated.
 28. Boundaries separating the areas between them.
 29. Borders are a kind of restriction and especially separation of states between them which are set by various governments. Some can be more easily accessible than others. Depending on the purpose and procedure used was the use of positive or negative results. In some cases are artificial, while in some other course such as mountains, rivers etc. My view is that the objective existence of the border is not the protection of national identity of peoples, is political reason. National identity is preserved in other ways.
 30. Borders are the delimitation of countries. Are those points separating between states, people and languages. The borders are limits which usually changes after wartime situations.
 31. Imaginary set lines. War, green card, homeland, sacrifice, diplomatic, soldier, wires.
 32. Border in a fenced part. An idea that separates people and places with rules, ideas, tradition
 33. Borders are the coordinates that define a place.
 34. Limits, restrictions, rules and laws.
 35. Florina, Komotini, Orestiada.
 36. Borders are imaginary lines set by the states. Boundaries determine the size and population of each state also distinguish the various characteristics such as culture, language and religion sometime of a state.
 37. I think that the term border is a barrier imposed on the people to alienate, either the border is a geographical or a linguistical one. The term border has its significance as something that limits the space owned and occupied a country. Also to put border between people,

reinforces racist attitudes.

38. Border: boundaries, separation, diversity, countries. We set limits and define the diversity and a specific area.
39. Borders are the boundaries that define the geographic area of a state, its history, its language, its differences with other states.
40. Borders are some limits that bound geographical areas or human relations. For example, geographical areas separated by limits that put them. Likelihood human relations bounded by various social imperatives of the area.
41. Borders: delimitation separation, change, placement of concrete things and people in one place, away from other people.
42. Borders are the boundaries that put the state to anyone unable to enter or come out of a country. Especially when trying illegally.
43. Borders: The limits set a state for its territorial integrity. Also, are the limits that set the man in his social milieu. Generally it is the "groups" created depending on each culture, language and beliefs.
44. Borders are the invention of man creates boundaries between people in order to differentiate them (tribes, peoples, etc.). Many times are natural boundaries. Through relationships developed borders, even hatred.
45. Borders: Is a human/ geographical approach of nations – border, is the so called "red line", is the separation of communities into groups, i.e. nation-mores -culture-customs.
46. It is an imaginary line that separates people who differ among themselves linguistically, religiously, culturally, etc. In some cases people are victims of oppression of states to exploit their advantage without really caring for them.
47. The borders have a practical reason of existence. Divide land. But not people and communities.
48. Borders are the boundaries between nations. They are usually clearly defined and not arbitrary.
49. Borders = Florina
50. Small lines on a map, but which create

huge social and cultural distances between people.

4.1.2. The Borders According to Students from the Faculty of Education in Florina

1. Border is an imagined line which divides the people from one country of the people from other country.
2. Border is a limitation of the things according to certain human attitudes and conclusions.
3. The border is a space without real existence.
4. The border is a measure. It exists in order not to exceed the golden mean.
5. The border between the countries presents a natural difference between languages, cultures and beliefs.
6. The border is a mathematical segment. Its beginning is the differentiation, but his end is the division.
7. In my opinion, the borders between the countries don't exist. Only common points exist, which should be identified.
8. The border is a fence which confines a person in a certain space.
9. The borders between the countries exist only in the human mind.
10. The borders between the countries don't exist really, because the rigid division of two or three neighboring people, de facto, is impossible.
11. The border doesn't confine only the countries, but it localize and the human thought.
12. Border is a crossing from one state to other.
13. The borders divide not only the territories, but people as well.
14. Border is a goal towards which we are ready to go.
15. The border is a human creation for understanding of the cultural diversity.
16. The border presents a kind of impediment.
17. Border is a term which denotes a division between certain geographical territories.
18. The things which encompass diversities have any borders.
19. The term border, in my opinion, is associated with some ultimate achievements.
20. The borders define something different

- or something unknown.
21. The borders between the countries always were a reason for a war.
 22. The borders are establishing there where confidence doesn't exist.
 23. The human kind is undivided. Why do the borders exist?
 24. The borders, actually, save the security of the people.
 25. The borders have done the people more incommunicative; more than different languages have done.
 26. The borders between the countries are an artificial creation of the man.
 27. The borders between the countries have both a political and a historical nature.
 28. The borders exist in order to justify human's selfishness.
 29. The people invented the borders because they haven't a love for others which are different.
 30. In place of borders and fortress, wisely is to build bridges.
 31. The border is formal pass from one country to other.
 32. Various kind of borders exist: natural (between life and death), ontological (between the good and the evil), artificial (for example, between the countries or between the people) and so on.
 33. The borders imprison the human experience in an inner circle.
 34. In the past the borders signified a security, today the borders signify some barriers between the people which want to unite.
 35. The border has a double signification: to save something own and to fence from foreign.
 36. The border is a term which signifies disjunction and separation.
 37. The border is invented to provide a protection from the human greediness.
 38. For me, the border presents a line for recognizing the spread of the own cultural identity.
 39. The borders between the countries should be treated like crossroads. Only ask where the right way is.
 40. The globalization of the world makes the borders between the countries needless.
 41. Border is something which denotes an end.
 42. The border presents a marked territory.
 43. The border is a demarcated line, fully controlled by two countries.
 44. The borders are obstacles for the man's free moving.
 45. According to me, the term border denotes, firstly, some geographic boundaries, and the second, some political creatures.
 46. The borders render more difficult the intercultural communication.
 47. The borders between the countries were changing in the history. So, its existence isn't category for ever.
 48. In my opinion, the borders are a picture of the huffy humanity.
 49. Until tempers cool down, i.e. the thirst for a power, the humankind will place the borders.

5. Results of Content Analysis

After using content analysis on 100 references of students of the Pedagogic Faculties of Florina and Bitola, emerged three thematic areas. According both Florina's and Bitola's references the basic concepts-key words for describing the borders are:

- a. The negative connotations about limits as national, ideological.
- b. The positive connotations as geographical and political significations.
- c. The mixed positive (positive-political, geographical borders) and negative (limits among populations and cultures).

In the following tables we present the distribution of references based on resulted the thematic areas together with a summary inventory of references to each thematic area.

During the conference, the syllabuses of the Faculties of the three Universities were presented and scientific ideas/views were exchanged, suggestions about cooperation at pre-graduate and post-graduate studies were made, as well as cooperation among Teaching Staff of the three Universities in some research projects were discussed.

Table 1: References of Florina

Nr	Negative Connotations	Positive Connotations	Mixed (Positive and Negative) Connotations
1	Territorial boundaries, negative connotations, obstacle	Borderline between states	A division of the ranks / a mental separation and not as a factor which shows the cultural diversity
2	"Limits" as restricting	Dividing line between the states and regions of the earth	The physical and the mental / imaginary lines
3	Only on maps	Boundaries of a geographical area	some limits / show the rights
4	Limits that restrict us	define the territories, avoid misunderstandings	Imaginary lines / distinguish the various characteristics. Of a state
5	Separates two pieces, other set them for us	Geographical, physical, social boundaries	Invention of man / Many times are natural boundaries. Through relationships developed borders, even hatred.
6	Separating in countries	Divided into natural and human.	A practical reason of existence. Divide land / But not people and communities.
7	imaginary boundaries, separate the states	geographical boundaries of a country	
8	Partitions under various battles, with restrictions.	help us, different geographical areas	
9	Are red lines, financial and trading institution	national, psychological, racial, enemy	
10	wounds on the body	Boundaries separating the areas	
11	delimit the area		
12	Borders are an "invention"	define a place	
13	prevent the free movement	Florina, Komotini, Orestiada	
14	imaginary lines, alienation	We set limits and define the diversity and a specific area.	
15	Is political reason, national identity is preserved in other ways	the geographic area	
16	delimitation of countries	Limits that boundaries geographical areas or human relations.	
17	Imaginary set lines. War, green card, homeland, sacrifice, diplomatic, soldier,	The limits set a state for its territorial integrity.	

Nr	Negative Connotations	Positive Connotations	Mixed (Positive and Negative) Connotations
	wires.		
18	fenced part	Human/ geographical approaches of nations – border, is the so called as “red line”, is the separation of communities into groups, i.e. nation-mores -culture- customs.	
19	Limits, restrictions, rules	boundaries between nations	
20	Barrier imposed on the people to alienate, reinforcing racist attitudes.	Borders = Florina	
21	Delimitation, separation	Emotional attachment	
22	boundaries that put the state		
23	imaginary line, in some cases people are victims of		
24	huge social and cultural distances between people		
	SUM: 24	SUM:20	SUM:6

Table 2: References of Bitola

Nr	Negative Connotations	Positive Connotations	Mixed (Positive and Negative) Connotations
1	an imagined line	is a measure, the golden mean	Mathematical segment. Its beginning is the differentiation / end is the division.
2	Limitation of the things	A natural difference between languages, cultures and beliefs	Denotes an end
3	a space without real existence	Border is a crossing	Marked territory.
4	Resembles on a prohibition for enamored couple to look himself	goal towards which we are ready to go	Some geographic boundaries / political creatures
5	Don't exist	A division between certain geographical territories	
6	Exist only in human mind	Associate with some ultimate achievements	
7	don't exist really, the rigid division of two or three neighboring people, de facto, is impossible	Define something different or something unknown. Save the security of the people	
8	it localize and the human thought	Have a political and historical nature	
9	divide not only the	Is to build bridges	

Nr	Negative Connotations	Positive Connotations	Mixed (Positive and Negative) Connotations
	territories, but and the people.		
10	Human creation	Is formal pass from one country to other	
11	Kind of impediment	various kind of borders	
12	A reason for a war	A line for recognizing of the spread of the own cultural identity.	
13	where doesn't exist a confidence	Treated like crossroads	
14	The humankind is undivided. Why the borders exist?	Denotes an end	
15	Artificial creature of the man	Marked territory.	
16	Justify human's selfishness.		
17	They haven't a love for others which are different		
18	Imprison the human experience in an inner circle.		
19	disjunction		
20	Protection of the human greediness		
21	Needless		
22	Demarcated line, fully controlled by two countries.		
23	Obstacles		
24	render more difficult the intercultural communication		
25	The huffy humanity		
26	Until tempers cool down, i.e. the thirst for a power, the humankind will place the borders		
	SUM:26	SUM:15	SUM:4

6. Conclusive Remarks and Discussion

There are no ideologically 'neutral' sign systems: signs function to persuade as well as to refer. Modern semiotic theory is often allied with a Marxist approach which stresses the role of ideology. Ideology constructs people as subjects through the operation of codes. According to the theory of textual positioning, understanding the meaning of a text involves taking on an appropriate ideological identity (see 'Ideal

readers').

For Althusser, ideology was a system of representation involving 'transparent myths' which functioned to induce in the subject an 'imaginary' relation to the 'real' conditions of existence. For those inclined towards realism ideology involves a 'distortion' of an 'objective' 'reality'.

Barthes argues that the orders of signification called denotation and connotation combine to produce ideological myths.

Ideological forces seek to naturalize codes - to make dominant cultural and historical values, attitudes and beliefs seem 'natural', 'self-evident' and 'common-sense', although the operation of ideology in signifying practices is typically made to appear transparent. Barthes saw myth as serving the ideological interests of the bourgeoisie.

It is explicit that the dominant representation concerning the function of borders is not a politically neutral category in social thinking. There are many mediations and cultural dispositions which are based on the role of sovereign social structure: national myths, cultural stereotypes, historical narrations, educational systems play a ground role in shaping a social basis for the creation of an imaginary myth about what we define as "different", "foreign", "better" or "worse". Finally, based on the Marxist dialectical thought it is certain to understand that apart from the signification, the social function of borders, consist a politically useful instrument for the maintenance of the dominant structure of powers both at local - regional and national - international geopolitical level.

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THE ARTISTS OF DROSOPIGI

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Abstract

This paper is part of research and documentation of the organized groups of artists, in particular constructive teams of Drosopigi, Florina. In 1844, it was observed and recorded a transplant of a small population from Mastorochoia of Epirus to Florina, who founded a settlement in Drosopigi and created the basis for training and development of certain professional and cultural characteristics. These artisans evolved and adapted their crafts developing a substantial number of stone construction and building projects. This cultural group followed the same attitude, transferring all the peculiarities and characteristics of creative expression, skills, in professional activity. Drosopigi became a centre for developing stone constructions and artist productions and in that way represent an important chapter in the cultural infrastructure of the history of North-western, and central Greek Macedonia. The Drosopigi's artists traveled in the Balkans (Bulgaria, Romania, Serbia), and the U.S.A. Nowadays the art of stonecutters hewed has subsided, but stocks of the creative, artistic groups in Drosopigi have evolved and have a different production process in their creative work. Twelve graduate students of School of Fine Arts originate from Drosopigi, other seven icon painters and 3 graduate students of Architecture schools.

Keywords: *Mastorochoia, The meaning of Artistry, Florina the new Architectural and Cultural environment, The Drosopigi's Artists, The modern Artists*

1. Introduction

In 1844 in Florina it was observed and recorded a movement of a team of workers coming from the Mastorochoia of Epirus, specifically from mountainous villages Plikati and Aetomilitsa. The reasons of that movement in the region of Florina, have to do with the sequences of events that began in the aftermath of the disaster in Moshopoli and the provinces in southern Albania.

Particularly after 1770, because of Ali Pasha's oppression, and the general turbulence that prevailed with the parallel destruction of the settlements around Moshopoli, the Christian

population, was displaced as refugees in other area. The chased Christian groups were divided. The first group settled in Pelagonia at the hilly areas of Varnounta or Baba, around Perister's foothills, and the second on mountains of Epirus, at an area called Mastorochochia.

2. The Settlements in Pelagonia

The other Christian groups scattered and settled in Venice, Vienna, and in many cities in Romania. This is shown by the nobles houses (Modis 1962), and the developed commercial relations in the places that they lived.

The groups that settled in Pelagonia were mixed (Vavouskos 1962) with the flourishing Greek population who was there, as they found safety and refuge in the settlements, Krousovo, Megarovo, Tirnovo, Gkopesi, Boukovo, Resna, Milovista and Nizoupoli. Bitola (Kleitou 1962) was after Thessaloniki, the largest administrative, industrial, commercial, and educational center of the region. The teams that we study and we are interested in - from which emerged the Drosopigi's artists - arrived and settled in the area of Mastorochochia Konitsa in the west side of mountain Grammos.

3. The Settlements in Mastorochochia of Konitsa

The Mastorochochia were consisted of settlements which were created and supported by groups of Vlachs, and Arvanites when they migrated from the areas Nikolitsa, Grammousta, Valiani, Lianotopi, Nitsa, Foustani, Bithkouki, Vertenik, Denitsko, Sipicha etc. The refugees from the destruction of Valiani in the late 19th century by Ottoman groups, forced the residents to establish the villages Plikati or Pelkati, Germa or Zerma, Aetomilitsa, Loupsiko, and Chionades Konitsas. These settlements were established on steep slopes "somewhere between the earth and the sky" (Harisis 1998). Huge mountains emerged from the bowels of the earth. Specifically in Valiani, a small town, lived several families, who, apart from the common origin (Grecos, and Arvanitovlachs) and religion (Orthodox), had also professional - guild partnerships (Mpessas 1994). From farmers, and ranchers ended up becoming famous builders, architects on stone construction, carvers, folk painters, icon painters. The art of the artisans in

stone construction on Plikati was born from the needs for survival. Plikati or otherwise Pi (e) lkades, was located at the foothills of Grammos, (Giangiorgos 2001) at an altitude of 1240m. Until 1840 it had 400 houses and it was the cradle of stone builders of Mastorochochia (Vlastos 1856).

3.1. The cultural equivalent of Mastorochochia

The Mastorochochia are the villages of stone, a unity of that villages engendered many artisans (stone masons, carvers, painters, etc.) that like proverbial expression "they built the whole world." They travelled and worked in areas of central and northwestern and central Greek Macedonia, Thessaly, central Greece, Albania.

Thousands of artisans who travelled in groups in the Balkan region and even further, build private and public buildings, and decorated churches and monasteries, constructed stone streets and stone bridges.

It should be mentioned that the name of their village Chionades (Paisius 1962) in Epirus is synonymous with the occupation of the popular arts, particularly the art of iconography.

This is the "cultural equivalent" in Mastorochochia, the villages of the artisans in stone construction. The aesthetics that dominates as image and characterizes the landscape is that of the stone structures.

After the fall of Ali Pasha in 1822, and the shrinking of Vilayet of Ioannina, there was a period of economic decline in whole Epirus, and there were many population movements.

The resettlements during the Ottoman period were due to living conditions (violence, humiliation, unbearable taxes) and aiming for a better life. For this reason the chosen places were close to dense forested mountains which worked as natural shelters (Nedelkou 1999). There were also groups who resorted to the lowlands and major urban centres like Athens and Larissa.

As this time the inaccessible mountainous passes in Epirus isolated this region from the major cultural centres of that time, like the Bitola - Monastery Thessaloniki, Halkidhiki, and especially Athos. The combination of consecutive predatory behaviours (Raptis 1996), starring local Beys who oppressed the residents with taxes and the naughty bandit gangs which appeared in Epirus (Natsiakas, Arapoglou & Karanatsi 1998) as the overland routes were abandoned by the

whole of the Ottoman state, had as a result, all the movements of people, especially those who were carrying goods and supplies, to be very difficult, and dangerous.

3.2. The New Settlement in Belkameni area

These Christian groups, which began to moving towards Florina, came from the towns and villages Voio (Vouri 2002) and the province Opareos.

The origin and roots of Drosopigi's artists came from the village Plikati Konitsa and Aetomilitsa in Ioannina Prefecture.

The movement and the settlement of these Christian groups, in 1844 in the mountainous region of Vitsi was an event for the region of Florina. At that point in time, we observe that the events that occurred in the middle of the 18th century in the Northern and Southern Epirus are directly related to the demographic changes in the prefecture of Florina (Mpessas 1994).

The reference to the village of Drosopigi has to do with the fact that the settlement is by itself the first piece of art in the region.

Image 1: The Stone bridge in the road to the settlement of Drosopigi



Image 2: Builders dancing in the central place of the settlement, between 1925-1930



It was a settlement that brought together the collective idea of an original builder's center, which was created to house the organized professional teams of the builders.

The presence and concentration of different professional guilds (teams) was together with groups of families a whole community, a formation that created the settlement of Drosopigi (Belkameni). These professional groups, formed a social group that tried to safeguard the achievements of professional experience, through their behavior in relation to other social groups in the region of Florina, but mostly from the Ottoman conqueror.

For this reason, the settlement of Drosopigi in Florina since the beginning of its establishment, has been a single, homogeneous architectural region, with common cultural characteristics, an example of methods and applications of the characteristics of the art of building, and of the experiential architecture, which documents an architectural environment equivalent to this of Epirus Mastorochoria. The "cultural equivalent" of Sarantaporos acted in the same way and transferred the case of Drosopigi's artists.

These expressions of the residents created a field of a local artistic specificity, which played a major role to define themselves and the characteristics of these craftsmen.

Drosopigi - Belkameni became a center of building and artistic production and constitutes a significant chapter in the cultural infrastructure in the history of Northwest Greek Macedonia. A place was created, one point, a special local creativity, which mainly preserved the monumental identity, heritage, the professional

profile, tailoring each time their overall course and their work, depending on configurations that was the result from the development standards, and the needs of industrial development.

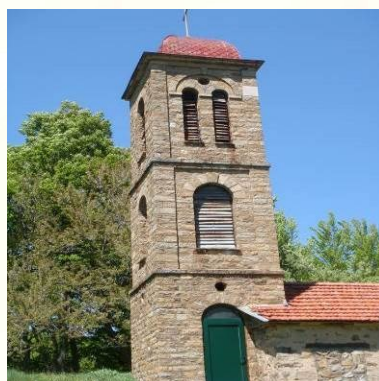
The mountainous region of Florina was chosen because it had a significant advantage.

Passes through the valley of Pelagonia and the contact with the Bitola-Monastery became easier, while crossing mountain Vitsi, heading east, the road to Thessaloniki and Mount Athos

was with no major obstacles.

There are reports about Belkameni's teams saying that they worked on the construction of neoclassical buildings in the city of Bitola. Later in 1894 the development of the railway (Tsapanou 2002), connecting Thessaloniki and Bitola, enhanced the availability of crews to travel to larger urban centers.

Images 3,4 & 5: Stone constructions in the villages, Nymfaio, Elatia and Flampouro Florinas



These movements towards the port of Thessaloniki has prompted builders to travel towards the Black Sea to Romania in areas developed by the Greek community in the city of Braila, in Bucharest, in Piatranatsa, in Constantza, where they worked near major construction crews supervised by great architects. From the port of Piraeus the builders started for the major overseas trips to the vast areas of the USA.

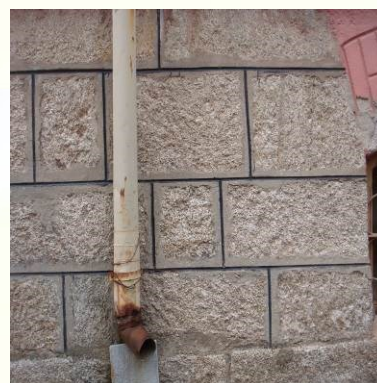
There they worked in the construction industrial installations, but mainly in construction stone, arched bridges, platforms, and vaulted structures in tunnels for railway development.

The meaning of artistry is a concept that was cultivated by the same skilful artists craftsmen and stone builders in their workshops and the various specialities that they developed. This occurred because the result of these artists' art was not the outcome of spontaneity based on opportunistic events, but the overall art is subjected to rules in a working place, in a field of exercise with strict discipline and hard work, as it was related directly to their culture, their creativity and production of artwork.

4. The meaning of Artistry

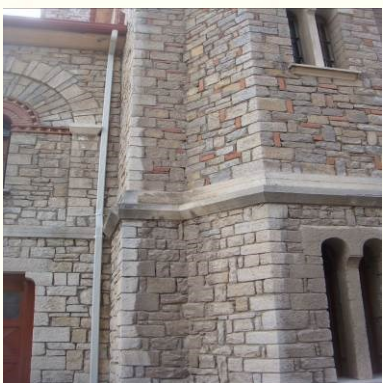
These creative expressions through time, individual or collective functioned in such a way that the meaning of artistry is highly developed among the persons constituting the professional of Drosopigis guilds.

For this reason we find the tendering of the word "artist" as: artist Builder, artist stone cutter, masons, plasterers, carpenters, aingers, icon painters, and folk artists.

Images 6,7 & 8: Stone constructions in buildings in Florina

A local culture is defined through the behaviours, physical and intellectual works produced by the social group of artists at a certain time. All these art features express the elegance and the sensitivity of this social group,

an art that depicts the reality of each creative period, through their abilities, skills, shaping and capturing personal information, the talent, the artistry of each artist.

Images 9,10 & 11: Stone Constructions in churches in Florina

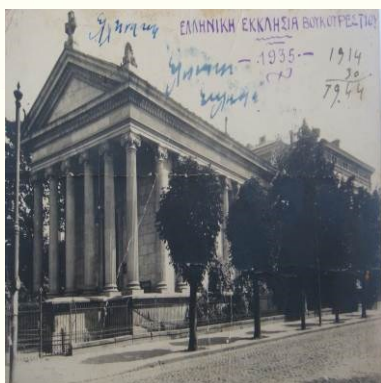
The meaning of artistry in Drosopigi is attributed to the excess of each craftsman - builder in any creative expression or experiential process, in which the craftsman- the artist manages in the best way, matter, medium (process and modelling materials), to reveal the creative qualities of the artistic medium. For this reason, the perception expressed by the relationship of the production of an artistic work, the event itself, the work, the meaning of the construction, the final result, the final impression, is the mirror of each artist.

in all districts of Othomanic region and the metropolitan centers of the Balkans. They were travelling to places where the Greek communities had flourished, and "dared" to express themselves and demonstrate their art. We do not have enough information and there is no complete recording of their work. This maybe has to do with the lack of a scholar (Moutsopoulos 1976) who would outline the expressions of these workmen both locally and beyond the areas of Greece and Balkans.

4.1. Stone Cutters, Builders, Craftsmen

Works by these artists first appeared in the late 19th century and early 20th century when the first organized teams started to travel in groups

Images 12,13 & 14: A Postcard and foto with a team of builders from Drosopigi in Braila



For this reason there are many unsung artists, in the course of time.

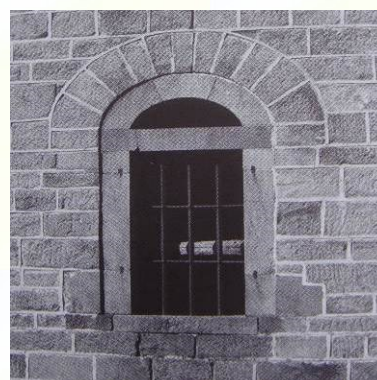
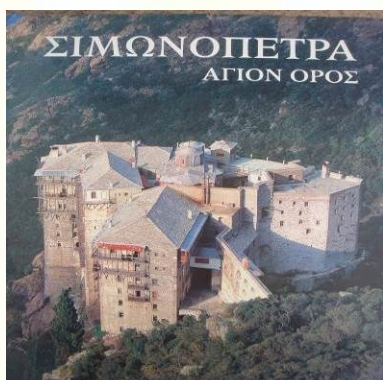
Some areas that has developed a series of unsung builders and craftsmen artists are the parts of foreign lands, especially in the "Vlachia" in Romania unknown regions in the U.S., Bitola in FYROM, and large and small urban centres in modern Greece.

There are reports in personal interviews

(Nedelkos 2007) about the stone construction in the church of St Spyridon in Varna and also in millstones in Plovdiv Bulgaria.

Also the contact with Athos was often, as they travelled to the area and worked in construction stone in monasteries (Simonopetra 1998).

Images 15,16 & 17: The stone construction in the Monastery of SIMONOPETRA



From the archives of the monastery Simonopetra we have more evidence of the eponymous Belkameni - Drosopigi stone builders. In other archives of Mount Athos we find other Drosopigi's groups who have build stone structures.

4.2. Icon Painters

The presence of such teams in Mount Athos worked in a way that many builders moved from craftsmen to the iconographic art and studied the art of Russian Renaissance Iconography in the monks' workshops. This parallel professional connection of Drosopigi's craftsmen in Mount Athos (Mpessas 1994), and the relation and

affinity between those iconographers and those of Chioniades Epirus, gave them the right to refine their techniques through workshops and to channel their works from the monasteries of Mount Athos, in Russia and the Greek community of Amsterdam.

The political changes in Russia in 1917 resulted in the gradual decline in orders and the closing of the workshop a few years later. As a consequence the teams of iconography returned in their birthplace in Drosopigi. The next movement was to undertake the icon painting in many temples in the region of Northwest Greek Macedonia, mainly wall icon painting in churches.

The groups of iconography involved with painting and decorating in the houses in

Nymphaeum, Florina, Akritas and elsewhere.

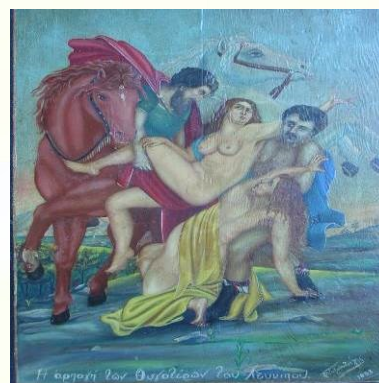
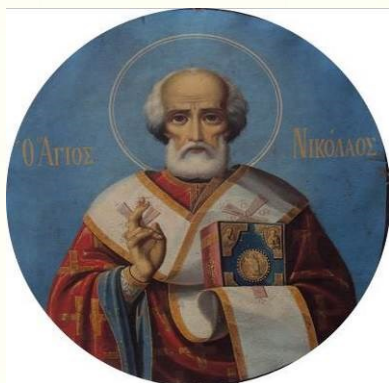
Images 18,19 & 20: Photos of Belkameni's – Drosopigi's Icon Artists



Those pictures represent Renaissance, Neoclassical Athos' Iconographies from the painting workshop (Mpessas 1994). This particular style in decoration and painting of the Sacred Temples of the area was made with the technique of Western Art; a naturalistic art with a strong anatomically considered impression and

details of Neoplatonism, who suggested the implanting of elements from ancient times. The individual facial features, are shaped in such a way that people and bodies of Saints had a display of visible, on the "body" of the Invisible.

Images 21,22 & 23: Deferent style in naturalistic art decoration about houses and churches



According to Takis Mpessas (1994), it is the Venetian naturalism which with the assistance of local popular elements created a kind of Latin iconography with classicist rules, which was easily comprehensible and absorbed by the mostly self-taught painters of Western Greece.

All these reports cover a section of the plurality of business activities, that show elements relating to the design and realization of workshops of Drosopigi.

The largest center of artistic production with many artistic products that are related to the

construction or decoration of houses or churches was the Drosopigi and the biggest center of artistic absorption of these products was the Nymphaeum, and churches in Kastoria and Florina.

There are also references for the region of Pelagonia (Harisis 2011) in FYROM, at the border village of Dragosi or Dragos, in the church of St. Nicholas in the village where a mason from Belkameni worked. This is confirmed by a marble plaque and also there is evidence in the Cathedral of St. Demetrios in Bitola with the icon

of St.Fanourios.

An important chapter in the development of the work of the group of Drosopigi's artists was the warring conflicts among the Balkan countries, and new alignments of borders in the Balkans region.

The area of Drosopigi - Belkameni as a historic site belongs to another historical district of research because the mountain our village had a significant role with known and unknown aspects, in this course of the revolutions and territorial claims among Balkan people in the major historical event from 1903 to 1949.

5. Florina. The new Architectural and Cultural environment

The city of Florina due to its position was influenced by ethnic population movements that had been developed in the Balkans.

The periods of war and the demands for defining new frontiers in the northern part of Greek territory, starting from the Ottoman period, influenced greatly the professional activities of builders, as the local economies were affected by the outcome of the conflicts.

Images 24,25 & 26: Stone Constructions in Buildings in Florina



From the new conditions of socio-political changes brought by these conflicts, the artisans - builders adapted the spirit of social and economical changes which were imposed by each period, as for example in the search of new ways of subsistence following the course of each local economy.

A similar creative beginning was held in the period between 1912,1938, when there was an important ethnological formation due to the movement of Greek populations from areas of the Balkans, to Greece and the city of Florina.

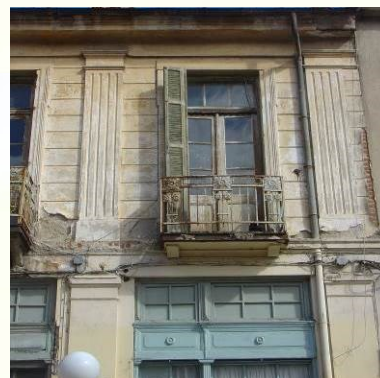
The period 1912 -1938 gave great push to the building construction.. The prospect of a peaceful course and national contemplation emerges in our country, but especially in our region, in combination with the recovery in social and economical level. At this period most of the samples of the artistic builders appeared on the facades of neoclassical buildings in Florina. These embossed ornaments are examples of talent, during the cultural journey thought the Balkans. A creative mimetic movement with the silent signatures of these art

builders, which was expressed on these buildings.

This period left many building constructions, which were used as main residences from their owners, reflecting the diversity of local architecture.

From the typology of buildings we can observe the visible architectural style and features of an eclecticism rhythm. Florina became a small urban center since it was reinforced by the concentration of refugee populations at a time when the Balkans were no longer the place of historical coexistence of cultures and ethnicities, but a new spatial configuration by the creation of new states.

Images 27,28 & 29: Neoclassical buildings in Florina



The influx of refugees in urban centers (Fotiadis 2002) created the conditions for the construction of public works and private investments with the form of private loans.

Migratory movements appeared on the borders of the Balkans in 1912 and continued with the exchange of populations in 1924. New populations were settled from the neighbouring

town of Bitola (Monastery) and from Asia Minor and Pontos.

All these people were gathered in the city and the needs for the replacement of the buildings, left behind by the Ottomans began under the new alignments of town planning.

Images 30,31 & 32: Neoclassical Buildings in Florina and Akrita



The City Council in collaboration with the French General P.P. Henrys and with the advice of the French engineer A .Legullion, approved by the Ministry of Public Works in 1919, gave the authority to establish the new architectural character of the city. In the next years it was recorded an architectural construction of an area, which escaped from the standards of the unregulated Ottoman architecture, with the imprint of a new character that prevailed in the architectural trends of the time in Balkanic architecture with strong Hellenic elements. The burden in this procedure of the architectural design of the city was taken by the teams of builders from the area, mostly those from

Drosopigi.

5.1. The Building Artists from Drosopigi

For a considerable period between 1912 - 1938 the Drosopigi's builders formed a solid guild and with their work formed a new architectural and cultural environment for the town's bourgeoisie. In this overall architectural landscape created at that time, other teams from different regions also worked, such as Flampouro - Lehoovo etc.

These artists never concealed the source of their inspiration. After all the cultural equivalent of their past experiences, the construction of larger buildings - eg in Romania, in Bitola and also in stone constructions in monasteries of

Mount Athos - had a big role in this architectural approach in the city of Florina.

The empirical artists, builders of Drosopigi, guided by the will of the housing market, adapted the content of their work once again to new local design patterns. The desire of the owners who wished to transfer the design impressions of architectural forms on the neoclassical facade of the building, found a way out and understanding in terms of empirical Drosopigis craftsmen.

This transfer of mimetic details, especially on the facade of the buildings is a set of ratings that enhances the aesthetics of architectural form highlighting the facade with embossed details or frames, and sometimes with the contours of the premises showing the exterior space.

This sense of projection of plastic reliefs, highlights the aesthetic standard of the owners, but also indicates the skills of craftsmen especially in the part of foreign investment who created an architectural setting with basic material the plaster and the sand.

The accuracy in significant rhythm elements of classicism is what originates from the work of Drosopigi's Artists (Tamoutselis 2010) is, while it is being avoided to raise the load of decorative points in buildings, which are distinguished by net plastered surfaces with a strict and dignified style, a rhythm consistency in the form and the content of the points that they depict.

A style that invokes us to the stylistic tides in of the faculty of architecture that prevailed as standards in Europe, but also in Athenian Architecture.

This way of capitalist production in the construction of buildings, functioned as a dynamic force for the development of the Greek economy, as the contribution of refugees in particular in the areas of Northern Greece became visible through urban development, and the rural reform. In the years that followed, what we perceive is that depending on the period and the conditions outlined, the building constructions stopped because of warfare eg the World War II- Civil War.

Sometimes the reasons are mainly the changes brought by new discoveries and modern tools, but mostly huge user needs for new housing construction of the 60's which will be the end of a creative career in the creative work with plastic surfaces by the experienced artist builders.

The industrial revolution, new academic professions relating to construction, such as architects and engineers, but also a new profession, the contractors, will form a new reality, showing new architectural standards in the building construction.

5.2. The Modern Artist from Drosopigi

Today Drosopigi's artists through the various construction expertise developed in the past are significantly limited. The corporations and the teams were adapted to the markets requirements.

The productive workforce potential of Drosopigi's artists has been transferred and functioned in the city of Florina through individual or collective expressions, which are the basic piece in managing cultural identity both locally and peripherally.

The arts of the traditional stone cutter, the craftsman and the builders have degraded or lost, and there are no longer compositions and applications in stone structures.

The same happened with the artists in of the plastered surfaces, since new construction needs of modern buildings cannot digest and adapt his art, like the embossed design compositions similar to those in traditional neoclassical facades of buildings.

However today the tradition stock of artists of Drosopigi is able to inject the excitement, inspiration and enhance the creative instinct of the modern artists of Drosopigi, and elevate this approach to a new manufacturing process for creative works.

From Drosopigi of Florina, a small village built on the slopes of Vitsi, where less than 200 inhabitants have remained, thousands migrated abroad mostly to the U.S.A. What we discern is that it remains still space, with a particular cultural load. It constitutes a place which has documented high quality productive and artistic manpower with features which designate once again the earlier entrepreneurial visual and constructional semiotics of our region, which leads us to the core of inspiration that has a common denominator, similar to the experiences, creations- constructions of the first Drosopigis artists in the recent past.

Today the art of the craftsman - stonecutter has been obliterated, but the reserves of the artistic groups in Drosopigi have evolved and present a different process in the production of

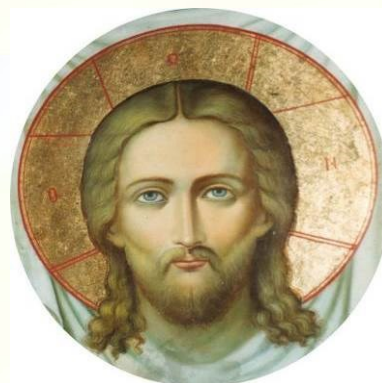
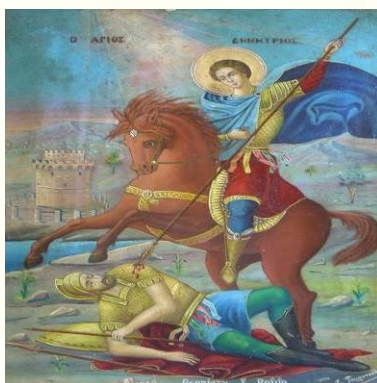
their creative work. From Drosopigi originate 12 contemporary artists, all graduates of the School of Fine Arts, Athens, Thessaloniki and Florina, 7 icon painters, 1 painter, and 3 architects, graduates of University schools of Architecture, in Thessaloniki and in London.

For this reason the concept of creation and artistry, differs from the difficult and demanding manual exercise, which is experienced by the artist of the stone elements, as he experiences

the relationship with the material on the three dimensions in stone applications.

In the example of contemporary artists, the transfer of painting and drawing impressions is made in spaces of two and three dimensions, where the theoretical, intellectual, and the ephemeral in art appears to indicate, organize the thoughts, needs, and technical capabilities of each artist.

Images 33,34 & 35: Drosopigi's Icon painters in 1960. E. Tamoutselis – N. Zografos



Prototype creations, concepts of an art distinguished and defined through the dynamics of new materials, where the academic approach and the personal look comes to express the style of work of the pioneer artists, and to indicate the continuity of production of artwork as it crystallises the perspective of each era.

However, the presence of the groups that have managed to evolve and adapt in the new circumstances of the ephemeral culture and continue to operate and to produce creative work, are the artists, associated with the art of iconography.

The art of icon, the painting of Orthodoxy continues to concern a significant number of artists in their workshops with important samples of works, which are presented in the form of mural paintings at Holy Temple and in small icons.

An iconography that appears differentiated in relation to the past, as an art suited to the new requirements of temples, through the new means of expression, and the personal style.

An art not to bring out the feelings and the design standards, but to serve through the theological content, the deepest needs of the devoted.

A similar case is the one with the young

architects who, through their work, studies, and the conditions that will be developed in the future in the industrial sector, combined with the need of new owners, may even be the part of a new modern architectural formation in the city of Florina.

Perhaps the pursuit and the capture in what we call modern housing in new construction of buildings, will bring a new character to the architecture of our city; an architectural impression of a scene similar to the equivalent one which arised from the outer shell constructions of buildings by Drosopigi's Artists.

All these artists' qualities, icon painters, pioneer artists, painters and architects of various ages, styles and trends continue to originate and start form the same place.

Since societies will require their presence at every creative manifestation, Drosopigi's artists themselves will continue to project and demonstrate through their own path, producing creative work, an important piece on the whole cultural and spiritual expression of our region.

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THE COLOURS IN THE HERMENEIAS – PAINTING MANUALS FOR ICON- PAINTERS

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Abstract

Painting manuals for icon-painters - hermeneias usually contain two parts: a technical (practical guidelines for the preparation of paint and the material used for painting, techniques for making the plaster, glue, charcoal, brushes, as well as conservation and restoration guidelines) and a iconographic one (description of the layout of the saints, their age, clothing, etc.). These manuscripts come from the Middle Ages, especially from Greece. Their translations and transcripts are found throughout Europe. Our interest is to consider the naming of colours in the erminias which were made available to us primarily from lexical-semantic aspect.

Keywords: *erminii, colours, meaning, origin, internationalisms*

Main article

The hermeneias as painting manuals for icon - painters are manuscripts, which enrich the treasury of texts which are testaments for the continuity in both the aspect of content and time, they offer wealth to the language matter, which may be analyzed from different language aspects, representing a part of the rich Slavic written and cultural – literary heritage of the XIX century.

The hermeneia (Greek “ερμηνεία”- “interpretation” – ερμηνεύω “interpret”) attracted attention in the scientific world somewhere around the middle of the XIX century when the French scientist A. N. Didron discovered an original manual for painting in Sveta Gora. Relating the genesis and the origin, these manuscripts are connected to the middle ages and Greece, taking into consideration the data that the copies of the hermeneias were left exclusively in the hands of the icon - painters of Sveta Gora in whose cells there was a great number of such copies.

The hermeneias contain canonic missions, models according to which, during centuries, the icon - painters painted the given plots and compositions, i.e. made illustrations about a text given in advance. Carefully keeping to the text or the picture, without being aware of it, they inserted changes in the language of the painting procedure, in the representation of the fore character of the system according to which the painting work transformed into a painting and

the same happened when while copying the hermeneia, the copier inserted elements of the spoken language. Therefore, full attention should not be given only to the studying of the icon - painting tradition, but also to the language analysis of the texts which are contained in the hermeneias.

These manuals for icon - painters, as texts with particular character and content, mostly contain two parts: *technical* (practical directions for the preparation of colours and the material upon which is painted, techniques for getting gypsum, coal, brushes, and also directions for conserving – restoring) and *iconographic* (description of the appearance of the saints, their age, attire, etc.). Words from various semantic fields, terms, as well as nomina scara are used in the expression of the contents of the technical part. In the iconographic part, in the discovery of the ontological relation between the fore character and the sign, the language attention is directed towards the definition of the word as a lexicographical unit.

Our linguistic study covers thirteen hermeneias from the territory of our country, containing around 4000 pages of text, which date back to 1818 – 1900. The hermeneia of Dionysius served as a prototype for the creation of these Slavic manuscripts, which was translated into the Slavic language around the end of the XVIII century or in the beginning of the XIX century by the icon - painter monk Ilarion. The copies of the hermeneias were made mostly from Russian – Slavic original texts and were made in Church Slavonic language or in the language spoken by the people on the territory of our country.

From a linguistic point of view, the hermeneias are important historical texts which provoke scientific interest as a result of the various aspects of analysis. Apart from the noticeable reflection of the most important characteristics of the Church Slavonic language and the popular language, the language expression of the hermeneias, as a specific matter, especially at lexical level, contain particularities as a result of the presence of terms from the area of painting and church terminology, and also specific lexemes from history connected to the biblical period. We direct our interest to the terminological chromatic lexis, more specifically, to the names

of the colours mentioned in the hermeneias. Thereby, as a subject of language analysis, we separate two lexical – semantic groups:

1. Pigment colours which are used as materials in painting:

арсеникъ < Greek αρσενικόν (dust with golden yellow hue, created by grinding arsenic crystals, which was used only for paintings on a board – icons, and now and then it was also used for accentuating the yellow drapes);

кинаваръ < Greek κιννάβαρι (dust with a very pretty and strong red colour, which is a natural sulphide of mercury and for a long time was used as a red pigment in painting, vermilion);

лазуръ < Latin lazurum, lasurium < Arabic lāzaward, Greek λαζούρι (blue colour used for thin coating which allows for the colour which is underneath to be seen);

лулакъ < Greek λουλάκι (dust with dark blue colour, indigo – colour, which was used for painting icons, and also in mural painting, but only on dry plaster);

океръ < Greek ὥχρα (dust from purified yellow dirt with matt yellow colour which hues from light yellow to dark yellow, as painting material its use dates back to the beginning of time);

плакунт < Greek πλακούτι (lead based bleach, one of the oldest non - organic pigments created artificially, it is characterized by warm radiation, it spreads easily and in covers well, it enables homogeneity, elasticity and durability);

цингиаръ < Greek τσιγκιάρι or βαρδάραμον < Pers. Zengar < Arabic zenċer (green dust with vivid green hue, which was created from copper using a special recipe);

2. Names of colours:

вардаромонъ < Greek βαρδάραμον (type of blue colour with strongly emphasized hue which was brought from Venice);

волонъ < Latin bolus, Greek βώλος (earth colour from a not overly red clay which was used as a base under the gold leaves);

гликазма < Greek γλυκασμός (colour used for painting the face, colour for the first brightening);

зердешанъ < Turkish zerdeçal (type of yellow colour, the colour of saffron)

крмасъ < Turkish kırmız < Arabic qirmiz (strong, intensive red colour with a hue of dried blood which is gained from a very small insect with the same name *Dactylopius coccus*, originating from Asia);

лалъ < Turkish lâl < Persian Lāl (type of red colour, the colour of ruby);

мавиа < Turkish mavi, Greek μαβί (blue colour, the colour of the sky);

мавро < Greek μαύρος (black colour);

моръ < Turkish mor (violet colour created by mixing the red iron mineral “murtesangi” with black and white, or, by mixing blue and crimson, the old artisans used these tones to paint drapes, mountains and architecture in the background of the composition);

мурдесанкъ < Byzantine Μυρτασανγι (a type of red colour created from the iron mineral which was called “murtesangi” by the people from Byzantine);

охра < Greek ωχρα, ωχρός (a type of yellow colour);

прасинъ < Greek πράσινος (green colour created by grinding green stone, used for painting shadows, and also for painting the base upon which the figures stood);

псимидъ < Greek ψμίθι, Latin psimitions (white colour, lead base bleach in the form of granules);

умпра < Latin umbra, Greek ούμπρα (brown colour which is also used in painting today, in the past it served as a paint for the eyes and the eyebrows, for shading the faces and the drapes, for painting the background, etc.);

чернило < old Slavic **церьнь** (dust from charcoal, from a vine, which was used by the icon - painters in the paintings).

Looking at the colour system and their language counterparts in the hermeneias which were given to us to look into, we can notice the absence of the expected presence of descriptive adjectives as main and basic part of the system which covers the semantic dimension of the colours, as a feature which is characteristic of the

modern state of most Slavic languages. In these historical texts, the nouns are the ones which occupy the position of primary and numeric presence in the naming of the colours. This phenomenon results from the use of nouns with the function of adjectives, i.e. nouns, which primarily denote some other notion, for example, metal, mineral, plant, etc., by secondary nomination, at the same time they are used as nominative markings for the corresponding colour of the metal, mineral or plant. For example, the name *lazure* is a primary mark for the precious stone with the same name with a dark blue colour, gained from the mineral lazurite, formerly also known as lapis lazuli. This means that the name of the stone is also used as a name for the pigment with the same dark blue colour which is created from it. The name vermilion primarily names the very mineral which is a natural sulphide of mercury, and as second, or secondary, appears the naming of the red colour according to the colour owned by the mineral itself. Here we would mention the lexeme *krmuz* whose primary meaning is a term from zoology used to name a small insect, parasite, originating from Asia – *Dactylopius coccus*, whose eggs, dried and processed with acid, give pretty intense red colour. Therefore, the name of the insect also becomes a name used for naming the colour which is created from it.

Such use of the mentioned nominal lexemes demonstrates that they are developing new secondary meaning by metaphorical association caused by only one single seme which refers to the colour of the notion contained in its basic meaning and which at the same time proved powerful enough to produce its secondary meaning. The metaphorical connecting of the semes stems from the more or less pronounced similarity to real, concrete notions in our language consciousness which are connected analogically and associatively according to the separated, marked characteristic which represents their impressively attractive original colour. This means that the comparison is made according to the similarity by colour with clearly separated prototypes which have the ostensible local colour defined as general colouration of the notion in nature, for which the colour is a dominant and recognizable marking in the exterior, non - lingual environment.

For the terms as special word inventory, it is said that it is customary for them to be borrowed from other languages as finished lexical units, although the possibility for them to also be formed from home words is not excluded. Starting from this point of view, and taking into consideration the chromatic lexis present in the hermeneias which were the subject of our lexical – semantic study, we may say that these manuscripts also testify of the language interference at different language levels, especially at the lexical level. In this sense, and with a short vague look at the terms which name the colours in the hermeneias and regarding their etymological origin, reveals to us that the system of colours is created by several layers of temporally marked lexis which originates from different languages and which at the same time speaks of the presence of the three basic phases in the building of the vocabulary of the Slavic language on the territory of our country.

The first phase is represented by the apparently pronounced presence of words from the Greek origin as markings for colours, which indicates to the dominant contact and the lexical borrowing from the Greek language. This is confirmed by the following words borrowed from the Greek language which function as markings for colours: **арсеникъ, кинаваръ, лулакъ, океръ, плакунт, цингиаръ, вардаромонъ, гликазма, мавро, охра, прасинъ и псимида**.

The second phase is characterized by the presence of words borrowed from the Turkish language as markings for colours, which shows the Turkish influence on these territories and the position of prestige of the Turkish language in a specific time period. The following terms for colour belong to the Turkish lexical layer: **зердешанъ, крмасъ, лалъ, мавиа** and **моръ**. The third phase is characterized with the inherited presence of Slavic terms for colours and the adoption of the international lexis reflected through the presence of a small number of words from the Latin language as markings for colours. The introduction of the words borrowed from the Latin language was carried out by literary way and through language – mediator, and in the texts of the hermeneias, we only came across three Latinisms as markings for colours: **лазуръ, волонъ** and **умпра**. The Slavic terms for colours, inherited from the Old

Slavonic or the Proto – Slavic language, or perhaps introduced in the written language from Russian, Bulgarian and Serbian language in the beginning of the XIX century, represent the base of the Slavic chromatic terminology and are represented through simple and derivative descriptive adjectives which are generally known and as such are found in most Slavic languages. They are the following lexemes: **бел (white), жолт (yellow), зелен (green), модар (azure), сив (grey), син (blue), црвен (red) and црн (black)**, which by representing the basic colours in the spectrum, at the same time represent the basic nomenclature for naming colours with the help of home, Slavic lexemes. Thereby, we find inevitable the conclusion that the chromatic lexis present in the hermeneias has both Slavic and non Slavic origins.

The lexical – semantic analysis of the chromatic lexis in the hermeneias shows that the covering of the formal and semantic possibilities in the process of nomination is also one of the most important questions in the lexis of the old texts. The nominating of the notions, i.e. the discovery of appropriate lexical expressions is a process in which the universal lexical phenomena are mostly used, such as: polysemy, language metaphor, neo – semantics, derivation, univerbization, clacking and borrowing. Therefore, these historical manuscripts confirm the generally accepted opinion that in the lexis of each language there are very few words which actually are original nominations.

The chromatic lexis in the hermeneias is only a small part of the wealth of lexical material which is present in these texts and covers a great number of semantic spheres. This gives way to further linguistic and non - linguistic analyses, especially having into consideration the fact that the hermeneias as painting manuals for icon - painters in eastern Christianity, are a specific matter which conveys biblical stories from the Old and New Testament, as well as the technical – technological part of the trade of painting icons. The hermeneias, in a way, are a connection among the Old Testament, the New Testament, the icon painter and the believer, i.e. the observer of the icon and the painting. According to this, these manuals have the status of keepers of the traditional attitude towards the iconographic and icon - painting technique and represent an exceptional cultural and literary

heritage which exists through time.

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THE ECCLESIASTICAL ARCHITECTURE - ART IN THE GREATER REGION OF GJIROKASTER. PROMOTION OF THE LOCAL HISTORY THROUGH THE EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS OF THE ARCHDIOCESE

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Abstract

The presence and preservation of a very large number of monuments of Christian worship in Albania, is a fact. These range over a period time from the early Christian centuries until today. Many of these monuments, due to their high artistic and architectural value, were placed under state supervision and listed as cultural preservation monuments during the atheistic regime of Enver Hotza. In this way, the monuments survived and were avoided from destruction. After the collapse of the socialist regime, and with the election of Mr. Anastasios as the new Archbishop of Albania (1990), the condition of the monuments of Christian worship began to change gradually as a result of their maintenance, repair, and restoration. New churches have also been constructed from the remnants of old, and totally demolished ones that were beyond repair. The Orthodox Church of Albania has continuously made enormous efforts for the salvage and preservation of this cultural heritage driven by the promotion of the rich and timeless Orthodox tradition in the country. At the same time, great concern has been shown by the Church in organizing education by the establishment schools at all levels. The aim of this paper will be the promotion of post-Byzantine monuments in the greater Gjirokaster region (history, architecture, painting), the contribution of the Church in their salvage and promotion of local history through the educational institutions of the Church of Albania (institutions attended by mixed student populations - both Greek and Albanian).

Keywords: *Post-Byzantine art, Temples, Ecclesiastical "Holy Cross" High School*

The aim of this presentation is to highlight the Ecclesiastical architecture-art in Gjirokaster, the facilitation of Church, as far as the spreading of the latter is concerned and the projection of the local history via the educational institutes of Albania's Church. To have a better understanding though of the existing situation in Albania, it would be noteworthy for a rather than small historical flashback to be done but also an allusion regarding architecture and painting as well.

1. Historical flashback

Christianity was disseminated into Epeiros and Illyria, today's Albania, by Apostle Paul himself (Aravatinos 1856, Economou 1969) who made the mainland city of Nicopolis home of his missionary action. In the first centuries of the Roman Empire, the death of lots of Christians was noted, at the expense of the persecutions that were made against them. remarkable Christians of that period are St. Astis, St. Donatos, St. Eleftherios, etc. Epeiros was part of the east Illyric area and belonged to the jurisdiction of the bishop of Rome until 732 A.C. After 732 A.C the ecclesiastical provinces belonged to the jurisdiction of the Ecumenical Patriarchate of Istanbul (then Constantinoupolis), been integrated into the Syntagma of the provinces of the Ecumenical Throne (Aggelopoulos 1992).

The Balkan territories that were conquered by the Ottomans in the 15th century formed an administrative unity, Vilaeti of Roumelis. Gjirokaster, was conquered in 1418 A.C.

Main administrative unit of the church was Metropolis and its subdivision Archdiocese, likewise during the Ottoman Empire every Metropolis and Archdiocese had its very specific position in «order of primacy» of the bishops of the Patriarchate with thorough geographical limits. In 1835 the episcopacy of Driinoupolis was upgraded to Metropolis and titled as Driinoupolis, Delvinou and Cheimaras Metropolis, having as its headquarters Gjirokaster (Papa 2009).

During the period of the Ottoman Empire the most serious issue, as far as Church was concerned, was the constant Islamization. As a supportive solution for the Orthodox people, in the 17th century and onwards a lot of new abbeys were built, in different places, which simultaneously were evolved to Orthodox centers of defiance, spiritual growth, education and beneficial action. The monasteries of Ravenion, Pepelis, Dryanou, Tsepou, e.t.c (Papa 2009, Tritos 2005, Giakoumis 1997) That period was sealed by a new surge of Christian persecution, owing to their faith, including some characteristic persons such as St.Kosmas Etolos, St.Chris Kipouros (Gardener), martyr Nikodimos from Elbasan, St. Jacob Arvanitis from Koritsa etc.

In the 20th century in tandem with the

creation of the Albanian state, the issue of an independent Albanian Church emerged, due to the fact that the ecclesiastical emancipation would facilitate the establishment of the political independence. The underlying state of the first years of independence was expressed in 1922 in Verati, notwithstanding only in 1937 was the Albanian Church officially provided with the right of self administration (Autocephalous), in compliance with the publication of the Patriarchal and Synodical Volume regarding the blessing of Autocephalous of the Albanian Orthodox Church. (Economou 1990, Alexoudis 1869, Glavinas 1985)

The development of the Albanian Church was unfortunately interrupted by the Second World War and a little later, in 1944, by the rising of the Albanian communists. As a capping stone, as far as the entire above are concerned, functioned the proclamation made in 1967 by the Albanian powers that be, that Albania was the first Marxist Atheist state in the world. This announcement had tragic consequences on every religious community in the following years such as closure of churches, monasteries, deformation of the clergy, persecutions and martyrdoms (Gianoulatos 2003, Aggelopoulos 1992, Dorkofiki 1991, Voulgaraki 1997)

The salvation reoccurred in 1990 with the falling of the communist regime and the carings of Istanbul's Mother Church (then Constantinoupolis) for the reconstruction-reconstitution of the Albanian Church with the mission of Mr. Anastasios, Patriarchic Exarchos Metropolitan of Androusis who is also the running bishop of Tirana and whole Albania. (Church of Albania 2012) After his election, Mr. Anastasios as the leader of the Archdiocese started gradually the reconstruction, reconstitution, preservation and erection of new churches as well.

1.2. Flashback about architecture and art

A large amount of Orthodox churches, which date since the first post-Christian centuries until the modern times, is preserved in Albania (Papa 1965). There are monuments that form real proofs of "*the culture, spirit, and nation's DNA*", as it is underlined by the bishop of Albania, Anastasios. Lots of them, owing to their peculiar architecture and artistic assessment, were under the protection of the state as Cultural

Monuments and they survived through the mishaps that the specific country had been through during the centuries. Nevertheless, like it was not enough what was preceded in the past, a bigger threat was about to devastate them, during the perennial persecution of religion by the dictatorial communist regime. Many of them could not avoid the sheer abandonment although they were entitled as Cultural Monuments. It is of substantial necessity to stress the fact that the same happened to all the equal ones that belonged to other religions throughout the country.

One hundred and twenty nine churches and abbeys (181 of them were included into the catalogue of abbeys) were kept under the protection of the state as Cultural Monuments, thanks to the efforts made by a special team of experts (Church of Albania 2005). Furthermore, lots of icons and ecclesiastical objects of artistic value, which are being exposed in various museums of the country, were congregated and preserved.

The liberty of the religious faith after the falling of the dictatorial communist regime was restituted in the presence of tragically devastated monuments. Moreover, the redemption of the religious faith found a majority of villages and cities without worship places and, in the best case, churches in wretched conditions that simultaneously were devoid of ecclesiastical objects.

Mr. Anastasios highlights that, most of the times, the believers were forced to perform the Divine Liturgy or other sacred ceremonies outdoor -where once there were monasteries and churches built- ,at semi-abandoned temples or under huge trees.

Under these circumstances, the erection of sacred buildings constituted a priority among the other ones of the Independent Orthodox Church in Albania, in order to develop the ecclesiastical belief and life. Taking this outlook into consideration, the reconstruction of old ecclesiastical buildings took precedence over the erection of new ones.

However, as it is underlined by the bishop, as far as the reconstruction of the buildings that were characterized as cultural monuments is concerned, "...the effort was more complex and challenging, considering that the respective scientific surveys would have to be conducted by

the professionals on the one hand and, consequently for the important procedure of the reconstruction to be done, by specialized teams, based on the architecture that nowadays prevails throughout Europe".

The reconstruction of the temples was based precisely on this sort of pieces of research and criteria. As a result of all the things referred, until today, over 60 ecclesiastical monuments have been reconstructed, owing to the direct caring and the complete subsidy of bishop Anastasios.

In tandem with the above actions, videotapes about the conserved monuments were released by Mrs. M. Mayrikoy.

In parallel, a workshop for the conservation of the icons was built in Tirana, in which a lot of thousands of old icons have been restored. Additionally, a handful of various scientific meetings were held, such as the International Symposium "2000 years Church Art and Culture in Albania" (Tirana 16-18 November 2000), where 46 scientists from Albania, England, Austria, Greece, Bulgaria presented their announcements. Scientific publications were subsidized for the scientific inheritance, like the work of Professor Pirro Thomo "Post-Byzantine Temples in South Albania", "Restoration of the Orthodox Church Monuments in Albania" etc. Also, leaflets were published and radio shows were beamed by Church's Radio Station for the popularization and spreading of the political acids and generally in order to make the public aware regarding the need of protecting this priceless inheritance.

2. Early Christian Monuments

In tandem with the spread of Christianity, the erection of buildings of the new faith emerged. It is not accidental the fact that a lot of essential, for early Christian architecture, monuments were discovered in Albania.

During that period, of wide usage was the type of aisled basilica (temple of Skampin's cemetery, in Elbasan, Amanthia's basilica, Bouthroto's big basilica, Byllida's basilicas, Bals's, Foiniki's, Agion Saranta's, Arapai's, nearby Dyrrachio etc.) and single aisles churches (Antigonea, Apollonia, Dyrraxio, Agioi Saranta, etc), but equally well known were the centrally planned temples (Lin's temple, nearby Pogradets, and Bouthroto's baptistry).

Their inlaid decoration was mostly about the internal space of the temple and was based on the affluent decorative processing of the architecture and construction elements (peacekeepers, iconostasis, pulpits etc) and, more particular, on the coating of the floor using colorful mosaic works. In parallel with motifs that have been inherited since ancient times, mainly those of the geometric type, we can notice that into the mosaic symbols of Christian faith are introduced zoomorphic and plant like motifs but anthropomorphic figures as well.

3. Byzantine Period Monuments

The period that came right after early Christian era started with the closing of the erections of new buildings; the monuments of that period were absent as well. Scriptures of the specific era sometimes refer to prior period buildings that were still in use. The latter could be still useful, owing to their dimensions, floor plan and as far as the development into the space is concerned, that is the reason that one part was either repaired or reconstructed.

Starting from the 10th century the construction activity is rejuvenated in order to erecting temples, which is obvious from their increase in number and the typological repertoire chosen. During that period a lot of single aisle temples exist, the tradition of basilica temples continues and a new type of churches is introduced, the cruciform domed one into different variations (Panagia's temple in Ano Episkopi, Panagia's temple in Kosina of Premeti etc.). However, temples that are slightly dissimilar, as far as the floor plan and their development into space are concerned, are not absent, such as Theotokos' temple in Labovo of Stavros in Gjirokaster and St. Nicolas's temple of the monastery in Mesopotamo in Agion Saranta area.

3.1. Byzantine Art

The whole internal space of a temple is covered with hagiographies and a handful of icons are placed onto the walls, depicting Church's saints and martyrs, scenes of the life of Jesus and Theotokos, or scenes taken from the Bible, in order for them to function as a means of education to the believers. The high artistic progression of that era is obvious enough, although not a lot of works are being preserved.

For instance, the hagiographies of Mborje's Christ temple in Koritsa or Theotokos temple in Maligrad Island of Prespa Lake are representative examples of art of the paleologian period, where byzantine art obtains new characteristics, regarding face movement, expression of the internal thought etc, which served as base for the reinforcement of the Western Early Renaissance art.

4. Post-Byzantine period's monuments

The 10-century byzantine period including all of the important innovations, as far as architecture and art are concerned, is left behind by the ottoman occupation in the 15th century. The post-byzantine architecture that was settled afterwards, even though it borrowed a series of characteristics from the former one, was branded neither as its imitation nor as its persistence. Being established in a period described by a total different historical context, undoubtedly post-byzantine architecture has its very own profile. A large amount of monuments -since that specific period and onwards in Gjirokaster, which represent all of the types and variations of the whole period, are being saved until now.

As far as typology is concerned, we notice roomed temples, cruciform ones with cupola and aisled basilicas. Each one of those temples varies from the other taking into account the internal space structure and the way each one is built. The first type consists of temples that are covered with just one wooden roof, temples that are housed with arches, temples, which their internal space has a vertical development with the housing of the main part, with cupola and finally temples with cruciform roofs. The second type is substantially applied to abbeys. The third type is observed in distinctive varieties of churches, such as basilicas with cupola, basilicas which their internal space is housed with a system including arrows, arches and cupolas and finally wooden structured basilicas with flat roofs.

Taking into consideration the time, post-byzantine period covers a four-century term, starting from the 16th century and closing in the 19th century. In the 16th century building activities start to reoccur after the one-century interruption. During the century in question, the characteristic erection of small roomed wooden

structured temples (St. George in Ano Lesnitsa, St. Saranta in 1525, St. Dimitrios in Polytsiani in 1526, etc.) is done.

However in parallel with the simple variation substantially applied to abbeys we discern more developed variations like roomed arch covered temples (Church of Prophet Ilias abbey in Georgoutsati in 1585), cruciform roofed temples (Church of Metamorphosis abbey in Tstatista in 1584), cruciform temples (Churches of the abbeys in Zerbati in 1569, Banista in 1582, Voubiani in 1588, Goratzi in 1600, Kameno Delbino in 1580), and basilicas with copula as well (St. Dimitrios in Polytsiani in 1513).

During the 17th century not only an increase, as far as the erection of orthodox churches is concerned, is done but also an increase regarding the typological choices. Usual types of temples were the roomed evolved variation ones (Churches of St. George in Dema and St. Nicolas in Dirni of St. Saranta abbeys, etc), the erection of cruciform temples continued (churches of the abbeys in Stegopolis in 1624, Sarakinista in 1630, Kamimia in 1672, and Krosera in 1672, Agious Saranta, etc.) and finally basilicas with copula were increased in number (Panagias Church in Brachogorantzi in 1612, Church of Panagias abbey in Pikerasi- Agioi Saranta in 1672, etc.).

During the 18th and 19th centuries a rather new phenomenon about the erection of orthodox temples is distinguished. Their number increased crucially, while the prevalent type was that of basilica with three aisles, which was demonstrated with variety of forms and variations. Basilicas with copula were to be found (Churches of Panagias's Abbeys in Nibani, in 1702, Panagias's temple in Eleousa of Permetis in 1812, Koimisi of Theotokos church in Zerbates in 1606), basilicas being housed with a system combined of arrows, arches and copulas (Agia Paraskeyi churches in Premeti in 1776, Panagias's temples in Sopiki in 1782, and many other ones into each community) and wooden structured basilicas.

4.1. Post-byzantine art

The tradition of the inlaid decoration with hagiographies, icons, iconostasis, pulpits, episcopate thrones, places to worship etc, is preserved in post-byzantine monuments. Post-byzantine painting made an appearance in the first half of the 16th century, even though the

architectural elements had not taken shape yet and churches were still small and simple. It is noteworthy, though, to place emphasis on the fact that in those churches the principles of post-byzantine art were to be found and more specifically creators like Ilias Loggobitis (in Ano Lesnitsa, Pesa, 1525). In addition, one of the most well known painters in the 16th century, Onoufrios, who has also painted Agion Apostolon Church in Kastoria, came on the surface regarding the simple churches in Spathia in Elbasan; the hagiographies in St. Theodoros church and the icons of Eyaggelismos church, in Berat's castle, belonged to the painter referred before. The 16th century includes names of important painters such as Nicolas, who has painted Panagia Blacherna's temple in 1578, and Onoufrios the Cypriot, who is known as a painter of thousands of icons and hagiographies of Panagias's temple in Brachogorantzi in 1622, where the latter collaborated with another painter, Alevizos.

During the 17th century, a team consisted of painters from Linotopi in Kastoria was quite active, more specifically regarding abbeys Gjirokaster and the abbeys are concerned (hagiographies of church of Prophet Ilias's abbey in Georgoutsati (1617), Church of Eyaggelistris's abbey in Banista (1617), St. Nicolas's Church in Sarakinista (1630), Prophet Ilias's church in Stegopolis in 1653). Other painters that executed their work in abbeys of Agion Saranta area like Michael from Zerma, who is the creator of the works of the Panagias's Churches in Kamenas's (1662) and Kakomeas's (in 1672) abbeys.

The 18th century is characterized by the artistic and construction activity. Well known painters perpetuated their own names through the inscriptions carved onto the walls of the churches. David Selenitsiotis is claimed to be the arch painter of the century in question, who was the most famous successor of Panselinos School or Protatou of Mount Athos and painted St. Nicolas's church in Moschopolis (1723). His works can be found in St. John the Forerunner's church in Kastoria (1727), in Megali Panagia's church in Thessaloniki (1727), in Mount Athos's abbeys as well (the nave of Portaitisas (Koukouzeltsas) chapel) in Lavras monastery in Agio Oros (1715), and the external nave of the catholicon of Doxeiario abbey.

Konstantinos and Athanasios, who were

brothers, from Koritsa and their sons shined out for their long activity in lots of places: in Koritsa, in Moyzakia until Agio Oros's abbeys (Filotheos abbey's catholicon (1752), St. Anna abbey's temple (1757), the exterior nave of St. Filotheos abbey's catholicon (1765), Chsenofontas abbey's chapel (in 1766)). Additionally, a well known painter of the era in question is Konstantinos from Spathia, who painted St. Marina abbey's catholicon in Legga of Pogradets (1754) and a handful of icons, which are found in lots of churches, as well. Castro or Tsetiri family, which highlighted its Gabovou origins in every inscription, was quite active during the 18th to 19th century, mainly, in Moyzakia.

Other woodcarving works of crucial artistic assessment, such as iconostasis, episcopo thrones, pulpits etc, complete the inlaid decoration of the temples of that period. Some of them can be pinpointed in Drovianis's, Delvino's, Eleousa's, Premeti's churches.

5. The Ecclesiastical "Holy Cross" High School

Albania's Orthodox Church and the Bishop Anastasios, since his first time being in charge and taking into account that everything can be sold via education, set the education foundations for the members of the church in motion, so as the clerics and the future generations to be more qualified through innovative programs. The Orthodox Church through its modern history has a series of educational institutes starting from the lowest to the highest level.

This particular introduction is mostly focused on the Ecclesiastical "Holy Cross" High School (Iatrou 2002) and the promotion of Gjirokaster's local history through the specific school, as a proof of the educational activity of Archdiocese. In 1998 and after the Bishop's critical efforts the "Holy Cross" high school is founded in Gjirokaster, as "a bilingual, religious and private middle school" (Koutsos 2002, Tsitselikis-Christopoulos 2010). The school in question included a boarding house and would host over 90-100 Archdiocese's students in Albania, annually. Moreover, it was equal to all the other ones. Its essential goals were a) to provide to its students with not just scientific knowledge but virtually to make them qualified enough so as to perceive, edit and interpret all the information

regarding the cultural inheritance in their country and not only that, b) to make them more useful to society and church, c) to make them future officers (Archdiocese Albania 2012). What is more, the school was working in compliance with the instructions from the Ministry of Education and Sciences in Albania. However, in parallel, subjects like hagiography, byzantine music, archeology etc are taught as well.

One of the key contributions of the archbishop was the inclusion of iconography and archeology in the curriculum of the courses. For instance, hagiography was taught in every class whereas archeology was taught only in the last school class. It is noteworthy to stress that archeology was taught in Greek and Albanian. The lesson was start with general information, as far as byzantine archeology was focused, on ecclesiastical monuments throughout Albania and more specifically in Gjirokaster.

Furthermore, archeology lessons were taken place in conjunction with visual material, projecting different Albanian monuments and mainly those in Gjirokaster. Many educational school trips were held, which combined contact with the place and entertaining activities for the students. For instance the school would go to old churches or monasteries to be present for the Divine Liturgy and therefore enabling students to be participants of the local history. Those trips were taking place over and over throughout the year, due to the fact that the majority of the students lived in the boarding house, because they came from places that were far away from Gjirokaster, and it was impossible for them to return to their homes.

It is of considerable need, to pinpoint the fact that the archdiocese moved quite enough steps forward, a) with the release and production of 5 educational and relevant videotapes about post-byzantine monuments, b) with the composition of a special scientific unit for the arrangement and description of the existing monuments and c) with the foundation of the preservation and hagiography factory for the reconstruction of damaged icons, so as to obtain their former beauty again.

Aim of everything mentioned before and of educations, as well, was to make students-and not only have them- able to perceive and listen to the voices of the past and consider Church the connecting parted through the centuries past.

The Bishop used to use the following phrase "even if we hush the stones will be screaming".

The 3-year residence of one of the co-authors of this paper - Mr. G.Sarigiannidis - in Gjirokastrer of Albania (2002-2005) as a teacher at the "Holy Cross" high school, constituted life experience, to him, for the present and the future as a human being and a teacher as well. The experience mentioned above was pointed, by the collaboration between Mr. G. Sarigiannidis and Albania's Archbishop Mr. Anastasios and by the principal of the ecclesiastical high school, who is also now the Metropolitan in Central Africa, Mr. Nikiforos Mikragiannitis.

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THE PEREGRINATION OF ALEXANDRA PAPADOPOULOU AS A CONNECTION BETWEEN EAST AND WEST

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Abstract

In the 19th century, the teaching profession offers women the opportunity to move away from their place of residence, leaving behind the father house of confinement as well as of security. That emerges a feeling of independence, which is quite remarkable for the era (Ziougou-Karastergiou 2006). Alexandra Papadopoulou's peregrinations constitute a characteristic example of this. Alexandra Papadopoulou was born in 1867 in Constantinople. She was a student of the "Pallas" School for Girls, from which she graduated with an honours degree as a teacher. As she loses her father at a young age she has to work as a teacher with a view to supporting herself and her family (Papakostas 1980). Due to her work, Papadopoulou moves in the urban environment of Constantinople. Because of her attitude for Demoticism, she experiences a cruel personal war which results in her being forbidden to practice her profession as a teacher in the "official and charitable Educational Institutions" of Constantinople (Fotiadis 1902: 8-9). This is how she broke the boundaries through her educational role and experienced a journey of ideas, independence and loneliness. Papadopoulou's peregrinations in Sylvania (Eastern Thrace), Bucharest, Constantinople and Thessaloniki, "link the Hellenism of Constantinople with that of Wallachia and Macedonia" (Ziougou-Karastergiou 2006). Yet, is this really so? The aim of this research is to study Alexandra Papadopoulou's moves, not as steps on a professional career route but as a way of disseminating ideas which interweave the era with her personality and vice versa.

Keywords: *nationalism, East- West, education, reception, Ottoman Empire*

1. Introduction

Over the last decades, while recognition of the importance of gender has been increased, there is a remarkably intense interest in the bibliography dealing with social history of teaching and teachers' work (Ziougou-Karastergiou 2005: 186). According to Ziougou-Karastergiou (2005) "the feministic historiography sets in doubt the image and the ideological constitution of teacher's meaning, as it is presented in traditional bibliography and

demonstrates the need of reconstructing teachers' world, analyzing the circumstances that lead to the construction of social identity" (*ibid*).

A remarkable change is noted at the end of the 1990s, when the interest in female studies and especially women writers is renewed (Denisi 2009: 84). The present study considering the teacher Alexandra Papadopoulou is put under this frame. Papadopoulou, who was mainly known for her writing activity, has focused over the last years the interest of several researchers (Papakostas 2002, Papakostas 2003, Mavrelas 2008, Denisi 2009, Lalagianni 2009, Ziras 2005, Tamboukou 2004).

Contemporary studies, based mainly in Papadopoulou's analytical biography and ergography by John Papakostas in 1980, have been increased, expanding the interest from the literary approaches of her works to connections concerning female identity (Lalagianni 2009, Tamboukou 2004, Denisi 2009). Papadopoulou, can also be found in collective studies referring to female writing of the 19th century (Ioannidou 2001, Rizaki 2007) and to the writing activity of the same period (Ziras 1996: 392- 441). Although, the research of the reception of ideas and in Papadopoulou's writings is completely absent from any approach of her works.

Main purpose of this research is the study of "foreign" influence in Papadopoulou's discourse, in the way it shows the transfer of western thinking to Balkan territory. The absence of East in western thinking during the 19th century, due to the need of Europeanism is also a new research field, in which we consider the writer-teacher to have act as a "means" of reception and transfer of ideas.

The research questions we are going to deal with in this paper are:

- During the transmission of ideas, which is Papadopoulou's stance? Is the reception she makes positive, negative or critical?
- Which is the "weight" of Western influences in connection therewith those of the East Europe?
- Under this frame, is the image of Greece a "western" or an "eastern" space according to her?

The framework of the research is within the values of historical interpretative method. The analysis of the historical material was made using a conjunction of Qualitative Content

Analysis and Critical Discourse Analysis, emphasizing in Social-cultural practice. (Cohen & Manion 2000, Wodak 2001).

2. Greek letters in Ottoman space, at the turn of the 19th century

In 1878 the foreign observer A. Synvet briefly states referring to Hellenism in Constantinople that "there is no other community having contributed at the same grade on the growth of public education" (Svolopoulous 2003: 55). Actually, after the publication of Hattie Choumagioum, the "appeal" of the Hellenism of Constantinople in studies started expressing under the jurisdiction of the Ecumenical Patriarchate, which under some freedom had the general supervision (Papakostas 1980: 31). Under this supervision, and with the brave contribution of selective figures of the Greek community and the assistance of the free kingdom, the possibilities for the function of school and the cultivation of studies are more and more secured. The spread of this Greek education cannot be seen separately of the importance it plays in the configuration and demonstration of Greek national consciousness (Svolopoulos 2003: 54).

Parallel to the growing organizing of Hellenic institution there is a wider cultural movement through Unions, Organizations, Clubs (Svolopoulos 2003: 81-93), etc. which cater for the cultivation of Greek audience and act as important educational institutions (Papakostas 1980:32). This spread of letters through the Greek communities is enforced even more from the absence of Universities, while Greeks of Constantinople "study" – in a much wider range than other national groups – in universities abroad, adopting a reforming attitude, evolutionary scientific and technical methods and constitute – according to *Neologos* newspaper (13/25 February 1873) the "font" for the rebirth of the East, where people ought to realize that "their growth will be achieve through Greek studies".

In Constantinople, the frame of constructive initiatives in the wider education section and high educational standards, results "the emergence of important intellectual units and the contribution in the efforts for the spread of knowledge by the Greek community" (Svolopoulos 2003: 62-63). Such an intellectual

figure is teacher and writer Alexandra Papadopoulou.

Alexandra Papadopoulou was born in Constantinople in 1867. She was a student of the "Pallas" School for Girls, from which she graduated with an honors' degree as a teacher. As she loses her father at a young age she has to work as a teacher with a view to supporting herself and her family (Papakostas 1980: 81-83).

Due to her work, Papadopoulou moves in the urban environment of Constantinople. Because of her attitude for Demoticism she experiences a cruel personal war which results in her being forbidden to practice her profession as a teacher in the "official and charitable Educational Institutions" of Constantinople (Fotiadis 1902:8-9). This is how she broke the boundaries through her educational role and experienced a journey of ideas, independence and loneliness. Papadopoulou's peregrinations in Sylivria (Eastern Thrace), Bucharest, Constantinople and Thessaloniki, "link the Hellenism of Constantinople with that of Wallachia and Macedonia" (Ziougou- Karastergiou 2006:225). Yet, is this really so?

3. Western influence in Alexandra's Papadopoulou discourse

Starting from Constantinople at the end of the 19th century, Papadopoulou's opinions "travel" through the periodical press of the time. She publishes her texts in Athens, as a correspondent. She mainly wishes to spread out two ideas – the idea of family, as a social institution and her attitude towards the linguistic issue. In both cases, her influence comes from the West and mostly from France. Yet, the fermentation has taken place in the bourgeois as well as traditional environment of Constantinople.

During the period we are referring to, the Hellenes in Constantinople develop great intellectual and cultural activity (Papakostas 1980:28-50). Schools, associations and libraries become landmarks of a special advancement of the intellect. The Greeks of Constantinople travel to Europe; they study in Universities abroad and convey the ideas of the Enlightenment (Svolopoulos 2003:66) However, powerful social structures like the Patriarchate, the educational institutes and the press, hinder the development of a fruitful interaction with the West and the

mental environment is defined by 'stagnancy' within the narrow boundaries of a 'centuries-old spiritual slavery' (Spanoudi 1939).

Alexandra Papadopoulou breaks the boundaries of scholasticism and takes her views to liberated Athens. She publishes short stories focused on marriage, on profit relationships and on dowry. The main characters are almost always women. Her heroines are sometimes sensitive and obedient and sometimes sly and disloyal. Being well-aware of the work by Sand, Girarden και Sael, she can distinguish the different aspects of these foreign writers in the female fictional heroines of theirs; in Stael she meets with virtue, in Girarden with loyalty and sweetness and in Sand with 'creatures unworthy of attention' (Papadopoulou 1898).

In Papadopoulou's short stories we will come across all these conflicting and contradictory women. Her stories, however, are often seen through the perspective of the social prosperity for which family is intended. Criticizing Sand's ideas that marriage is an anachronistic institution, in her short story titled 'Evlogimeni Mera' she considers the wedding day to be such and the institution of marriage to be the future of society (Papadopoulou 1893). Greek intellectuals and writers already refer to social progress through the "bonds" of marriage and family, over the last decades of the 19th century, aiming at the transmission of joy that family and faith in the country could support and "freeing" wives of the zenana and fronting them as "companions" (Tzanaki 2007:267).

Along with her literary work, she sends, to the capital of Greece, her views concerning the linguistic issue, which has burst out after the publication of the *My Travel* by Psicharis in 1888. The discourse that she communicates is again influenced by the West; literary production in the language of the people, a principle that Psicharis strongly conveyed from Paris. She fights for the rekindling of the linguistic issue and advocates for *Demoticism*, the language which in her opinion can express the people's feelings. She knows the power of her opponents well and she insists on works, not words. Yet, she publishes both in *Demotic*, the daily language of the people, as well as in the official *Katharevousa* language. This controversy of words and deeds is owed to intense pressure by the authorities in favor of *Katharevousa*, which led most of the supporters of Demotic Greek to

adopt the first in their public discourse, with a view to finding work and a means of expression (Fotiadis 1902:94). Yet, Papadopoulou dares to penetrate the 'shrouded' (Gryparis 1894: 168-173) atmosphere of Constantinople and publishes a short story in Demotic Greek in the biggest city newspaper *Neologos*. 'Areti kai Kakia', (Papadopoulou 1899a) was to become the reason for the outbreak of the linguistic issue in Constantinople (Yalouris 1920:133-139, Fotiadis 1902: 8-10) as well as the cause of persecution against her.

Job search takes her to Sylivria (1897-1899) where she is employed as a teacher in the Community School for Girls. In Sylivria, she becomes active nationalistically, making a great cross section in her work for the following years. All her inspiration and action now have an intense patriotic character. She publishes short stories concerning Macedonia, she speaks in public against the Bulgarians, the Vlachs as well as the Greeks who denounce their Greek origin for financial reasons (Papadopoulou 1894, 1902). The nationalistic character of her short stories focuses most in language and civilization through myths. Especially language is for Papadopoulou the main link that connects Greeks of the Diaspora to Greece, therefore she is very weary to spread it (Papadopoulou 1899b, 1899c, 1900c). This support of national identity, which no longer defines the foreign elements in a religious base, is a strong proof of the influence of the Enlightenment in Balkan thought (Kitromilides 1999:62), which Papadopoulou spreads through the largest part of her writings, while traveling away from Constantinople.

The patriotic orientation of the Greeks is developed even more in her works when she moves to Bucharest in 1899. By publishing short stories in the Greek newspaper 'Patris Voukourestiou' she tries to boost the national morale. However, apart from the national character of her work, she conveys ideas in favor of peoples' freedom. In her short story 'Aionon Teleti' (1900b), she carries the readers to the turning point of the century, making a review of the receding century. In this work, all the achievements of the 19th century, such as science, philology and international law, which had been intended for social welfare, are unable to bring happiness since the concept of peace does not rule peoples. According to her, peoples' freedom is the biggest bet which was lost in the

19th century and 'because without the goods of freedom, no good is developed' she asks the new era (the 20th century) to offer freedom, wherever the thick darkness of slavery shades the sun rays.

Through this text Papadopoulou conveys the discourse of the West and in particular the modernist perception of social progress of the Enlightenment, interwoven with the expansion of freedom among peoples. Through the Greek liberating fight, she manages to look beyond, into an international scene, in which individual happiness is based on and is the basis of global prosperity.

Her nationalistic ideas finally become the axis of her travels. In 1902, she returns to Constantinople after having passed from Thessaloniki and having in vain asked for her contribution to the Macedonian Fight. She writes letters for the 'good fight' there and hesitates about her next stop, aiming at what is 'most beneficial for the nation' (Papakostas 1980). Her contacts with people from the core of the Macedonian Fight take her to Thessaloniki, where, in 1905, she becomes Headmistress of the "Practical School for Girls of Stefanos Noukas" (Ziougou- Karastergiou 1997: 26-34).

From this position she declares the operation principles of the Girls School, intertwining views about the education of women and their destination in society. At the inauguration of the school, her discourse refers to education structured on the model of family life. The role of the mother is recognized as fundamental and determining to the girls training and the co-operation of school and family is encouraged (Mostratos 2005: 137). The perception of social welfare through the right education of girls as future mothers and wives and, mostly, the emphasis on the educators' maternal love and devotion, in the practicality of knowledge and through the role of supervision in the learning practice, convey to the society of Thessaloniki the discourse of the Enlightenment and Romanticism, with concealed references to Rousseau's *Emile* and to Pestalozzi's *Leonard and Gertrude*.

The unmistakable mother instinct in breeding children is also referred in her novel "I theia Eutuchia", by writing: "I bought books about breeding, Rousseau, Michelet, Legouv   and numerous other writers passed by my hands and while I could find in their technical arguments the solution of complex problem of

breeding, when trying to apply it I found that it is all just words put in right order and nothing more. [...] To tell you that I used program and methods, meaning certain knowledge, would be a true lie. They (the children) taught me how to breed them" (Papadopoulou 1904: 21). In her "theory" about children breeding she recognizes what it seems she denies: the enlightenment ideal about the extraordinary nature of children.

These views, however, incorporated within the Greek social reality of the turn of the century, change orientation. The pedagogic role of the mother moves away from Pestalozzi's views, but it is mainly combined with the moral – social dimension of the girls' education of that period. In this way, the practical nature of education, that Papadopoulou supports, obtains social value, a principle which is mostly conveyed by the ideal of the Enlightenment concerning the education of girls. Specifically, while the Enlightenment recognized the "special nature" of women as individuals, it didn't manage, within the whole framework of human rights, to declare equal individual claims for them. On the contrary, as concerns the female population, reference is made to a "moderated" submission with a view to refining the female nature, as well as to a "lighter" education which is limited to the social importance and benefit it serves, within the private sphere of the house where it is to become active (Dalakoura 2004: 213-217).

4. East and "the west of the West" in Papadopoulou's works

Although Alexandra Papadopoulou communicates in a great deal the western spirit, and especially the enlightenment ideal, she transfers in a critical way the Eastern European literature in her short stories. These reports are not plenty, but are crucial as far as it concerns her literary preferences.

Specifically in her short story «Yios kai Kori» (1894) she refers to Carmen Sylva, the Queen of Romania who was also a very productive writer. Papadopoulou had read lots of Sylva's short stories and she writes: "they are ethnographic and written with true heart, but there is no real inspiration, and are hastily written according to my opinion". She believes that Sylva enjoys her glory as a writer through "the glory" of her crown, which "elevated them [the literary works] in the eminence they are" (Papadopoulou 1894:

12). Being critical against the crown she raises her awareness through her reading experience while "I have read a lot and good literature and I am able to judge, without dreaming of imposing myself as a critic" (*Ibid*).

"A lot and good" refers to Russian literature. Comparing Russian writers to French she writes: "Russians are the best novelists. I love them because I understand them. They are great psychologists and analyze characters lively, naturally" (Papadopoulou 1889: 8). Under this frame she compares the two great literary "schools", Russian to French, writing: "a French novel pleases me, while a Russian one teaches me. I read it (the Russian) to gain" (*ibid*). Beyond the drift of the era for a "deposition" of French novel as a means of women's imagination development and a dangerous drift away from the Greek ethical prototypes (Tzanaki 2007: 79, 105), we must recognize the literary criterion that Papadopoulou distinguishes in Russian literature. This needs to be done because Papadopoulou creates a "human geography" (Ziras 2005: 27), with all the snapshots she narrates, deepening in human nature through literary narration.

In relation to the "attack" against French literature, during the opening of Stephanos Noukas' school for girls, Papadopoulou tries to excuse the choice of teaching French in the program of the school. She hopes that, French language "will donate its goods" (Papadopoulou 1905) through the instructive French history and its charming literature so that the pupil will "gain precepts and real benefit" (*ibid*). In the same context she criticizes "pulp magazines" calling it the "stupidest thing" (*ibid*). This fear has a twofold character: on the one hand Papadopoulou worries about the harmful influences of French pulp magazines and novels and on the other hand she propounds and enforces the Greekness of the Practical school for girls in a nationally "threatened" geopolitical area. The scaremonger and fantasies of the campaign of the educators and the intellectuals regarding the consequences of the foreign – mostly French – novels on women, takes place during the whole 19th century and demonstrates eventually the character of controversy society ascribes to women's love for reading (Varika 2007: 202-204). Nevertheless this rhetoric uses arguments taken from the value based behavior rules system that fit in Greek women's ethics.

Foreign novels seem to cause harmful ethic reactions, turning the future to be housewife and companion away from her “natural” destination (Tzanaki 2007: 105). Under this frame, hers conservative discourse according to woman’s destination and the national study it should take, makes Papadopoulou cynical and negative towards French literature.

On the contrary, in her extensive novel called *I thia Eftihia*, Papadopoulou refers a lot of time and in a positive way to Greek writers’ names. She seems to be very well aware of the ’80 generation a member of which is herself: Xenopoulos, Palamas, Eftaliotis, Kalvos, Vlahos, Kleon Ragkavis, Ioannidis, bring Greek literature one level up. Spread of Greek studies through language has for Papadopoulou, a national aspect via Demoticism’s argumentation. “Conserving” a small literary salon in her home in Haskoy (Yianniou- Gaitanou 1948:918) but also taking part in the most important Literature Salons of Constantinople, she describes in her short story “Ta Erga ton Didaskalon” (1895) the dialogue concerning the language fiction should use, leading the conversation to the Linguistic issue and the fight between Demoticism and Katharevousa. The belief that Papadopoulou transmits is the prod she gives to Demoticists for a systematic literature production, so they can cover the gap, due to the established situation on behalf of katharevousa fans. This belief is her main statement in texts she publishes referring to the linguistic issue, a statement proceeding mainly from the Psicharian sermon and it connects language of the people to its political dimension. As he says: “A nation, to become nation, needs two things; to expand its borders and to make its own literature. When it proves it knows what Demotic language is worth and it is not ashamed for this language, then we can see it is a nation. It needs to expand not only its physical, but also its mental borders (*ibid*).

5. Epilogue

Having experienced recognition as a writer, Alexandra Papadopoulou writes ‘thank you very much for your love of my humble words. To the construction of my literature, as you can see, I tirelessly add humble stones and I will not stop until my hand is dead or my head is dried up’ (Papadopoulou 1896) and her “journey” stops here, since in 1906, she suddenly dies at the age

of 39. Her early death put an end to her offer, as she herself had foretold, to Modern Greek literature as well as to the pedagogic work she had envisaged from the position of Headmistress.

Alexandra Papadopoulou’s journey had, as we have seen, many stops; Constantinople, Athens, Thrace, Bucharest, Thessaloniki. Her trail very often started from the same point; the influence of the West through French. Between the role of a writer and that of a teacher, being influenced by discourses of the Enlightenment (Rousseau) and Romanticism (Pestalozzi), she methodizes female education and envisions it to serve family through the utilitarian perspective of society.

She publishes texts about literature and the language used in it, bringing the readers close to the French tradition, either through intact declarations (e.g. Sand, Girardin and Stael) or through her influence by them (Psicharis). While experiencing the patriotic feeling, spreads the thought of Enlightenment for the cultural identification of nations but also she manages to see beyond the liberation of the Greek nation and to talk about world peoples’ peace, as well as individual welfare within the social, diffusing the enlightenment discourse of modernism into literary transformations.

Her biggest love however comes from the East: Russian writes touch and teaches her, influencing her writing in a great deal. No matter how much this choice -that leads her to controversy with French novel- can be understood under a frame of national gathering around Greeks ideals, we cannot ignore the writer’s personal criterion and the need for a public expression.

In the frame of spreading “East to East” belong most of her references to Greek writers (Papadopoulou 1904). Papadopoulou’s role in her compatriot writers’ reception could be interpreted in the frame of demoticism and its fellows need for the spread of “modern Greek letters”. This movement however must be connected with its main supporter, Psicharis and the mean he gives to the linguistic issue as a national and political one (Psicharis 1888: 7-8). Therefore, through that speech, the role of “East in the East” can be seen as a new “Hellenization” of the East, an aspect of the Great Idea the Papadopoulou expresses through her literary work (especially in *Patris Voukourestiou*

newspaper and *Ethniki Agogi* magazine). Therefore, it seems that Greece is for Papadopoulou the West of the East: the carrier of civilization against “barbarism” through centuries. (Papadopoulou 1900a, 1900d).

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THE PHILOSOPHY OF CONSTANTINE-CYRIL AND ITS CONTRIBUTION TO THE SPREAD OF THE EDUCATIONAL POLICY IN THE SLAVIC WORLD

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Abstract

In the ninth century, the Byzantine Empire organised several diplomatic missions in order to include in its cultural commonwealth people who lived close to the borders. Between those, Cyril's mission among the Slavs was particularly noted. Although the activities of Constantine-Cyril had religious and political character, in general, his mission in the Slavic world was based on an enlightenment and had a deep educational dimension. The aim of this paper is to present the main philosophic ideas of Constantine-Cyril about the role of knowledge in the life of man and about the importance of education in the mother tongue. Also, in the paper will be stressed that, according to Cyril's philosophy, the education represents a power which lies in the zenith of cultural development of the humanity as a whole, and because of that, it dislikes borders.

Keywords: *the philosophy of Constantine-Cyril, Slavic world, educational policy, enlightenment, knowledge*

1. Introduction

In the human history, between many empires, the Byzantine Empire lived in the course of ten centuries. The long time of power and success for the "homo byzantinus" created a specific way of living. According to the viewpoint, the Empire was *the world*, and those beyond the imperial borders were automatically assigned to as *other world*, not inhabited by real people (Ivanov 2008: 305). Despite to it, the sovereigns of Constantinople had thought for this „unreal“ people constantly. They wanted to be sure that this barbarian terra incognita won't be a danger for their existence and for the empire's progress. The savagery of the *other world* had to transform in mildness with one powerful weapon: the Christianity. In the Byzantine mind the concept of universal Christianity was linked to the idea of world empire (Ivanov, 2008, p. 332). Therefore, the emperors began to receive state visits from barbarian rulers, showering them with gifts and baptism (Ivanov, 2008, p. 307). The gifts for accepting the Christianity were the most various: usually the new believers were receiving brides with a rich dowry, titles such as *land agent*, adopting a son and so on. Also, the emperors were sending diplomats, trained in the

imperial missionary policies, around the borderlands. Furthermore, these activities actually were implying only one thing: inclusion of the people who lived close to the borders in the culture of the Byzantine commonwealth.

2. Mission among the Slavs

During the ninth century the religious and missionary policies of the Byzantine Empire were significantly expanded, especially towards its Balkan borderlands, which throughout the Middle Ages were settled from the Slavs. It is well-known that the most important mission among the Slavs was confided by the Thessalonian brothers Cyril and Methodios. The sources say that Constantine-Cyril, called *philosopher*, was a man with an excellent education, a savant of many languages and a skilled orator. He already had participated in several state missions before being elected for his last task: enlightenment and baptism of the Slavs.

A key but difficult question in this story is Cyril's individual attitude towards this mission because, de facto, it was more different than the others. The answer to this question obviously has implication to Cyril's relation with the Constantinople's religious policies. We know that Cyril in his missionary activities had the support of the emperor Michael III. Also, we know that he worked with the imperial help as an ambassador and as a diplomat. Nevertheless, we don't know much about Cyril's personal desire concerning missions in general. Maybe the dialogue that Cyril had with the emperor, before going to Khazaria, can illustrate his philosophical views, deeply ingrained in the Scripture. He said to the emperor: *If you command, lord, on such a mission I shall gladly go on foot and unshod, lacking all the Lord forbade His disciples to bring.* The emperor answered, saying: *Well spoken, were you to do this! But bear in mind the imperial power and honour, and go honourably and with imperial help* (Ангелов & Кодов 1973: 95). On one hand, Cyril drew the own vision for his missionary work from the Gospel. He wanted to act according to Lord's instructions toward disciples, described by Matthew: *Don't purvey yourself with a gold and a silver in yours belts, nor with bag and two garments, nor with footwear ...* (Matthew 10: 9-10). He believed that

is fair for all people to hear the Lord's word and to receive knowledge of the God for their own well-being and salvation. On the other hand, for the emperor, the image of a lone missionary contradicts the basic concept for the imperial activism and policies, i.e. for the Byzantine perception of mission. His message is clear: the realization of the idea for Christian kingdom worldwide must be coordinated by uniform policy of the Empire. Therefore he advises Cyril to use the imperial power and help.

Byzantium's religious embassy to Moravia in 863 was a very important political act, supported by councils on the both sides. But the *Life of Constantine-Cyril* shows that in this mission, from its beginning, alongside with the policies and strategies of the Constantinopolitan court, Cyril guided himself from the personal perception of the situation.

For sure, a lot of the Slavs in the ninth century in Moravia already had accepted the Christianity (Бернштейн 1984: 77), but, actually, the number of those who understood the essentiality of the faith and who knew the Latin language of the liturgy was very small. From this, we can conclude that most of them still hesitated and that the Christianity in this land and in those days, was partial and with a nominal character. In such situation, Cyril probably had in mind that for preparing the Slavs for baptism and for understanding of Christ's doctrine, it is necessary to give them education and knowledge about the challenges with which they had to face, both youth and adults, because each change generates fear of the unknown and should be gradual. According to his philosophical standpoint he said to the emperor: *Although I'm tired and bodily sick, I will go there with gladness if they have literacy on their language* (Ангелов & Кодов 1973: 104). It was the requirement which Cyril asked for from the emperor in order to go in Moravia.

It is logically to ask oneself, why Cyril insisted on having their own literacy? Why he couldn't preach the word of Lord among Slavs orally as it's done in other missions?

Seen, in a larger philosophical perspective, we can conclude that Cyril's interest for this issue came, not only from his intent to guarantee the correctness of his own preaching (Ангелов & Кодов 1973: 104), but much more from his respecting of education understood as power

which lies in the zenith of cultural development of the humanity as a whole. He said to the emperor: *Who can write oration on water?* i.e. all efforts will be in vain hope without literacy and education (Ангелов & Кодов 1973: 104).

3. Teacher or ambassador

In the Byzantine Empire, the heiress of the diverse heritage of ancient culture and civilization, in different times and at different places existed different kinds of education. It was necessary for the social cohesion and harmony as well as for the strengthening of the specific culture of living in the big commonwealth. Cyril knew that the differences between the cultural specifics of the people in the Empire were more numerous than their mutual similarities. This was more valid for the people who lived out of the imperial borders. Therefore, upon his wishful dream for a world-wide Christian kingdom, he built his own philosophical concept which we can call *Christian humanism*.

According to this standpoint, the functioning of the human being is co-ordinated by its need to be happy and to find himself in the life of the community. The education deepens the vector of the human capability for functioning in the different spheres of the social living. Also it helps to create larger perception of the social macrostructure. Because of that, although exist relationships of the power in the humankind, according to the Cyril's philosophy, it must be allowed expression of the cultural and linguistic diversity of the people. He was stressing it many times, especially in the disputes with the clergy: *Man, tell us how you created other letter for the Slavs and teach them on it...? We know only three languages with which befit to glorify God by books: Hebraic, Greek and Latin. The philosopher answered them: Doesn't rain fall from God for all equally? Also doesn't sun shine for all? Don't all breathe air equally? Aren't you ashamed to estimate only three languages as honourable telling that all other people and tribes should be blind and deaf?* (Ангелов & Кодов 1973: 106). In this paragraph we can see Cyril's deep awareness for the world, as a creation of God, which is not homogenous sua generis. God is the creator of the diversity and people shouldn't destroy it. Also, his comment means that the superiority doesn't arise from

the political or any other kind of power but from the struggle and efforts of each human being towards the good. Every education, according to it, must be based on those principles. Cyril's idea that every nation is entitled to its alphabet and to liturgy (i.e. education) in its mother tongue, in the Middle Ages had been extremely bold and revolutionary (Илиевски 1999: 49). He considered that neither a single nation nor a culture has the right to hold the monopoly upon the human education and knowledge which appear as a value of the entire humanity. Of course, we should stress that the emperor Michael III was one of the rare people in Constantinople understanding Cyril's philosophy and believing in its correctness. Thanks to such circumstance, it was formed an unusual project known as Moravian Mission and was established the foundation of the Slavic written culture.

From the very beginning Cyril's activity among the Slavs was understood, in the first place, as educational. For this attests his naming: *the teacher*. Some Slavists think that the term *teacher* shouldn't be understood in its usual meaning (*didaskalos* or *magister*), but such naming, signified something as *missionary* or *ambassador* (*legatus*). According to them, in this function was sent Cyril in Moravia (Grivec & Tomšič 1960: 169-170). Within the framework of his commitment towards the Empire, Cyril, for sure, operated as an ambassador and provided support for the broadening of the cultural Byzantine influence in the heart of Europe. Nevertheless, in the sources, especially in the Slavic sources, Cyril was named as *teacher*, which speaks for the other feature of his mission in Moravia. Sad to say, the Byzantine sources from ninth century about this mission are silent (Нихоритис 2005: 11-38). Up to now, the key documents as strategy papers, decisions, reports and similar on it are lacking. On the other hand, it is visible that the other titles in the *Life of Constantine-Cyril* are very precisely fixed. For example, the writer knows what is *episkop*, *drungar*, *strateg*, *logothet*, *biblothekar* (librarian) and so on. Why he couldn't know what is the difference between the terms *ambassador* and *teacher*. If he knew, why he named Cyril *teacher*?

Creating an alphabet which matched the Slavonic tongue simplified the process of acceptance and understanding of the Christianity in the Slavic world. There is no doubt that for

spreading and maintaining of Christian culture among the Slavs a huge role played the Divine liturgy. Liturgy was a means of uniquely musical, poetic and visual aesthetic experience. Its extraordinary wealth in all aspects, equal in the valuable and in the appearing abundance, has made it to become, somehow, the instrument of Christianization of the people whose mother tongue was not Greek or Latin. Observed from this angle, liturgical texts translated from Greek into Slavic language by the brothers Cyril and Methodios, became a means of introducing the Slavs in the family of peoples who served the liturgy in their own native language. Thus, Slavs had not only achieved a sense of belonging to a wider universal tradition of the church, but at the same time, they received their literacy. It is an undeniable fact, e.g. that the first translations from Greek into Slavic language were made for the needs of the liturgical service (Aprakos, Apostle, Psalter), but it doesn't mean that Cyril created the alphabet only to make easier the conversion of the Slavs into Christians and into subjects of the Empire. His philosophy springs from the love for the people. According to him, the freedom of the human beings constantly approaches to God as similar to similar (Ангелов & Кодов 1973: 91). All people, „looking for the old grandfather's honor“, have a need of education and knowledge how to achieve it. Cyril said: *I had a grandfather great and very famous, who stood near the king, but after he dismissed the great honor that him was given, he was expelled and went in a foreign country. Becoming poor, there birthed me. I, however, looking for the old grandfather's honor, failed to attain, because I am grandson of Adam* (Ангелов & Кодов 1973: 96-97). For this reason, the Slavs in Cyril's person were seeing, above all, a teacher and parenthetically, a saint, a churchmen, an ambassador and so on. One of his disciples, Slavs, Clement from Ohrid, in his *Eulogy* for his teacher Cyril says: *His tongue overflowed sweet and life giving words, his clear mouth flourished with grand wisdom, his honest fingers established the spiritual organon (i.e. literacy) and decorated it with a glowing letters* (Ангелов et al 1970: 427).

4. Conclusion

According to Cyril's philosophical views, the subjection and humiliation of the people doesn't have anything in common with the real essentiality of education and with the enlightenment. The mission of the teacher is to make friends from his disciples, not servants. As is denoted in many paragraphs of the *Life*, he wanted to share his knowledge with anyone who had a desire to learn, to discuss and to know. In his whole life, Cyril loved people and taught them all which he knew. Thus, making friends from the strangers, he accomplished his dream: to follow the one's own teacher, Christ. Namely, in Chapter XV of the Gospel of John it is saying: *This is my commandment, That ye love one another, as I have loved you. Greater love hath no man than this, that a man lay down his life for his friends. Ye are my friends, if ye do whatsoever I command you. Henceforth I call you not servants; for the servant knoweth not what his lord doeth: but I have called you friends; for all things that I have heard of my Father I have made known unto you* (John 15: 12-15).

Today, in the modern seeing of the education we can recognize many elements of the Cyril's philosophy. For example: equity in education, respectability of the multiculturalism and diversity of the languages, the right of people on education in their mother tongue, dissemination of the human knowledge, and so on.

The Slavic world, after its including among the civilizations with their own literacy, survived the division of the Eastern and Western Roman Empire. This historical event generated a string of diversities among the Slavs (religion, cultural habits, different customs and rites). However, what makes them undivided is the common beginning of the literacy and education. The merit for this belongs of the great Byzantine erudite and teacher of the Slavs, Constantine-Cyril philosopher.

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THE POSITION OF ALBANIA IN THE WARSAW PACT AND IN CMEA (COUNCIL FOR MUTUAL ECONOMIC ASSISTANCE)

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Abstract

After the World War II Albania was in a very difficult political and economic situation. The Communist Party of Albania (CPA) took the power and began implementing its program, expropriating the "bourgeoisie" without compensation. During the years 1945 - 1947 a policy of rapprochement between Albania and Yugoslavia was followed. Albania was a small country without any support and Yugoslavia played a great role in the intensification of CPA. Until 1948 Albania remained a Yugoslav rather than a Soviet satellite. The economic integration of Albania to Yugoslavia moved rapidly and the treaties between two countries provided common price and joint economic planning for both parties. Albania was intended by Yugoslavia to become a member of Tito's Balkan Federation plan. Yugoslavia was seeking to emerge from the supervision of BS taking the leading role. The conflict between Tito and Stalin gave to the Albanian leader Enver Hoxha, the possibility to benefit and to create a good relationship with the Soviet Union as long as Stalin was alive. The cooperation between the two countries and the participation in CMEA (Council for Mutual Economic Assistance), would give to Albania the opportunity to receive a great assistance and economic support. When Stalin died, Khrushchev became the leader of USSR (Union of Soviet Socialist Republic) and his policy changed. Hence CMEA was expanded to a "peaceful coexistence". Albania was part of the Warsaw Pact in 1955 and this was an important event to a small communist country. The Warsaw Pact was more convenient to Albania than to the other socialist republics because it recognized Albania in the Communist Block and to the international area. The Warsaw Pact and CMEA claimed to give military, political and economic assistance to all the members of Communist Block.

Keywords: *Albania, CMEA, Warsaw Pact, Block Communist, Relationships*

1. Introduction

This article intends to explain the situation of Albania after the Second World War and its efforts of being part of important international organizations. It is divided in three parts, of which the first-level headings describe a general picture of Albania and its economic and political

difficulties. The second-level provides an overview of Albania's membership in the structures of CMEA and economic benefits from this organization. This situation lasted as long as Albania denounced CMEA as an organization that has lost its primary purpose. The third-level headings give the position of Albania during the Warsaw Pact.

Using documents of Foreign Affair Ministry of that time and thoughts of contemporary authors I am trying to present a picture of Albania after the Second World War and the difficulties of a small country during international integration.

2. The economic and politic situation of Albania after the Second World War

The reorganization process of Albania began during the Second World War but the establishment ended after the country liberation. The Albanian Communist Party (CPA) under Enver Hoxha rule had the leading role and directly made the reorganization of the administration, military, order forces and state security. The institutionalization of the political system was followed by drastic reforms against foreign and domestic capital, establishing so the state monopole. One of the most discussed reforms was the expropriation of the local bourgeoisie. In 1945 – 1946 a radical agrarian reform redistributed early half of the arable land. The implementation of this Reform had a negative impact to Albanian economy and agricultural property. The peasants didn't have any right to buy or to sale the land that was given in usage. Albania was a small country and had an urgent need to be recognized over world. This challenge consisted to be realized by Albanian Government. Only the communist countries were predisposed to have diplomatic relationship with Albania, except France that recognized it unconditionally. Great Britain and the United States were doubtful because of the elections held in Albania. The incident of Corfu Channel, on November 22, 1946 was an issue that contributed to the aggravation of Albania with the Anglo-Americans.

During 1945 - 1947 Albania began to have diplomatic relations with Yugoslavia, which played a great role on presentation of CPA. Yugoslavia helped this Party on getting power and in 1946 was signed the Treaty of Friendship

and Cooperation between two countries. According to William Griffith the Soviet – Yugoslav crisis had direct and drastic repercussion in Albania. (Griffith 1963:20) Tito-Stalin conflict affected the relationship between CPA and CPY (Yugoslav Communist Party). At this point E. Hoxha founded a new ally and joined the structures of the Soviet Bloc. Albania became part of CMEA (Council for Mutual Economic Assistance) in 1949 and part of the Warsaw Pact in 1955. Membership in these organizations gave Albania the opportunity to emerge from isolation and to sign a series of important agreements. USSR offered to Albania material goods introducing with the economic models to construct Socialism. An ally such as USSR gave CPA the needed protection and financial assistance. The situation of the Communist Eastern Bloc began to change during the years '50 as a fact of the new leader of USSR, N. Khrushchev. His reforms were more liberal and he was responsible for the partial de-Stalinization. This policy which was against Hoxha's cult frightened CPA who then after chose to be loyal to the old policy. In these circumstances the Soviet government canceled all economic aids, military supplies and even diplomatic relations with Albania. During the '60s, CPA had no ally and was forced to find a new ally that would help in the further development of the country. In these conditions, China was the only communist country that followed the same policy as Albania. This was a productive collaboration, especially to Albania that gained economic and politic aid.

2.1. The integration of Albania in the structures of CMEA

The integration of Albania through the structures of Block Communist began since the times of Stalin, after the break with Yugoslavia. Referring the communist historiography Albania has been one of the first countries participating in CMEA assisted by USSR. Albania was admitted as a member of CMEA in February 1949. The Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (1949-1991) was an economic organization of communist states; military equivalent of the Warsaw Pact established 6 years later. This organization was created in Moscow from 5 to 8 January 1949, with the participation of six countries (Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Poland,

Romania and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics), but its foundation was launched on 25 January 1949. Hereby CMEA Stalin wanted to have under his control the states of Center Europe that had interest about Marshall Plan, such as Czechoslovakia, Hungary and Poland. Albania became member of this organization a few months later, in February 1949. Starting from the first session of CMEA since 1949 the Labor Party of Albania followed strictly all the meetings, but the situation changed in 1961. In CPA's opinion, the policy followed by CMEA wasn't the same policy followed by Albanian Government. "CMEA has been violating the basic principles. As a result of a hostile policy pursued towards Albania, the country couldn't continue to be part of it." (dëshifrim nr.78, 1965). This declaration was interpreted by the member countries of CMEA "as a refusal to participate in all the meetings of the organization and furthermore any other representative was accepted." (dëshifrim nr.78, 1965) Referring the IV-th Volume of "Historia e Popullit Shqiptar (The History of Albanians) this was an act to obligate Albanian government of the time to change its attitude reducing relationships with this small country. (Xh. Gjeçovi et al., 2004:306)

In the twenty third session of CMEA held in 1969 the issue of socialist economic integration was discussed. If socialist economies would be part of CMEA, then this will cause the expanding of national markets to international markets. This issue didn't get any result because of the different interests of the member states. The integration of socialist economy was a discussed issue because there was no economic policy cooperation and it couldn't be defined the exchange conditions of the goods in bilateral and multilateral relations of the member countries. Referring to the communist elite's opinion "this would give USSR the opportunity of an economic hegemony." (AMPJ, 1970:3) During these years, after the split with USSR, Albania began to have good relationships with a big power as China was. It was an unequal alliance because Albania was a small country compared to powerful China. China was interested to have an informer inside all the meetings held, part of which it couldn't be. The situation became difficult after the Albania's departure from this organization. CMEA invited China to send its delegation at the meeting, but the Chinese government refused to

accept the invitation in default of a socialist country such as Albania. In the meeting would be discussed the position of Yugoslavia and this was an inconvenience to China. Referring to Albanian government's declarations this was contrary to the Statement of Moscow because Yugoslavia was not a socialist country. (dëshifrim nr.78, 1965). Despite that the Chinese government declared opposition; China and Albania wanted to have information about the discussed issues at the meetings of CMEA. According to Korean, Romanian and Cuban diplomats, this meeting did not yield the expected results; the most important issues were discussed behind the scenes and not in plenary meetings. This was a way to hide the disagreements inside the communist bloc. Referring to the documents of Foreign Affair Ministry of Albania "this meeting was held to approve officially the participation of Yugoslavia in CMEA organization." (dëshifrim nr.78, 1965)

2.2. The Position of Albania in The Warsaw Pact

After the Second World War, Albania was still the poorest country of Europe. The membership in the Warsaw Pact would be helpful especially in the military. The Warsaw Pact was an opportunity to the political regime of E. Hoxha to be part of an international collective alliance. This was a good chance for Albania to be recognized in the international area and to get protection from any "foreign enemy aggression or external attack". On 14 May 1955, Albania and some other countries signed the Warsaw Pact in order to obtain mutual aid. The Warsaw Pact was an alliance of communist states of Europe, leaded by USSR. The purpose of this Pact was friendship, cooperation and mutual assistance between Albania, Bulgaria, German Democratic Republic, Poland, Romania, Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the Socialist Republic of Czechoslovakia and Hungary. All the members had to provide military assistance in case of an external attack in Europe or in each participating country. After the death of Stalin, Albania and USSR began to have different disputes which affected the relationship between Albania and the Warsaw Pact. According to the communist historiography the government of USSR and the government of some other countries destroyed the original purpose of this pact. Using this

argument, the National Assembly of Albanian Popular Republic, in 1968 decided to denounce the Pact of friendship, cooperation and mutual assistance. The Warsaw Pact was considered as an unequal alliance that put pressure on small countries as Albania was. According to communist files of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs: "Austria and Romania supported the decision of Albanian government but didn't react because of the fear of any possible attack of USSR." (AMPJ, 1968:4)

Albanian government declared the same attitude toward Warsaw Pact as well as to CMEA. Soviet Union began to have the control over the economies of some countries that were into the orbit of the Soviet economy. There were also some other member countries that didn't accept the supremacy of the Soviet Union. They demanded CMEA became similar to TPE or any other institution of this kind. One of the countries that supported the idea was Romania that demanded economic cooperation inside the CMEA and the expanding of the organization with new non socialist members. Referring to the comments of the Albanian Labor Party, countries such as Bulgaria, Romania and the Soviet Union were supposed to have an old plan on creating an economic region between them. The rejection of this proposal might be "one of the causes that Soviets attacked Romania as an obstacle to economic cooperation between the socialist countries." (AMPJ, 1969:14)

Peter Prifti thinks that Albania made history in Eastern Europe when formally withdraw from the Pact in September 1968, in the same way that denounced CMEA. This complex of attitudes practically left Albania with no alternative but to turn to the East and ally itself with the Chinese People's Republic (Prifti 1999: 59). It was a very profitable alliance, especially to Albania for about 10 years.

The disputes between two countries increased after the President of USA, Richard Nixon's visit to China and the politic of rapprochement with the West. In this point Albanian government practiced the politic of isolation. Unlike all other socialist countries, Albania refused to take part in the European Security Conference that was held in Helsinki in July 1975. This action was interpreted as a rejection of détente politics in Europe and of all efforts to relax tensions between NATO and the

Warsaw Pact countries.

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THE ROLE OF THEOPHYLACT IN THE AFFIRMATION OF THE ST. KLIMENT OHRIDSKI'S WORK

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Abstract

The paper highlights the recognition that Archbishop Theophylact gives to St. Kliment Ohridski "The extended life story of St. Kliment Ohridski". The Theophylact narrative is considered as a foundation for more consolidated views and attitudes of the character and work of St. Kliment Ohridski in the wider context of the formation of the Slavic culture and literacy touch with Byzantine.

Keywords: *Theophylact, St. Kliment Ohridski 's Biography*

1. Introduction

A key role in the scientific, educational and, in general, cultural affirmation of the personality of St. Kliment Ohridski (?-916), especially his ecclesiastical and educational activity, his commitment to the spread of Christianity in the Slavic areas, as well as his literary offense, has the Archbishop Theophylact, who led the Ohrid Church nearly a century after its first flagship one of his literary works, St. Clement of Ohrid. Namely, Theophylact of Ohrid most certainly is the author of "vast hagiography of St. Kliment Ohridski" (Theophylact of Ohrid, *Biography of Clement*, Sofia, 1955). In this context, to complement St. Kliment Ohridski who is indisputably regarded as the author of "Life of Cyril" and "Life of Methodius" (Jagiš 1921), who were his teachers and that their pupil or follower; Theophylact, in turn, was the successor to the throne of St. St. Kliment Ohridski 's church, so he randomly appears as the author of a biography of his famous predecessor (Snegarov 1924).

Nevertheless, the memory of St. Kliment Ohridski church environment was still alive and fresh (Pandev 2007), just as it was probably before the time of Theophylact, when a Biography of St. Clement existed, comprised by his own disciple, perhaps the same one that compiled also the Life of St. Naum, which served as the foundation of the life story authored by Archbishop Theophylact.

Namely, in the introduction to "Life of St. Naum" it can be sensed that previously "Biography of St. Kliment Ohridski " had been composed. On the other hand, reading the "vast hagiography of St. Kliment Ohridski " composed by Theophylact, it can be seen that it fits into an

integral whole key events of the life of the holy brothers Cyril and Methodius presented in their Lives (Lavrov 1930) and from the life of St. Kliment Ohridski and St. Naum. From this Life story it can be recognized that its author, Theophylact, was very well known in the Slavic cultural action, inspired by the Byzantine court, led by the holy brothers Cyril and Methodius and extended to their followers, primarily of Saints Kliment and Naum of Ohrid. At the same time, by its structure and stylistic features, the biography composed of Theophylact, to some extent deviates from the others listed hagiographies that is presented in this activity, which unambiguously confirms the thesis of Theophylact's authorship.

2. Theophylact's affirmation of St. Kliment Ohridski's work

From the text of the biography the writers' desire and need to present the life and work can be noticed, and even to tell and to exhibit, according to Byzantine rhetoric, some of the miracles of St. Kliment Ohridski, so to confirm and protect the authority of the title Theophylact - Constantinople MA in rhetoric and to affirm his archiepiscopal title. With this biography Theophylact pays not only respect but also recognition of St. Kliment Ohridski primarily for its extensive cultural activity in the Ohrid environment, as well as elsewhere in the Slavic world. Theophylact's representative late-Byzantium's rhetoric, known as the author of a number of literary before the epistolary works, has a special place in the Slavic philology, or to be more exact, the spacious Life of St. Kliment Ohridski. In this context, the role of Theophylact's affirmation of St. Kliment Ohridski's work is particularly strengthened with the printing of his manuscript texts in the 19th century, primarily his very own hagiography, but also some of his other copyrighted texts. Namely, in the 18th and 19th century a number of medieval Byzantine texts were received in printed forms, even in some part, redacted versions with scientists and researchers from several European universities in which the main interest has been directed towards classical philology and in the Byzantine, they become available works of Byzantine authors. Printing of the texts from medieval texts is the foundation for the rapid development of philology. It should

be taken into account that the work of St. Kliment Ohridski is almost unknown to the very beginnings of Slavic philology (late 18th and early 19th century), and the data stated by Theophylact literary activity of St. Kliment Ohridski coincide with appropriate texts embedded within the medieval church Slavic collections with different content that recognizes the name of their author - Saint Clement of Ohrid (Tunicki 1913: 83-87). If we first consider the elation of Theophylact of the activity of St. Kliment Ohridski, and then the research of the scientists of the 19th century literature of St. Kliment Ohridski, accepting the distinctive, ornate style and expression of Theophylact, we can freely underline: Theophylact gave a worthy biography of St. Kliment Ohridski. Actually St. Kliment Ohridski made Theophylact worthy and gave him an appropriate place in philology and as an important source for the beginnings of Slavic literacy, which is expressed even more with a valuable contribution to his extensive work on the history of Byzantium. Anyway, the secular Slavic literacy largely follows the Byzantine associated with the late Byzantium and continues to last almost until the 19th century in several South Slavic and East Slavic church centers and cultural hotspots. Historical facts support those indissoluble ties that it is exactly Theophylact's work in his "spacious hagiography of St. Kliment Ohridski".

3. Conclusion

Theophylact has a particularly important role in shaping the biography of St. Kliment Ohridski. In other words, without the work of Theophylact, the science would not have had an accurate picture of the life of St. Kliment Ohridski. If we consider the metaphor that life is a journey, then we can safely and 'surrender narrative geographical and political map of Theophylact which outlines the basic contours of St. Kliment Ohridski's life: Moravia - the road near the Danube River - Belgrade - yard Bulgarian Prince Boris Ohrid.

Some statistical data related to the activity of St. Clement also would not 'be available in the science, if it were not affirmed precisely by Theophylact. Namely, it gives us the number of St. Kliment Ohridski students - 3500. He introduces us precisely to the activity of St. Kliment Ohridski by the distinction of two

periods of his life - the teacher (for a period of 7 years) and the Episcopal and writer that fits completely and runs until the end of his life -916. Theophylact appears as a promoter of literary works of St. Kliment Ohridski. He understands the functionality of his appearance before the church audience and appropriately addresses the potential reader of his works. In fact, only in a single passage does he manage to present a sketching literary work of St. Kliment Ohridski. Theophylact had his own relationship to the entire Christian literature: he is adept rhetorician who successfully decorates the biography of St. Kliment Ohridski with the number of tailored quotes from holy books in the function of the basic narrative of the life (certainly one of the most is: St. Kliment Ohridski "did not give sleep to his eyes nor slumber his eyelids" SP. Psalm 131.4). And wonders without any medieval hagiography would not be incorporated in appropriate collections, as was, for example, the Moskopolian collection.

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TIME AND SPACE IN THE FOLK LYRICS OF TRANSMIGRATION (THE LANGUAGE OF EXPRESSING THE CONCEPT TIME AND SPACE ACCORDING TO FOLK MENTALITY)

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Abstract

The transmigration has played an important role in the Albanian culture and Albanian mentality. As a result, the phenomenon of transmigration is part of the folk oral lyric and mainly at the folk lyric which contain the motive of migration. These lyric are linked with the phenomenon of traveling or moving from Albanian territory to other continents or states for a short or a long period of time. The lyric of migration has a special semantic; it is not linked with the time and space as two measurable concepts, but as a time and space which leave concrete traces and sensitive consequences in the life of all the family members of the person who migrate. In this way, at the folk Albanian lyric of migration time and space are expressed with semantic and lexical elements which are linked mainly with the phenomenon of moving and travelling which often brings strong changes in the individual life in particular and in the social life (such as family, urban and rural world etc). The ethno-cultural characteristics of different territories have brought even many ethno-linguistic features of linguist expression of those philosophical concepts such as time and space. As a result the semantic of folk expression in the migration lyric is varied.

Keywords: *transmigration, semantic, time and space, deictics verbs*

1. Introduction

The history of Albanian population is a continuous massive movement inside the Albanian territory, in the Balkan one but even across the ocean. This history has begun since the great movement of Albanians towards the Italian shore after the death of the national hero, Scanderbeg, in the 16th century. It is believed that this might be the beginning of the folk lyrics with the motive of migration (Pistric, 2010: 33). But if these lyrics came into existence in well-known political and historical circumstances, the lyrics of the Albanian south-east area belonging to the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century are folk lyrics that are related mainly with the economic migration.

The historical-social circumstances of this period caused the great spread of these lyrics in a part of villages of the southern part of Albania; they were focused more in some villages of the

region of Korçë – Devoll – Kolonjë - Përmet-Gjirokastër-Sarandë - Vlorë.

In this paper the attention is focused in the lyrics of migration of the region of Korça and Devoll because in their general folklore of these regions they occupy a very important place. This is because of two main reasons:

Firstly, the historical circumstances of the economic development of these regions have stimulated the near or far migration. Free movement of the early trade connections made it easy for the inhabitants of these two regions to have an early knowledge about their neighbor countries but even about the distant countries (West Europe, America, Australia etc.)

Secondly, the shrink of Christian population in the mountainous villages, where the natural resources were restricted, didn't permit other possibilities except migration. Also, in these villages it is noticed even a higher education of the population that was spread as a phenomena in Europe since the end of the 17th century (according to Burke even more surprising was the fact that in the end of this period some mountainous regions were areas of high education because according to an observer in 1802 "the cold climate doesn't permit them to do any other activity during the winter time." (Burke, 1996:31). It was exactly the climate and natural conditions that caused the migration of the inhabitants of these villages. When they returned back to their village they used to bring even another way of thinking & living. As a very widespread phenomenon in this region, the researchers have found the traces and the consequences of this kind of migration in old documents.

According to the historian P. Pepo "there have been villages such as Boboshtica, Drenova, Dardha, Grapshi, Zicishti, Hoçishti etc which during the greatest part of the year remained almost without grown-up males because they used to go on seasonal migration and later in longer one" (Pepo, 1981:15). In his studies on documentary materials of 19th-20th centuries he points out that the chronic notes of the codec of Korça and Selasforit were about migration in near and far places; in Turkey, Egypt, Greece, Romania, Bulgaria, Russia, America during and after the First World war, in Australia (Pepo, 1981: 15). Also, in many cases the migration was so long so that the emigrant lost every relation

with the family and if his/her property remained without an owner, the community or the church interfered (Pepo, *dok.* 36, 1981:120).

Such a migration brought with themselves even economic-social consequences. E. Durham pointed out that Korça was a wealthy city and its prosperity came exactly from the shipment of the emigrants (Durham, 1991:47)

2. The time-space concept through linguistic expression

The anonymous, artistic spirit was going to create the lyrics of migration as a way of reducing the pain and longing but even as a hope for return. The scholar E. Çabej point out that: "The desire for migration and the longing for the homeland are related in the Albanian character in a strange way. The spiritual relation with the homeland is common to all Albanians. So, we see at the emigrant how he always desires to return anytime in the homeland driven by the great longing" (Çabej, 2006:31).

In this way it was created a valuable wealth of our folk inheritance that is represented by the economic lyrics of migration known in the population with the name *këngë, këngë për kurbetllinjë, këngë për karvanarët, këngë ksenitie* (Vasili, Mustaqi, 1981:8).

The lyrics of migration have enriched the folklore especially with the variety of artistic treatment but treated as a "social wound/problem of the past which is characteristic for the lyrics of migration of this area. There are found lyrics of different mastery for the seasonal migration, for the migration not so far but hard and difficult as well as for the far and long migration." (Hyso, 1987:9)

In these lyrics it is mainly the family of the emigrant and the emigrant himself speaking but what is more in them is the word of women, which feel more the distance of the son, brother, husband, lover. From a first view in these songs it is widely treated the beginning, correspondence, the return, the near & far migration, the long and seasonal migration, the lost emigrant, even the case of the 'lucky' emigrant returned home with some money but according to folks' mentality even this case is treated with tragic notes because they see at them a spiritual maim or a maimed life without a boyhood, without a bridegroom, without a

family, without abilities to build a life, without a future (Hyso, 1982:15). Certainly, the descriptions of the spiritual mood of the villagers related to the arrival of the mail, the nostalgic letters and those with a mourning band take a very important place and there is also information about the life of the migrant.

In this framework, the category of indication, as a form of reference that combines the linguistic structure with the contexts in which it is used (Lloshi, 2001), in these kind of lyrics is closely related with the time and spatial indication.

Time as an important element of literary creation has a considerable value in the lyrics of migration. When we refer to the time indicators we take into consideration the real and the artistic time of the literary work. If we refer to the time definition as an aesthetic notion, in a literary work the artistic action time "is another appearance of the presence of time in the artistic sphere and of the esthetic interest for it. The universe of a literary work has its own time and space size. ... in the artistic work the events can be narrated slowly, they can be even narrated enthusiastically. In this way it can be summarized an entire century in one page, or the contrary, the literary narration can last more than the time that it is needed for the life event" (Çaushi, 2005:241). In the lyrics of migration time is variable. Despite the relation with reality, as literary creation, these lyrics can't escape the artistic time. So, the artistic time is expressed by linguistic means that take new semantic size. The main means of expressing time are related with the semantic of the word as well as with grammatical categories related with its expression.

One of the main elements of expressing the time is by means of compound predicative verbs a half-helping verb that show *action circumstances + personal verbs*. The grammatical structure with a half-helping verb that shows the beginning of an action is part of those lyrics that treat the moment of the setting off the emigrant. The use of this grammatical construction extends the time of the setting off in the words of the people who are seeing him off. The mother, wife, daughter try to delay the time with the hope that the migrant will not set off: *nisnë të ngarkojnë; kërkon të shkonjë; zunë yjet perëndojnë/ zunë kurbetlia shkonjë* (started to

load; ready to go, starts are setting off/migrants are going) (Zdruli, 1987:313, 314).

The antonymic pairs with deictic verbs in the desiderative mood do the contrary. Despite the tragic notes that are part of the wish time can't be shortened. The hope for the return of the emigrant is greater than his health and wealth (*vafsh shëndoshë e ardhsh me ethe...* (go safe and sound and come back in fever). This is related with the fact that migration has been an important part of the lives of many families in the areas of these two regions till the end of the years '30 and half-beginning of the years '40 of the previous century. When men used to migrate, they were seen off with the wish: "*U gdhiftë Shën Pjetër!*". "A tradition was that women asked this desire the evening that the emigrant was seen off, before sleeping, with special flowers in their hands because the emigrants migrated mainly during October which is the month of Saint Dimitrius and returned in June, when it is Saint Peter. The desire of the wives, mothers and new brides was the period that lasted only one night. (Saraçi, 2010:165). Even today, the wishes during the seeing off the emigrants are related with the safe and sound return home of the whole family such as: "*Vajtë dhe ardhë shëndoshë e mirë!* -Go and come back safe and sound!"; "*Ju vajtë mbarë!* -Good riddance!" etc. In such usages these verbs refer more to time than space.

Very interesting are the words and phrases that are related with the time definition for certain periods of people's life, for women in particular (pregnancy, child-bed, love, marriage, childbirth). If we refer to stages of human's life in the lyrics of migration we find words that have time references with periods when people take family responsibilities such as find the partner, give birth to children. This reference appears on two different sides; on one hand the person who migrates can secure the continuance through a child (*nëntë muaj me barrë-dyzet ditë lehonë-nine months pregnant and 40 days child-bed.*) which gives hope for return and a possibility for the future. (Zdruli, 1987:313). On the other hand, the tragedy of non-returning continues with a word chain that in their core have a common semantic (*shoqe me burra-shoqe me barrë- shoqe me djepe*; wives with husbands-pregnant wives-wives with cradels), while itself doesn't have anything. (Zdruli, 1987:324).

In this stream the return of the emigrant is an element that is found rarely. It is given as a repeated return: *të vjen bandilli një her' në mot* – the strapping young man comes once in a year (Zdruli, 1987:329). In most of the cases the return is introduced as a condition, which by means of the adverb now shortens and obliges the time of return: *në mos arthtë dhe tashinë/* - if not coming even now. The non-completion of the return in time of desire-condition brings difficult consequences. In many lyrics the one that waits is dead: *që un'jam këtu me dhe mbuluar/që kam njëzet vjet që kam veruar/me gjëmbe e bar ngarkuar; nusen lule në shpi s'e gjet/nusja lule kish hyrë në dhet* (1981:549, 550).

Much difficult it is also introduced the constant return as a contextual antonymy in the deictic verb pairs *vete-vjen; go – come*) accompanied by nouns that show the physical and physic age of the emigrant (*ikin djem, vinë pleq; boys go – come old men*).

In the case of the space indications the reference is more visible. Space, more than with the adverbs of place, is related with the toponimic definition mainly of the emigration places (towns, cities). The defined space by means of the denomination of the places of migration (*More, Ameriqi, Karadak, Jipek, Arapistan, Janina, Endrene, Turqi*), as denominations of people coming from that place (*moroitët, amerikanët, anadollinjët*).

Often, space is an unidentified notion. It is expressed as a huge distance emphasized by means of the adverbs of place (*larg në kurbet – far away in the migration, në kurbet lark – far in emigration, brenda në Stamboll – inside the Instabul*) or adjectives formed from them (*kurbet i largmë – far migration*).

The translocations in the start and return are done through nouns that refer to migration as a translocation notion accompanied by the prepositions that have a place meaning (*në kurbet, prej ksenetie*). It is important to point out that some prepositions with a place meaning (*tatëpjetë fushë – down the field, pllloçë – slab, gjer te porta jashtë – near the gate outside, lart o në mal – high in the mountain, lart nga brigjet – high from the shore, gjer në arë – up to the arable land*), serve as toponimies that express the division between the house, village or motherland and the migration.

Often, the concept of the distance of

migration is expressed through the desire of the wife or daughter to go in migration together with the emigrant, with verbs in the future or relative as expression of an impossible action: *do të bënj llagëm do të vinj atje*.

The verbs *shkoj, vij, iki* – go, come, leave are used with the general meaning of the translocation in space (Përnaska, 1987:58). But in many cases the reference in space is done through these intransitive verbs that show translocation, mainly the setting off (*iku bandilli vate në Stamboll – the strapping young man set off for Turkey; tërë venë ti mos ecë – many leave you don't leave; vete burri më harrohet, më iku bandilli më iku – my husband has left/ my strapping young man has left me*) and few for return.

All these linguistic means except of being related to a defined, extra-linguistic reality, in their form they give us information about the state of language in a definite time. So, the folk lyrics become a great possibility of diachronic, linguistic study compared to its usage in a time, territory and for a certain aim.

3. Conclusions

As a conclusion we might emphasise that the folk lyrics represent a special interest for pragmatic-linguistic analysis because of the fact that it combines the usage of language closely related with the extra-linguistic reality represented by time and space.

We saw these linguistic elements of time and space expressions certainly in a very limited number of folk lyrics and a limited area. With very little differences these kind of songs represent in themselves the mentality of a certain period of time where more or less the historical-social circumstances have been the same. Because of these historical-social circumstances in the south and south-east areas this phenomena has been more widespread. This is shown even by the fact that in these areas we can find almost the same variants of the lyrics. But even in other areas of Albania the perception about time and space doesn't differ a lot. Furthermore, in the framework of the same language, the linguistic forms express more or less the same national mentality. However, this remains an open field of study, and the great waves of migration nowadays makes these lyrics

more present than ever in the lives of Albanians.

According to R. Hyso "they are an entire tragic poem, representatives of folk lyrics of Korça city and an important wealth of Albanian folk lyrics of migration" (Hyso, 1982:14).

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TOPONYMS IN WESTERN MACEDONIA: BORDERS AND THEIR HISTORIC IDEOLOGICAL PROJECT

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Abstract

This presentation refers to toponyms in the broader area of Florina in order to reveal their historic, ideological project. We selected and gathered the total corpus of toponyms which consists of 106 place names. The research question refers to the transformation of toponyms in the specific time and place (western Macedonian borders during 1926-1929). We focus on the former names that signify a Slavic, linguistic origin, while some of them refer to Turkish, Vlachic and Arvanitic origins. We are interested in the process of renaming these toponyms and particularly in their oral usage. We analyze 10 examples of toponyms in order to find out the historic and ideological variables may signify in. In the process of the interlingual translation we are applying the historic, hermeneutic analysis. A simple definition of hermeneutics is textual interpretation, or, in other words, finding meaning in the written word. Two embedded assumptions of hermeneutics are that humans experience the world through language and this language provides both understanding and knowledge. This method of textual analysis emphasizes the socio-cultural and historic influences on qualitative interpretation. It also exposes connotations.

Keywords: *Toponyms, Language, History, Borders, Ideology*

1.Theoretical Context

1.1. The Borders and the Border areas

In the decade after World War II, up to 350,000 ethnic Italians were displaced from the border zone between Italy and Yugoslavia known as the Julian March. *History in Exile* reveals the subtle yet fascinating contemporary repercussions of this often overlooked yet contentious episode of European history. Pamela Ballinger asks: What happens to historical memory and cultural identity when state borders undergo radical transformation? She explores displacement from both the viewpoints of the exiles and those who stayed behind. Yugoslavia's breakup and Italy's political transformation in the early 1990s, she writes, allowed these people to bring their histories to the public eye after nearly half a century (Balling 2002).

The distinction between the concept of a boundary "line" and a "border region" is justified by the existence of borders. John House, a political geographer at Oxford, developed a theoretical framework for understanding the dynamics developed in border areas. He linked the geographical, social, political and economic reason in the sense of "double isolation". Such areas, by definition, are underdeveloped because of their distance from the social core of society.

According to Taylor & House (1982) the nature of the border has a sociocultural and psychological effect in the border's habitants. The characteristics of border's region vary in terms of contact and interaction, but they can be developed depending upon the national policies.

This is particularly important in the case of closed borders, where a state can turn the border region into a military zone of action, while the neighbouring state can invest in infrastructure projects in the border region in order to demonstrate the presence of political conflict in the region. In EU countries, the border areas have been mainly used as a channel for financial and cultural exchanges.

Sometimes, when people from each side of the borders are not interested in interacting with the other side, it seems necessary to open the borders and expand the replacement. The phrase that "good fences make good neighbours" often reflects the mood of the people to preserve and perpetuate the difference, even though the difference is not accompanied by hostility or exclusion. Nevertheless each border area does not always lead to interaction, nor necessarily constitutes a hybrid transitional form (Taylor & House 1982). Historic geography signifies the basic concepts for the social context of the area in the period of 19th-20th century (Tsotsos 2011: 43-46).

1.2. The cultural homogeneity

The limits are not neutral elements but they are used by each nation and its ideological politics in order to naturalize the nationalism. The theorists of nationalism emphasize the importance of soil and limits in the construction of national communities and images of the past, present and future. The nationalism promoted by the state "exploits" the history and territoriality to be presented as a natural end to the concept of "we".

The state has naturalized its territoriality and the national arrogance as a component of "national culture" is represented as a homogeneous and coherent reality. The nation is dominant in the institutions such as the administration, governance, economy, culture, education, religion, family, justice, military and border institutions, the media and political institutions. These institutions are also involved in the construction of historic and national identities: thus the nation-state is never "natural" but has been constructed for specific political and economic reasons. Nations as social constructions, as "imaginary communities" acquire different meanings in different places. Anderson examines the creation and global spread of the 'imagined communities' of nationality, and explores the processes that created these communities: the territorialization of religious faiths, the decline of antique kinship, the interaction between capitalism and print, the development of secular languages-of-state, and changing conceptions of time and space. He shows how an originary nationalism born in the Americas was adopted by popular movements in Europe, by imperialist powers, and by the movements of anti-imperialist resistance in Asia and Africa (Anderson 2006)

Hobsbawm sees nationalism as chauvinism and an opportunity for the reactionary elements in society to seize power. Nationalism has done little good for the people of the world, and will one day hopefully have its opportunities for damage reduced. In the Balkans new states had to be created to halt genocide and the general slip of the United States to nationalistic fascism. The famous Marxist historian takes up the phenomenon of nationalism and he dates the central theme from 1780 since the concept of nationalism itself is a fairly recent adaptation of old tribal allegiances. In the middle ages and early modern period it was possible for serfs to feel an attachment to their laird or a king but the concept of a nation is relatively new. Patrie has been manipulated throughout the ages and frequently by governments we would not call nationalist in themselves, but it has helped ruling classes to stoke ethnic tensions and keep the workers in their place (Hobsbawm 1992).

2. Historical Context of renaming

Governments periodically take several measures to 'safeguard' national homogeneity in border areas such as the renaming of toponyms.

The renaming of "foreign" toponyms in Greek territory was directly related to the desire for accenting the "historical continuity" with the archaeological past and merely restoring some glorious names (e.g. Athens, Sparta, Ipati) as the capitals of municipalities.

The decision for a broader and more systematic hellenisation has been taken only in 1909, when a special committee was defined by a royal decree (Guardianship for toponyms of Greece) which was chaired by Professor Nicholas Politis, a well known scholar (Kostopoulos 2002:150) in order to change the Slavic and ottoman names that were not associated with Greek history.

Moreover these "barbaric, cacophonous Greek names, have a deleterious influence on educating habitants of those areas where they are not related to the Greek language system (see NG Citizen, Opinions on renaming settlements and communities, at Athens 1920: in Kostopoulos 2002: 7). In practice, the project of this committee was not to invent but to approve the proposals of local mayors (Kostopoulos 2002:151).

In Macedonia, the same process for renaming toponyms had a more totalitarian and urgent aim because of the recent integration in Greece and because of Bulgarian irredentism (Kostopoulos 2002:150).

According to historic data, during the period of 1918- 1925 there were only 76 changes in place's names throughout Macedonia. On 17 September 1926 the specific legislative decree "on renaming settlements and villages" (FEK 1926/A/332) ordered the prefects to establish relevant committees per province. These committees were tasked to submit proposals for the renaming of villages, cities and towns to the Interior Ministry in order to decide whether to approve, modify or reject them. The final decision was published in the State Gazette (FEK 1926/A/332).

In Florina, the prefecture authorities established the relevant committee in 1925. The bishop, the mayor, composed it with two high school teachers, a doctor by law, three members of the county and some historical Greek party

officials who became influential actors in the city (see in journal Eleghos 27/8/1925 in Kostopoulos 2002: 25).

The legislative decree of 1926 was an important station for the renaming because as it is recorded in the State Gazette, 440 settlements were renamed, 835 in 1927 and 212 in 1928 (Kostopoulos 2002: 142). The prefecture of Florina had published to the local press the proposal for the proper, official ceremony which should be performed in each village for the event of renaming (Kostopoulos 2002).

The committee was also responsible for the conceptual and ideologic "renaming": **they** should investigate for the ancient geographic or other proper signifier for re-naming the villages. They also investigated for the byzantine origins and for the etymology of the old names in order to find out any Greek roots. Finally they translated it into the corresponding Greek name. They also could construct a new name (Kostopoulos 2002:143).

Nevertheless the new names often don't seem to refer to specific historic origins and connotative translations: the criteria for the renaming were proposed as a general information for the region such as the environmental elements, the presence or absence of water and vegetation, particular cultivations, the typology of local architecture, the specific occupations of the habitants, any mythologic or other signifier (Kostopoulos 2002:143).

It is also impressive that the state had established strict penalties for those who refused to comply with the new naming. The set of penalties were announced by the Ministry of the Interior and published in the local press. As for the reactions of the local population, their effectiveness seems to vary depending on national or ethnic identity. Despite initial intentions in most refugee settlements people kept the old name of their homeland (Kostopoulos 2002:144-146).

More discreet but no less compulsive process was the replacement of Slavic family's and first names. All these measures were taken gradually over the period between the incorporation of Macedonia into the Greek state and the outbreak of the Second World War (Kofos 1990: 118).

3. Discussion

Reading the history of renaming settlements in the terms of historiography's models, we can focus on the historical thought that these "names can signify". For Barthes (1972: 22), proper name is a voluminous sign full of signification and Ballard (1998: 219) stresses that «[...] proper name signify and this significance appears clearly in the field of cultural references».

First, there is the question whether history should be seen as circular or linear movement.

The Greek cyclical view of history and Spengler's cultural view of history grasped history as circular movement, whereas the Christian view, the progressive view, and the materialist view regard history as linear movement.

If history is grasped as linear movement, we can have hope in the development of history, but we are left without a good understanding of the breakdowns and revivals in human history.

On the other hand, when we regard history as a circular movement, nations and cultures become destined to perish.

table 1: historical thought

traditional	modern	postmodern
EPISTIMOLOGICAL IDEAS		
One and unique Historic truth objectivity	Multiple historic truth relativism	There is no objective historic truth Conceptual system
HISTORICAL IDEAS		
The dominance of the past → schematization of the present	Dialectic relation among the past → present	Dominance of the present → Loss of the past
HISTORICAL THOUGHT		
Objective intellectual work → Direct relation with the historic past → Knowledge of the past → No alternative interpretations → One history	Social intellectual work- Indirect relation with the historic past → cognitive reconstruction → Alternative interpretation → Many histories	Literal work → Rhetoric construction of the past → Multiple rhetoric schema and ideologies → Multiple histories

See in Irene Nakou (1997)

4. Analysis of the toponyms

The thematic categories that come out, reveal:

- I. the linguistic and ideologic "mechanism" of renaming
 - a. the specific acoustic renaming from the Slavic to the Greek toponym
 - b. the interlingual translation from Slavic into Greek
 - c. the cancellation of the old slavic toponym
 - d. composite names which were translated using linguistic and ungrammatical signifiers
- II. the religious meanings and the signifiers
 - a. toponyms are translated by "inter-language" channel keeping the same meaning.

III. the historiography's model that appears from the renaming process is the traditional and modern one regarding to the alternative or non renaming process (see table 1).

Analysis of examples per thematic category

A. Kladorabi → Kladorachi

The village was renamed on 9.2.1926 (ΦΕΚ 55/1926) from *Kladorabi* to *Kladorahi*. The slavic name is not semantically associated with the greek one. The information about the origin of the place named Kladorabi are two: the first one is coming from the slavic word "klado = stock" and the second one is coming also from the slavic word "rab = edge".

The informants in our local research described both options as possible and they also assumed that the combination of the two alternative interpretations may be accepted.

Nevertheless the new name *Kladorahi* doesn't refer to any of these meanings but to an acoustic, environmental signified.

B. buko = oksia (= beech) → Bukovo & Bukovik → Oksia (= beech)

The renaming took place on 31.8.1926 (ΦΕΚ 34/1926). The slavic name inter-translated into greek: the suffix makes the only difference.

Usually, slavic suffixes of names indicate the location (in this case -ovo and -ovik). Actually the location of the village is filled with beech. Thus, from the toponym *Bukovo* or *Bukovik* emerged the Greek *Oksia*. It is worthwhile mentioning the fact that in F.Y.R.O.M there is a village also named Bukovo. The location of the village is next to the ancient greek Heraclea near the Monastiri-Bitola and it is in the area of the greek cemetery from the period before 1913. In all cases the signifier of the name refers an environmental signified.

C. Sorovits → Amintaio

Amintaio which lies in Florina's area, until 08.08.1928 (ΦΕΚ 156/1928) was named Sorovits coming from the slavic "Soro = soon" perhaps implying the quick route and the easy access from Florina and from most other places to the specific village.

Another name as a paraphrase *Sourovits* is originated from the serbian word "sour = sour" as a reference to the source of mineral water in the nearby village called Xino Nero (= Sour Water). In both versions there is a connotation of the natural environment. However in the new toponym, *Amintaio*, there is a strong historical connotation with Amyntas, a name connected with a series of important historical persons of ancient Macedonia (kings, generals). Thus, there is a signified of historicity and "macedonicity" for the specific place. It is true that Amintaio is a place with a history from ancient years until the Second World War. However the highlight of its history is the Macedonia Struggle. There are many Macedonian soldiers originating from Amintaio.

D. Gorno Klestina → Ano Klines, Dolno Klestina → Kato Klines

The renaming of the settlement was on 31.8.1926 (ΦΕΚ 346/1926). In this case we also note that during the renaming procedure the first part of the toponym has been translated from Slavic to Greek. The result is an inter-

linguistic translation. More specific, the word "gorno = up, high" became in Greek as "ano = high" as also "dolno = down". The geographical signifiers are the same, but in the second part of the Slavic toponym, the word *klestina*, which means pitchers, is transcribed to *Klines*, probably in an acoustical level.

E. German → Agios Germanos

The village renamed on 9.2.1926 (ΦΕΚ 55/1926). The Slavic toponym became Greek in an acoustic context but it retains the connotation of religiosity. The adjective *German* became more accurate as *Agios Germanos* which means Saint Germanos. Because of the name, the temple that is in the village it has been dedicated to Saint Germanos.

5. Remarks

The process of renaming is itself a political practice, which aims to an ideological production. If we are supposed to read the new names as statements, we should refer to Foucault who privileges the "statement" extracted from 'the simple inscription of what is said' (Deleuze 1988: 15). He describes the statement, not as a linguistic unit like the sentence, but as 'a function' (Foucault 1972: 98). The statement as "function" can be theorized as a discursive "junction box" in which words and things intersect and become invested with particular relations of power, resulting in an interpellative event (Althusser 1971; Butler 1990) in which one can 'recognize and isolate an act of formulation' (Foucault 1972: 93). According to Foucault, the statement is a 'special mode of existence' (Foucault 1972: 100) which enables 'groups of signs to exist, and enables rules or forms to become manifest' (Foucault 1972: 99).

Starting from this basis, this research is revealing several parameters about the choices, the practices and the importance of national ideology during the renaming of toponyms at the region of Florina. We notice that interlingual translation appears in seventeen names. In the majority of the toponyms, the translation occurs between an old Slavic toponym and a new Greek one. Only in two cases, one of which is the village Xino Nero, the inter-linguistic translation comes from a Turkish name.

The other case is about the village Variko, which is a unique case of inter-linguistic

translation between a Slavic and a Vlachic toponym.

The toponyms that are keeping their signification are mostly the names of plants, animals, topographic signifiers and generally they are describing the environment. There are only three exceptions, in which the significations carry connotations associated with the military, the war or the sports.

These are the villages: Skopia, Skopos (=military observation), and Palestra (=gymnasium). Inter - lingual translation also appears in the toponyms, which are consisting of two different words. The translation takes place only at the first word as a topographic determination e.g. Ano (Up) – Kato (Down). The other part of the name was entirely differentiated.

Thus, the majority of the toponyms indicate the location in an environmental context e.g. Sitaria, Pedino e.t.c. In many cases these toponyms of landscape raise positive connotations of beauty for the place (e.g. Drosopigi = cool spring, Kristalopigi = crystal spring, Rodonas the place of roses etc.) while in certain cases the names which are replaced show negative connotations like Drompitsista = cemetery which is made, Daseri = the place in the forest, Smardes = stench is made Kristalopigi etc.

Also, some of the old toponyms function in a geographical code after the renaming process which acquires a historical connotation. The signification at these cases is coming from the Hellenistic period and the strategists of Alexander the Great. In other cases the new names with historical signifieds are coming from towns in the region of ancient Lygkistida like Melitona, Vevi, Kelli and Levaia, mainly known from the ancient written sources.

It should be noted that it is not certain for archeologists, if the modern settlements of Meliti and Vevi are located above the ruins of respective ancient cities as Meliton and Vevi. However their new name emerged from this archaeological context.

The village Antarktiko (= guerilla's place) is the only which connotes to the modern history and the events of Macedonian Struggle and Greek Civil War. The villages Kottas and Simos Ioannidis have denotative signifiers of the Macedonian Struggle and the specific names of chieftains.

However, these names were given to the settlements much later, during the decade of 50's. There are also toponyms that besides the historical connotations signify also national and patriotic signifieds. Such names are the Ethniko (=national), Akritas (=soldier in byzantine empire's borders), Proti (=first one), Flambouro (= flag, affiliated with the revolution of 1821).

The toponyms with national signifieds are mostly given to mountainous settlements or major centres that have developed great action in the liberation's struggles of Macedonia. However, the name given to them comes from previous historical period as to the villages from ancient, Hellenistic and Macedonian period following the traditional model of historiography about linear progress.

Names of refugee's villages such as Kolchiki, Neos Kaukasos connect Greece to the glorious past of Asia Minor and Pontus. Also, settlements like Lechovo, Nymphaio, Pisoderi and Variko maintained their first place name or had a slight modification. All these place names are neither Slavic nor Turkish but Vlachic and arvanitic.

Furthermore Variko acquired this Vlachic name after the renaming process through interlingual translation from the previous Slavic one. The inhabitants of Lechovo village refused to rename their village and similar reactions of residents from villages with Slavic toponym characterized as anti-Greek vs the hellenicity of the region.

Nymfaio is a Greek toponym, which differs a little from the previous arvanitic name Neveska (it's an acoustic rewritten from a vlachic name to an arvanitic one). The name is widely used to the village, which is a unique touristic, traditional place, very famous with its arvanitic name.

The following table contains aggregated the toponyms of Florina's region. The first column contains the first/old toponym mainly as recorded by the interviews of local residents but also from the renaming acts and the national bibliography. The second column contains the name that emerged after the renaming of the settlement. The third column contains the linguistic origins of village's names. In parallel, we record the changes and the differentiations from the old to the new name and the possible changes of the toponym's linguistic origin. The fourth column contains the traits, which are identified during the semiotic analysis of toponyms.

Old toponym	New toponym	Toponyms Origin	Signifiers
1. Ahil & Ail	Agios Achileios	Slavic – Greek	Religious –Religious
2. Vartolom	Agios Vartholomaïos	Slavic – Greek	Religious –Religious
3. German	Agios Germanos	Slavic – Greek	Religious –Religious
4. Pateli & Patele	Agios Panteleimonas	Slavic – Greek	Religious –Religious
5. Sfetka Petka	Agia Paraskevi	Slavic – Greek	Religious –Religious
6. Tervovo & Tirnovο	Agathoto	Slavic - Greek	Natural – Natural
7. Goritsko	Agrapidies	Slavic - Greek	Geographical -Natural
8. Aitos & Aitozi	Aetos	Slavic - Greek	Natural
9. Bufi	Akritas	Slavic - Greek	Natural – Historical
10. Armensko	Alona	Slavic - Greek	General (historical) -Natural
11. Pesosnitsa	Amohori	Slavic - Greek	Natural- Natural
12. Sorovits	Aminteo	Slavic - Greek	Geographical-Historical
13. Rudnik	Anargiri	Slavic - Greek	Occupational- Religious
14. Zelovo	Antarktiko	Slavic - Greek	Natural – Historical
15. Kioseler	Antigono	Turkish - Greek	- Historical
16. Gorno Kalenik – Kalnik	Ano Kaliniki	Slavic - Greek	Geographical -Geographical
17. Gorno Klestin – Klestino	Ano Kleines	Slavic - Greek	Geographical –Geographical
18. Gorno Kotori	Ano Idrousa	Slavic - Greek	Geographical –Geographical
19. Armenovo & Armenor &Armenaro	Armenohori	Slavic - Greek	Historical – Historical
20. Strebeno	Asprogia	Slavic - Greek	General – General
21. Krepesnitsa	Atrapos	Slavic - Greek	Natural – Natural
22. Krousorati	Ahlada	Slavic - Greek	Natural – Natural
23. Dolno Nevoliani	Valtonera	Slavic - Greek	Geographical – Natural
24. Mokrena	Variko	Slavic - Vlachic	Natural – Natural
25. Breznitsa & Bresnitsa	Vatohori	Slavic - Greek	Natural – Natural
26. Neograt	Vegora	Slavic - Greek	General- Geographical
27. Banitsa	Vevi	Slavic - Greek	General – Historical
28. Grasdeni & Gratntzeno	Vrodero	Slavic - Greek	General – General
29. Drobitsista&(D)robitsista	Daseri	Slavic - Greek	General – Natural
30. Belkameni & Belkamen	Drosopigi	Slavic - Greek	Natural – Natural
31. Opsirina	Ethniko	Slavic - Greek	General - Historical
32. V(r)beni	Itia	Slavic - Greek	Natural – Natural
33. Roudari & Roudar	Kalithea	Slavic - Greek	General –Geographical
34. Kalougeritsa	Kalogeritsa	Slavic - Greek	Religious – Religious
35. Dolno Kalenik	Kato Kaliniki	Slavic - Greek	Geographical -Geographical
36. Dolno Klestina	Kato Ydrousa	Slavic - Greek	Geographical -Geographical
37. Dolno Kotori	Kato Ydrousa	Slavic - Greek	Geographical -Geographical
38. Orovnik	Karues	Slavic - Greek	Natural – Natural
39. Gornitsovo	Keli	Slavic - Greek	Geographical – Historical

Old toponym	New toponym	Toponyms Origin	Signifiers
40. Tserovo	Klidi	Slavic - Greek	Geographical -
41. Kladorapi & Kladorabi	Kladorahi	Slavic - Greek	General - General (natural)
42. Plisevitsa	Kolhiki	Slavic - Greek	General – Historical
43. Touria	Korifi	Slavic - Greek	General – Geographical
44. Drenovo	Kranies	Slavic - Greek	Natural – Natural
45. Rakovo	Kratero	Slavic - Greek	Natural- Historical
46. Smardesi & Smardes	Kristalopigi	Slavic - Greek	General - General
47. Roulia	Kotas (Katohori)	Slavic - Greek	General – Historical
48. Rabi	Lemos	Slavic - Greek	Natural / Geographical - General
49. Elevi	Lakia (Levea 1981)	after Slavic - Greek	Geographical – Historical
50. Popli	Leukonas	Slavic - Greek	Religious - General
51. Leskovets	Leptokaria	Slavic - Greek	Natural – Natural
52. (Iroiko) Lehovo	Lehovo	Greek - Vlach	(Historical) -General
53. Sfeti Tondori & Tserkeskioi	Limnohori	Slavic – Turkish - Greek	Historical – Religious – Natural
54. Zabardeni & Zapirdani	Lofi	Slavic - Greek	Geographical/Natural – Geographical
55. Kolartzi	Maniaki	Turkish - Greek	Occupational – Historical
56. Sakoulevo	Marina	Slavic - Greek	Natural - Person
57. Vostareni & Oftsareni	Meliti	Slavic - Greek	Natural – Historical
58. Orta Omba	Mesokampos	Slavic - Greek	General – Geographical
59. Lazeni	Mesonisi	Slavic - Greek	General – Geographical
60. Hasanovo & Asanovo Selo	Mesohori	Slavic - Greek	General – Geographical
61. Medovo	Milionas	Slavic - Greek	Natural – Natural
62. Lagka & Lagk & Lagi	Mikrolimni	Slavic - Greek	Geographical –Geographical
63.	Neos Kaukasos	Greek	Historical / Geographical
64. Neokazi	Neohoraki	Slavic - Greek	General- Geographical
65. Negkotsani	Niki	Slavic - Greek	General - General (military)
66. Neveska	Nimfaio	arvanitic - Greek	General – General
67. Exi Su & Dolno Nevoliani	Xino Nero	Turkish / Slavic - Greek	Natural / Geographical – Natural
68. Bukovo & Bukovik	Oxia	Slavic - Greek	Natural – Natural
69. Boresnitsa	Palaistra	Slavic - Greek	Military – Military
70. Popozani & Vakoufkioi	Papagiannis	Slavic / Turkish - Greek	Religious / General Religious
71. Papantigia	Papadia	Slavic - Greek	Religious – Religious
72. Bitousa	Parori	Slavic - Greek	General - Geographical
73. Lioubetino	Pedino	Slavic - Greek	General – Geographical
74. Molalar	Pelargos	Turkish - Greek	- Natural
75. Koutskoveni	Perasma	Slavic - Greek	General – Geographical
76. Prekopana	Perikopi	Slavic - Greek	General – General

Old toponym	New toponym	Toponyms Origin	Signifiers
77. Petertsko	Petres	Slavic - Greek	General – Natural
78. Pisoder	Pisoderi	Vlach - Greek	
79. Stirkovo	Plati	Slavic - Greek	Natural – Geographical
80. Klambouritsa&Klaboutsitsa	Poliplatanos	Slavic - Greek	General – Natural
81. Nereti & Nerend	Poliplataos	Slavic - Greek	Geographical – Natural
82. Tirново	Prasino	Slavic - Greek	Natural – Natural
83. Kabasnitsa	Proti	Slavic - Greek	General – General
84. Vineni	Pili	Slavic - Greek	Natural - General
85. Rahovo & Orovnik	Pixos	Slavic - Greek	Natural- Natural
86. Gioulents	Rodonas	Slavic - Greek	Natural – Natural
87. Motesnitsa	Simos Ioannidis	Slavic - Greek	Natural – Historical
88. Rosna	Sitaria	Slavic - Greek	Natural – Natural
89. Zelenits	Slkithro	Slavic - Greek	Natural – Natural
90. Gorno Nevoliani	Skopia	Slavic - Greek	Geographical –Military
91. Setina	Skopos	Slavic - Greek	Military – Military
92. Besfina	Sfika	Slavic - Greek	Natural – Natural
93. Soter	Sotiras	Slavic - Greek	Religious – Religious
94. Lageni & Lagen	Triantafilia	Slavic - Greek	General – Natural
95. Tirsia	Trivouno	Slavic - Greek	General – Geographical
96. Ostima	Trigono	Slavic - Greek	General – General
97. Petoratsi & Petorak	Tripotamos	Slavic - Greek	General – Geographical
98. Mahala	Tropaioxos	Turkish - Greek	Geographical – General
99. Spantsi	Fanos	Slavic - Greek	
100. Okelmez	Faragi	Turkish - Greek	
101. Tsantsilar	Filotas	Turkish - Greek	Historical
102. Negovan & Negovani	Flabouro	Slavic - Greek	General– Historical
103. Lerin	Florina		
104. Nivitsa	Psarades	Slavic - Greek	Geographical - Occupational

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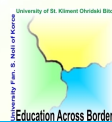


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CHALLENGES IN ADULT EDUCATION AND LIFELONG LEARNING: CAN ITS BE AN ALTERNATIVE WAY TO ACHIEVE EDUCATIONAL AIMS?

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Abstract

Intelligent tutoring systems (ITS) are generally designed to tailor instruction to the individual student, but this does not mean that ITS-guided learning must necessarily be a solitary activity. A variety of recent systems have demonstrated ways in which an adaptive learning environment can incorporate and benefit from the presence of multiple learners. Similarly, students using computer-supported collaborative learning systems have been shown to benefit from the introduction of adaptive support that targets the collaboration. Despite a great potential and some initial successes, e-learning systems do not yet have the impact that many believe is possible. Studies have consistently highlighted the important relationship between engagements and learning, with students who are highly motivated being more likely to engage in the learning process. In this paper, we seek to explore ways in which the combination of collaborative and intelligent aspects of a system can benefit the adult learner by creating a more productive learning environment. Educational systems today aim at building an innovative adaptive environment for e-learning combining personalization, collaboration and simulation aspects within an affective/emotional based approach able to contribute to the overcoming of the quoted limitations of current e-learning systems and content. Researchers face many challenges when working with collaborative intelligent learning systems. We hope to give a new set of ideas surrounding techniques to consider when developing adaptive support for collaborative learning and an to discuss lessons learned about the practical difficulties involved in implementing intelligent support for collaborative learning and evaluating it in a rigorous manner.

Keywords: *Intelligent tutoring systems, adult education, e-learning, lifelong learning, collaborative learning*

"If we understand the human mind, we begin to understand what we can do with educational technology"

Herbert A. Simon

1. Introduction

In today's Information Technology (IT) age, the traditional role of teachers and learners is being changed by multimedia courseware. Hypermedia offers much to learners in terms of providing an environment that engages the learner, allowing the construction of knowledge in a meaningful way. However, these packages lack intelligent tutors. Intelligent Multimedia Tutoring Systems (IMTS) can offer some solutions by providing students multimedia interface features with the added ability to monitor the student's performance and to provide guidance towards the correct solution using methods of constraint-based tutoring. Intelligent Tutoring Systems have an interesting history, originating in the Artificial Intelligence (AI) movement of the late 1950's and early 1960's. Then, workers such as Alan Turing, Marvin Minsky, John McCarthy and Allen Newell thought that computers that could "think" as humans do were just around the corner. Many thought that the main constraint on this goal was the creation of faster, bigger computers.

Intelligent tutoring systems offer support and guidance to learners attempting to master a cognitive skill. When students ask for help or make a mistake in such a tutor, they receive feedback on their problem-solving actions, that is, they receive feedback at the cognitive level. However, mistakes can also be made at the higher metacognitive level, which coordinates the learning process. Such metacognitive skills include self-assessment and help-seeking strategies, among many others. When cognitive errors originate from an incorrect metacognitive decision, feedback on student metacognition would be more appropriate. The traditional role of teachers and learners connotes an active teacher/passive student relationship, usually with the teacher lecturing at the front of the class while students sit at desks in rows and listen, take notes, and occasionally ask questions. The knowledge obtained is then applied to practical exercises in a supervised laboratory session, generally of two hours duration. Students have to complete their project within the session, and may consult qualified tutors concerning the task.

The role of the teacher and his/her impact on these activities, on the other hand, has been regarded to a far lesser extent. Teachers do not

only plan, design and give feedback on students' collaborative activities, but they may also play an important role *during* these activities: They moderate, coach and guide groups of students. The research on F2F settings has unequivocally shown the positive effects of carefully calibrated, non-intrusive human facilitation of small-group discussions on its quality. When this is achieved in an on-line environment, it is often referred to as *e-moderation* or *e-facilitation*. One limitation of web-based interaction is the limited communication bandwidth than traditional face-to-face interaction. The term bandwidth represents the amount of information that can be transferred in a unit of time through any means possible (Forbus, & Feltovich, 2001). In the face-to-face communication mode, if a verbal instruction is not understood, clues can be available to the counterpart through gestures, group dynamics and other local medium. But the clues in the web-based mode are not always so obvious and in many cases not available at all. Therefore, tailoring the information to the right-level for the receiver to understand is a crucial factor for the success of any web-based application.

In web-based educational systems, the type of learning systems that tailor the learning material to meet learners' needs are usually called adaptive learning systems (Karampiperis, and Sampson, 2005; Ketamo, 2003; Kinshuk, and Lin, 2003).

2. Knowledge Economy and Life-Long Learning

Statistics indicated that the information stored in the world doubles every 2.8 years (Keegan, 2000). The problem every country faces now is not how to create more information, but how to locate and utilize available information. This amazing phenomenon brings on the dawn of a so called *knowledge economy* within which market transactions are facilitated or even driven by knowledge.

Knowledge is acquiring more of the properties of a commodity (Houghton, & Sheehan, 2000).

Three drives for the knowledge economy are identified (Wikipedia Contributors, 2006):

- Globalization: markets, products and source of labor are more global.

- Information and knowledge intensity: 70% of workers in developed economies are information workers; and
- Computer networking and connectivity: Internet has reduced the barrier of physical distance between people to many aspects of people's life (doing business, communication, learning etc.).

Friedman (2005) pointed out that there are three different stages (versions) of globalization:

- Globalization 1.0 (the years 1492 to 1800): where the world was driven by countries and armies competing and fighting for resources;
- Globalization 2.0 (the years 1800 to 2000): the world was driven by multinational companies. Two important drives in this stage were falling transportation and communication costs; and
- Globalization 3.0 (the years beginning in the year 2000): the world is driven by the empowerment of individuals.

Electronic learning (e-Learning) answers too many requirements of life-long learning: it allows learners to learn when they want to, and where they want to (Takiya, Archbold, and Berge, 2005; Sampson, Karagiannidis, and Cardinali, 2002).

One of the main advantages of e-Learning over traditional instructor-led training is its ability to provide individualization and adaptivity to suit the learner's needs. Adaptive learning systems can adapt the learning content and presentation according to the characteristics of the learners (Jonassen & Wang, 1990; Costa et al., 1991; Beaumont, 1994). They aim at providing individualized courses similar to the one-to-one privilege from a private tutor.

However, in order for learning system to provide adaptivity, it has to know about the learners: profiles of learners are needed. Learners' profiles are obtained through a process called student modeling and the profiles are often called student models (Nykänen, 2006; Lu, Wu, Wu, Chiou, and Hsu, 2005; El-Sheikh & Sticklen, 1998; Hume, 1995; Zhou & Evens, 1999).

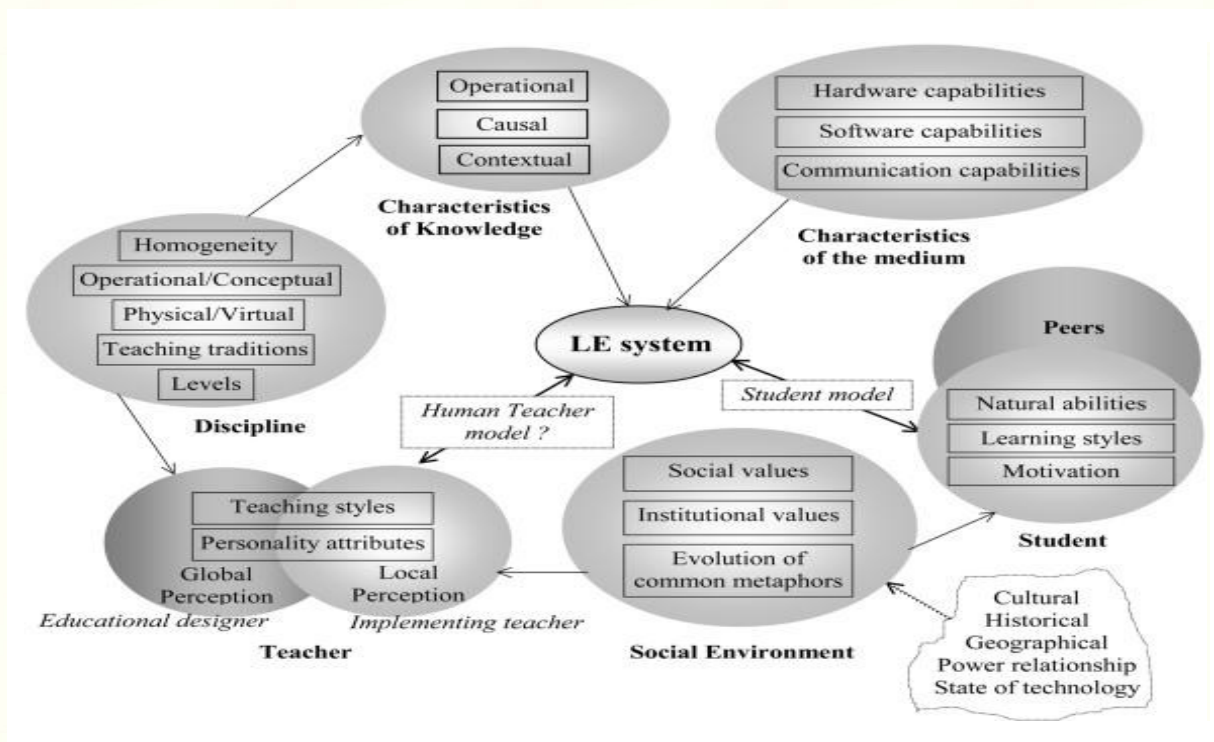
Adaptivity based on performance models can be in the form of guiding the learner to the

next most suitable learning task. This type of model is called performance-based model. A performance-based model profiles a learner's performance in a domain, course, or learning unit. It is an essential requirement for learning systems to provide performance-based adaptivity. However, after the completion of the course, the performance-based student model becomes of little use if not totally useless at all.

3. The Intelligent Tutoring System

The system consists of several core modules, which are relatively independent of each other to allow easy upgradability and portability to other teaching domains:

- a. Personalized Student Models, each of which will monitor the progress of one student.
- b. An Expert Model, which stores instructions for each exercise as well as the initial state.
- c. An Expert Tutor, which operates on the Student and Expert Models. It is responsible for the validation of each move by the student in an exercise.
- d. The Graphical User Interface (GUI) Shell which serves as the bridge or HCI interpreter between students and the ITS [Warendorf 1997].

Figure 1: The environmental contexts of an intelligent tutoring system

In order to build intelligent tutoring agents within games-based learning environments, practitioners must understand the three conceptual models used within Intelligent Tutoring Systems (ITS): the expert or domain model, the student model, and the instructional model. From understanding the application of these concepts, this paper proposes bi-directional human and machine learning as necessary for effective game-based intelligent tutoring systems.

Researchers frequently come across teachers who distrust a learning environment as embodying the beliefs of the designers and not their own pedagogy. Following the lead provided by user modeling work carried out in the field of human-computer interaction, there has been much research on student modeling and adaptivity to individual learners; however, the role of the teacher as the manager of the learning process and hence a much more significant user of a learning environment has been ignored.

4. ITS and Adult Education Implications

Learning Management Systems and Intelligent Tutoring Systems are both blended learning solutions. Each one complements the teacher in and out of the classroom, and both function as an aid in the delivery of the curriculum.

Figure 2: LMS vs. ITS

Learning Management Systems (LMS) and Intelligent Tutoring Systems (ITS) alike store electronic content and deliver an interactive experience to the learner. They present any number of content interactions, from basic gap fill exercises to sophisticated simulations, evaluating user input and offering assessment

and grading based on their performance. The key difference between the LMS and the ITS is that the latter provides direct customized feedback to learners based on their input into the system. It employs Artificial Intelligence (AI), meaning that it can employ a variety of AI techniques to understand, inform, and direct the user after completing exercises. It seeks to replicate the role of a tutor, effectively guiding and coaching the student through the content. The ITS essentially comprises four component modules. The *student interface* provides the interface with which the student interacts with the system. The *expert module* references an expert or domain model containing a description of the knowledge or behaviors that represent expertise in the subject-matter domain the ITS is teaching, while the *student model* describes the knowledge and behavior of a sample student of the subject. A mismatch between a student's behavior or knowledge, and the expert's

presumed behavior or knowledge, triggers a signal to the final component, *the tutor module*, which can subsequently act to provide feedback or remedial instruction. The ITS sounds ideal, but it is intensive in terms of the expert knowledge and resources required to build it. This increases if the subject is qualitative rather than quantitative, with qualitative knowledge containing a greater degree of tacit knowledge. The timeframe for delivering an ITS within an organization is longer, owing to analysis of content, student, and tutor roles, though if successfully delivered it can offer a rich student experience as well as being an accurate barometer of subject knowledge. Alternatively, the LMS can use individual exercises to offer paths through the learning experience. Content can easily be edited in a variety of different formats. Logical rules do not have to be associated with content.



The LMS can provide correct answers to learners when each exercise has been completed, but cannot offer intelligent feedback like the ITS can. An ITS could offer greater learning value where the requirement is to learn faster within a shorter space of time, with direct customized feedback offering the learning provider a tangible way of delivering their learning. Detailed technical analysis would be a pre-requisite to providing the scope of integration, but clear strategic benefits would have to be identified prior to this. Effective semantic analysis of the subject area would be

critical to be able to fully exploit the capabilities of the artificial intelligence system. With the LMS it is simpler to continue adding content, but when adding content to the ITS, administrators would have to consider context in addition to student and tutor outcomes. Both types of system are blended learning solutions, not seeking to replace the teacher but to aid the teacher both in and out of the classroom, and function as an aid in the delivery of the curriculum. ITS would have an obvious advantage in student testing, as direct

customized feedback is essential in student assessment.

Perhaps the ideal learning environment would have a combination of the two. When faced with the choice, business considerations would have to be paramount. Using an ITS would require considerably more resources and investment, depending on the level of customization. Until a simple product-based rules system is released that covers a range of subject areas and offers a low set-up cost, unless time, cost, and expert resources are available, the learning management system will remain the preferred option of learning providers.

5. Conclusions

Though tutoring systems are capable of effectively tracing students' cognition and giving relevant feedback on that level, in order to maximize learning, they should also respond to students' poor metacognitive decisions. The first step in doing so is detecting metacognitive errors. Since metacognitive behavior is not tied to a specific subject matter, improving it may improve learning across tutors and domains.

Intelligent Tutoring Systems emerged from Artificial Intelligence at the very time that AI was struggling to transcend the goal of mimicking human intelligence by creating machines that could "think" like humans. As researchers came to grips with the intractable problems of this task, they realized that trying to emulate human cognition with computers was misguided because they assumed that people thought like computers. At the same time, educational psychology was undergoing a paradigm shift from behaviorism towards cognition, constructivism, and socially situated learning. This revolution prompted many educators to question the practices that evolved during the post-war education boom. It might appear that ITS are doomed to become a footnote in the history of both computer science and educational psychology. However, the prospect of applying the rapidly expanding power of computers not just to information management, but to knowledge communication, is too appealing to allow us to dismiss ITS research just yet. In this way we may be able to create the theories and technology required to make the

dream of intelligent knowledge communication systems a reality.

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EDUCATIONAL NETWORKING AS PART OF USING ICT IN EDUCATION

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Abstract

In terms of recent technological revolution which returns a constant and rapid expansion of the computer technology inevitably raises the necessity to start a process of reorganizing educational institutions where Information - Communication Technology occupies important place in all spheres. Information - Communication Technology (ICT) has great potential to change the way teachers teach and students learn. Social networks as part of this revolution are certainly taking their place in the implementation of ICT in the classroom. From the time when MySpace, LinkedIn and Facebook appeared, online social networking has rapidly developed in a universal method for people from around the world to connect between them. Websites that offer social networking became every day's habit and integrated into the way people act and think. "Educational Networking" is the use of social network technologies in the educational process. In today's modern world, prospects for education are like never before. This paper will give details on the most used Social networks as a way of using ICT in education. Also an experiment will be presented where Facebook is involved in the classroom communication.

Keywords: *Social Networks, Educational Networking, classroom communication, educational process*

1. Introduction

In these modern and digital surroundings in which we live and work, at first sight it seems like it's very easy to implement all this new technology into the educational process. The use of Internet in a way of a huge storage of information where every educator and student can easily access is just one method of improving both teaching and learning. Implementing social networks as an internet services in education can bring a lot of benefits, but also some disadvantages. The fact that this is fairly new technology means it hasn't been investigated enough for its safety issues and the quality of information that stream through the service. Using these online tools can expose students to inappropriate materials and pictures, abuse and harassment outside the school and in many cases improper adult content. And this is not

occurrence just in schools. Social networks are included in our everyday lives. People think, act, work and interact under the influence of these networks. We will look upon the opportunities offered from these networks and analyze how they can be used for personal and academic development of the students.

To start analyzing social networks let's see the original purpose of their invention. Main feature is to transfer information of any type from one place to another, i.e. from one person to another. Starting from sharing small information in a closed group of students, today they became most used way of communication between each other, sharing interests, photos and music among friend, acquaintances or even people we've never met before. They became the place to meet old friends, classmates, relatives from different cities and countries and spend time chatting using audio and video, sharing pictures or even play games together. In perspective of educational use these networks offer students way to connect with other students, professors and alumni or even organize an online class.

Social networks not only enhance the communication between participants in the educational process but also improve the learning environment in a way that different languages and distance is not a barrier anymore. Traditional publishing nowadays is slow and often cost a lot due to expensive materials. Online publishing is easy, fast and always up to date. There are special designed web pages for students offering information written only by experts and with it providing valuable information that otherwise is unavailable for them.

On the other hand, not always information used from social networks is accurate. These networks present excellent way of placing misinformation and rumors in the cyber space. Searching for true and quality information is a challenge. This is where the educators must focus their attention and indicate to students where to find appropriate information.

2. Using social networks in the classroom

The swift growth of social media provides communication opportunities that are not found simply by visiting the faculty website. Even

though many of these websites are well designed, students are required to navigate through several pages to get to the information they need. As technology progresses, people are less willing to go through this process when more efficient methods of communication exist. The use of social media to communicate between professors, students and parents can help everyone stay up-to-date.

Sites for social networking created new social dimension where users can improve their knowledge or even learn different techniques by themselves only by following online instructions. In this paper we will evaluate some of the most used social networks by students with their advantages and disadvantages. Most of these networks even complement each other, for examples sharing YouTube video on Facebook.

Using YouTube as a teaching aid in the classroom is very common in these modern times. Showing video presentations and simulations is a better and more interesting way of learning something new. This gives students more motivation to raise their knowledge in different ways and not only by reading the textbook. Realizing that many of the educators started to implement video materials from their web site in the curriculum, YouTube created special domain only for educational purpose and it's called YouTube Edu (www.youtube.com/education). It offers its visitors large number of educational and instructional videos. These videos present full courses from the world's top universities, professional material from recognized educators, and inspiring videos from global thought leaders. YouTube created two programs to help schools and teachers make use of YouTube EDU most effectively: YouTube for Schools and YouTube for Teachers. YouTube for Teachers provides tips & tricks for bringing YouTube into the classroom and organizes YouTube EDU videos to align with common core subjects. YouTube for Schools allows schools to access all of the YouTube EDU content while limiting access to non-educational content. This way teachers and parents can be assured that the students can find valuable and true information. Great advantage of using YouTube as a teaching tool is that now allows easy uploading and online video editing, making it easy for anyone to edit without expensive software or great computer knowledge.

Two of the most used social networks today are Facebook (900 million registered users) and Twitter (500 million users), therefore they are the most used ones in the education too. Although one might think Facebook is the leading one, Twitter is by far and away the most used network for educational purposes due to its micro-tweeting platform. Introducing parental control as a part of their safety measures Twitter is safer than others so it becomes a more viable option for educators every day. While Twitter is mostly used by educators, Facebook is more used by students. By creating groups for most of their subject they interact more often, they help each other with home work or other assignments or even point to external web sites with more information.

Taking this into consideration we conducted a research at our Faculty. The test group consisted of 20 students attending the subject "ICT in education", which is held in fourth semester. All of them have an active e-mail address and Facebook profile and the most interesting thing is that they had no idea they were tested. The plan was to give them three assignments, but presented to them in different ways. First they were given the homework where its objective was presented only to the students that were in the classroom. They had to do a research on a given topic and write 300 words essay. Thirteen of the students finished the homework, and most of those students were the ones present on the class when we explained the homework. Next week they got the same kind of homework, but different topic. This time they got the instructions on e-mail, without knowing that we would send such a mail. Now 12 students had done their homework, 6 didn't finish in time and two of them didn't access their e-mail account during the week. The third week students got their final homework. This time we used the Facebook group which students created last year to better communicate between themselves throughout the studies. We post the assignment there. At the end of the week 18 of the students had a complete homework and 2 didn't finish in time. When we viewed the group's discussion wall it had a lot of interaction between students and a lot of useful links for the topic they were researching. This shows that all of these students access their Facebook account at least once a week and that information can be

processed faster this way. Even students who missed some classes can learn the material or can get help from fellow classmates. Of course, students can abuse our thrust by sending private mails and copy the homework from each other, but this is only a small step towards learning the proper use of Facebook or similar sites in the classroom. According to eBizMBA's list of 15 most popular social network sites for September 2012¹, Facebook leads with 750 million estimated unique monthly visitors. This shows that 80% of all Facebook accounts are still active and it is the fastest way to share information.

Other way of using social networks in education are the computer games. Lately most of the sites mentioned above have integrated these games inside so users can play them, keep scores and competing with each other. Since the creation of the first computer game experts are divided whether games are good to be used in the education. Some think it is more interesting way of learning and its motivating students to learn the new material. But not everybody is agreeing to this. Most teachers and parents believe playing games is just a waste of time, and in their defense games that have an educational purpose are still small in numbers and not that interesting to the kids. With the rapid development of the internet services we can expect in near future games to be played as simulations at school. Students can be kings, managers, doctors etc, which in way can make them learn easily math, economy, law, medicine or they can develop more social skills like their characters in the games.

3. Disadvantages in using social networks

While we support the use of this technology in schools for the reason that quality resources are available to educators, students and parents, it is very important to show to the students the appropriate usage of these sites. With the express networking students of all ages are exposed to the world. Since the invention of these networks privacy is the main issue that everybody is concerned.

By creating own profile on most of the social network sites users are asked to enter personal

¹ List retrieved on 15.14.2013 from www.ebizmba.com/articles/social-networking-websites

information in their databases. Sometimes they have to enter more intimate data, like what user like or dislike, ideals, beliefs, morals. This kind of information is open to everyone using the network, such as classmates, friends, teachers, parents and general public. Even worse, this information might be open to the eyes of future employers. Students that are familiar with these facts and risks have to learn how to manage their accounts and protect themselves. At the same time, most of the social networks offer their users an easy way to tweak the settings on their accounts and flexibility to choose what kind of information to be shown. Although most of the school principles are in talks with the managers of these sites to find the best strategies to use them in education and keep everybody safe, students are in danger outside schools, too. Whether they are working on the home computers or their smart phones, or just being with their friends outside they are at the same risk.

Even though the largest part of information that users provide on social networking sites is voluntary, users, in particular students that are young in age, are gradually more prone to reveal great deal of private information online. London Times reporter Emma Justice writes in her article about how Facebook users are comfortable sharing information online – commenting: "The fact that you can't see or hear other people makes it easier to reveal yourself in a way you might not be comfortable with. You become less conscious of the individuals involved (including yourself), less inhibited, less embarrassed and less concerned about how you will be evaluated." Lots of people found the only way to reclaim their truly private life was to log off and disconnect completely.

Facebook first appeared in North America, so they are the first to face these problems and of course the first to look for solutions. They formed special department in the National PTA (Parent – Teacher Association) to keep young people safe. While most people think that sexual predators are the main reason to keep social networks away from young students, PTA made a research where one of their members Amanda Lenhart states that this is less of risk than it is made out to be. "Mostly kids at risk already have a bunch of social and emotional problems in their lives. These kids are the ones who might engage in risky behaviors, seek out sex talk

online and knowingly meet people who are older." According to the article, "Peer-to-peer harassment and bullying are much more common threats to online youngsters," (Feldman 2011) which is a concern both online and off. Because of this controversy, networks have engaged efforts to form more secure online communities for students. Facebook, which currently has over 900 million users making it the largest social networking site, partnered with the National PTA "to promote responsible and safe Internet use to kids, parents and teachers." Facebook went on to create both safety and education tabs that provide information and resources for educators and concerned parents. MySpace also established a partnership with the Attorney General, created a safety task force, and released a list of strategies for online safety. In addition there are numerous student-oriented sites and programs created to bring safety without sacrificing social networking opportunities. This means that these fresh social networking sites try to take advantage of the massive popularity of online social networking while at the same time providing a further protected and regulated stage for social networking activities.

Teachers and other participants in the educational process are at danger too. Large number of the teachers is still using facts and materials in their lectures from sites that do not always provide accurate information. There was a story last year where a professor from Dartmouth University in USA, updated her social network profile by stating how she accessed Wikipedia to gather information for her next lecture: "I feel like such a fraud. Do you think Dartmouth parents would be upset about paying \$40,000 a year for their children to go here if they knew that certain professors were looking up stuff on Wikipedia and asking for advice from their Facebook friends on the night before the lecture?" (Young 2009) It appears that, this professor was uninformed that everybody on Facebook was able to read this post and not just her friends. That included her students and their parents. This is just one story but there are lots of similar events. Same as the students, not every educator is familiar with how social networks operate.

When mentioning Wikipedia, quality information is challenging when the quantity of information is gigantic. The online encyclopedia

(which relies upon volunteer editors and contributors) gets way more traffic than the Web site run by Encyclopedia Britannica (which relies upon experts and scholars), even though the interactive format employed by Wikipedia opens it to postings that are inaccurate, unverified, even downright fraudulent" (Kakutani 2007). But Encyclopedia Britannica is not free, and students and educators must pay membership to the site. And not everybody at Wikipedia is expert in the field they write. There was a case where 24 years old man wrote thousand of facts pretending to be a professor. On the other hand all of them were accurate. So where is the thin line that tells us what information to use and what not to use.

4. Solution

As the discussion on how technology and social networks play part in the classroom keeps on running, members on both sides are arguing where to draw a line between the significance of innovation and the protection of students. As solutions that keep happy both sides continue to develop, online education resources make a new turn. Taking example of Facebook, Tweeter, MySpace, Google+, YouTube etc, there are new and improved social networks made especially for education. Sites like:

- Classroom 2.0, (www.classroom20.com)
- Educator's PLN, (www.edupln.ning.com)
- Sophia, (www.sophia.org)
- ISTE Community, (www.iste-community.org)
- WhoTeaches, (www.whoteaches.com)

are the leading social sites where only proven teachers and participants in the educational process can write articles, share learning materials and teaching techniques or point to more useful information. These sites are used by teachers all over the world providing accurate information which is updated on daily bases and is always filtered for errors and plagiarism. As time goes by the number of this kind of sites will only grow bigger and will make the teaching more efficient and more interesting for the students.

5. Conclusion

While using teaching techniques that involves social networks, teachers have the possibility to increase students' involvement in their education, increase technological skills and to build better communication skills. In times of economic crises and reduced budget for education, these online tools are very useful if used correctly. We just saw that they come with some risks, but still these technologies become more widespread, and the margins of social networking keep on expanding. Without a doubt, social networking sites have changed the traditional definition of having a friend. While online forums and blogs create difficulties for communicating, so do traditional methods of communication. The challenges posed by online social networking, and the possible profit to informal and formal education, are still emerging. Social networking is not a new phenomenon, but it is something that is gradually starting to be embraced in the educational world. The technology that allows this modern level of connection has the possibility to unlock information to more people than has ever been possible at any point throughout human history.

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INTERNET BASED EDUCATION AS AN ALTERNATIVE WAY IN ADULT EDUCATION FOR ETHNIC IMMIGRANTS

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Abstract

Distance education (defined as a separation of teachers and students interacting through mediated technologies under the auspices of an institution) is becoming widely accepted as a means for higher education to provide broader access and achieve cost-efficiencies while maintaining quality programs. Distance education has expanded to the Internet to the extent that in some settings the terms distance learning and Web-based courses are becoming synonymous and in most cases it eliminates distance. This learning environment provides tremendous convenience and flexibility, allowing busy, mobile adult learners to engage in education when and where they wish. However, faculty, staff, administrators, institutions, and students face many challenges in taking full advantage of these learning environments. The typology presented in this paper can help educators understand the different levels at which Internet technologies can support adult learning. Research about Internet-based instruction indicates generally positive comments. Although students still use a printed course guide and textbooks and exchange assignments through the mail, the Internet becomes the main vehicle of instruction and communication. The conversational environment is usually a text-only computer conference with topical threads (sequences of messages), although mailing lists are sometimes used. And what kind of adult learning does computer conferencing foster? Beyond the experiential and activity learning characteristic, there is a great emphasis on interactivity—receiving in-depth, meaningful feedback to one's contributions from peers as well as the instructor, and the ability to respond in return. Web-2 internet courses also require more reflection, as students consider how new information and experiences fit within the context of prior knowledge.

Keywords: *d-education, interactive animations, Web-based courses, visual monitoring, games based learning*

1. Introduction

Teaching is, in fact, extremely complex. Teaching well requires practice, skill development and refinement, constant reflection, persistence, striving in spite of conditions that may encourage

mediocrity or discouragement, tenacity, organizational abilities and insights required of few other professions. When you have gifted and talented students, curriculum (Salmon 2004) must be enriched in many ways: high level science, more distinguished exercises, etc. This also is requested in adult education. Adaptable teachers will be excited by new and creative ways to use technology effectively, and by the promise of unlimited possibilities. Many of us, educators and lay people alike, however, tend to underrate the complexity of teaching. It often tends to be treated mechanistically- as something someone does to somebody else that can be easily measured, and on which macro-decisions tend to be made. This level of refinement takes time and genuine support. It is therefore critical to find out how effective e-learning practices are achieved. An effective 21st century classroom teaching and learning relies on a number of tools and one of these tools is technology.

In their review of 100 published research reports completed in the period 1991– 2001, Coomey and Stephenson (2001) found little if any definitive evidence of the overall effectiveness of 'e-learning' compared with more conventional methods. This is not to say that this medium is ineffective but rather to say that there is little systematic and empirical work to show evidence of its evaluation. Laurillard (2002) added that *"we may not have an established set of characteristic forms of effective e-learning; however, we could identify some effective existing learning activities and produce a model that captures the good practices embedded in the activity regardless of the tool utilized"*.

But what do we mean by "active learning"?

- Active Learning refers to techniques where students do more than simply listen to a lecture. Students are doing something including discovering, processing, and applying information (McKinney 2007).
- Active Learning attempts to model the methods and mindsets which are at the heart of scientific inquiry, and to provide opportunities for students to connect abstract ideas to their real world applications and acquire useful skills, and in so doing gain knowledge that persists beyond the course experience in

which it was acquired (Allen & Tanner 2003).

- Active Learning is comprised of a student centered environment which raises student's motivational level to stimulate thinking and go beyond facts and details (Brody 2009).
- Construct interesting "problem spaces" that serve to really engage the learner's interest, and, hence, to motivate them in ways that are authentic (Carson 2009).

As a result, if we are to unravel the various components of effective e-learning practice, we need to consider pedagogy. Pedagogies are connected with students' learning and outcomes, and have been widely accepted for epistemological and empirical reasons. In this way, the issue of integrating e-learning into the pedagogical system has recently emerged as an important and pressing.

To some educators, this term may not be of any difference to the term traditional pedagogy. On the other hand, some educators view e-pedagogy as new challenges of teaching a 21st century classroom. The most critical understanding of e-pedagogy is that it ensures a successful implementation of online teaching focus for research. Many scholars view e-learning as a way forward for one aspect of e-pedagogy which is collaborative teaching. This is because all too often educators put technology 1st rather than the pedagogy.

2. Enhanced Curriculum Planning for the Adult Education

Special subject teachers enhance the gifted and the adult learner through student talents, which include artistic, dramatic, musical (vocal and instrumental) and athletic. Through the use of rubrics, portfolios, and teacher observation, the special subject teachers are able to identify those students with exceptional talent. In the regular education art classes, bringing students to the next level in their artistic development challenges the individual potential of the exceptional student.

Virtual environments are characterized by a number of features, each of which contributes to the sense of "reality" in the experience:

- Views are three – dimensional perspective and often stereoscopic,

rather than the planar, two – dimensional views commonly used in desktop environments.

- Point – of – view is often egocentric, providing the user with a view of the virtual space that matches their physical “position” allowing immersion of the user in the virtual world.
- The environment is dynamic, rather than static.
- Multi – sensory techniques also employed for interacting with the user.
- Interaction is user – centered.

The literacy targets of a program of study in adult education, has been designed to enhance communication skills in the dissemination of knowledge about one’s area of expertise. Individuals should accomplish the following objectives:

- Lead the student to a deeper, comprehensive understanding of the adult learner through a plan of study which builds upon prior professional preparation and experience.
- Require interpretation of adult behavior through exploration theories and research findings related to the physical, social, emotional, intellectual and moral development of the adult learner.
- Require investigation of historical and philosophical factors which influence curriculum and pedagogy/andragogy for the adult learner.
- Require implementation of appropriate instructional strategies designed according to learner variables and academic discipline.
- Offer advanced study in human resource development, literacy education or technology-based learning.

Assessment practices are significantly enhanced when student assessment is viewed, and reviewed, in the context of the wider biological sciences curriculum. Students benefit enormously from a coherent and integrated approach to planning and reviewing assessment activities within and across year levels. To achieve such coherence, it is essential to look at the student experience in the discipline through the curriculum lens. This may occur in several ways. With respect to assessment in the

curriculum, course mapping provides a picture of the types of assessment tasks required of students in other subjects and in subsequent year levels and so makes possible a more coordinated approach to designing assessment tasks. As the educational marketplace becomes predominately adult-dominated, and as higher education institutions compete for adult enrollments, understanding how virtual universities are changing the landscape of higher education will be a significant issue in adult education. A number of trends are converging. For example, students learning online will outnumber those in seats for the majority of their education (Allen & Seaman, 2007). Learning is globally available at any time and in any place. Students entering the university have grown up with technology and expect to interact and learn through electronically mediated environments. Distance learning institutions held forth the promise of providing high-quality adult education any place, any time, and at any place.

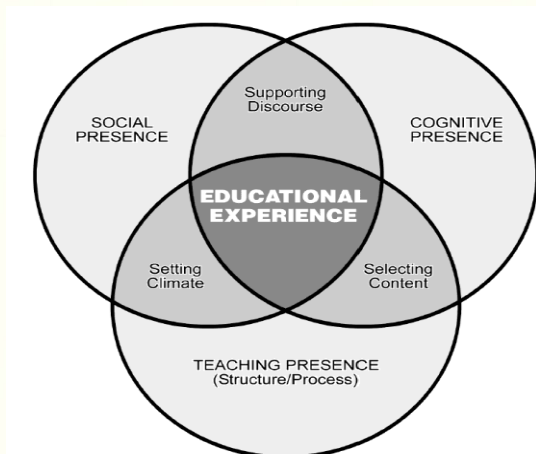
The advances in information and communication technologies, changing needs of individuals, and globalization are the influencing forces for all societal endeavors - including adult learning (Merriam, Caffarella, Baumgartner, 2007). Training and degree programs and other continuing educational opportunities for adults are increasing.

In today’s world, learning occurs for adults in a variety of settings from formal institutional settings such as college or university to non-formal and informal contexts such as home or community at different times and for different purposes (Selwyn, 2006; Merriam, Caffarella, Baumgartner, 2007). However, adults are busy people and they have pressing responsibilities that often restrict participation in these learning environments. Merriam, Caffarella and Baumgartner (2007) classify adult learning theories into 3 groups as western theories, eastern theories, and modern approaches. They indicate that western theories are more individualistic with an emphasis on freedom and independence, whereas eastern theories are more collectivistic with an emphasis on belonging, harmony and family. For example, self-directed learning and andragogy claim that people learn on their own as they mature (Merriam, Caffarella, Baumgartner, 2007). Others have gone further in proposing that self-

direction in learning is the distinguishing characteristic of adult learning (Knowles, 1973; Brookfield, 1986).

Collaborative activities are grounded in features of voluntary learning and respect for participants (Brookfield, 1987). Consistent with this, the third element of the framework, social presence, is essential in setting the climate for learning activities. Social presence supports cognitive objectives through its ability to instigate, sustain, and support critical thinking in a community of learners. Each element of the Community of Inquiry framework has been substantially studied in different contexts by many researchers.

Figure 1: Community of Inquiry Model, 'Cognitive Presence for Effective Asynchronous Learning', Garrison



Collaboration goes beyond simple interaction and, as such, it is argued that this is an effective means to create cognitive presence for the purposes of higher levels of learning (Murphy, 2004; Kanuka & Garrison, 2004). Meyer (2004) also points out the nature of triggering questions can support progression into higher levels of cognitive inquiry.

Using technology for learning in ways that are relevant, meaningful, challenging, and hands-on is not an easy task. It requires a rethinking of curriculum and pedagogy as well as the spatial and temporal boundaries of education. It necessitates a re-evaluation of learning in areas of engagement, individualization, and collaboration. Rethinking teaching and learning should move education away from conventional methods by which kids are told what to learn, when, where, and how. Instead, knowledge should be actively

constructed and students should be made responsible for their own learning. The process of curriculum and pedagogy transformation is complex, cumulative, and long term in scope, but one way to initiate the process is to change the curriculum from within. In addition, the curriculum should be stripped of outdated and irrelevant content and replaced by a model of learning that recognizes that virtually any information can be accessed and manipulated anywhere, anytime, and by anyone. Just adding more content is not the answer. While technology plays an important role in this respect, the greatest obstacle to be overcome is human; parents, teachers, students, and other stakeholders need to come to understand school as a process, not a place.

Technological change, which not only permits new activities but makes those new activities superior in many important ways over the previous method of operation, creates long lasting innovations in society. Web-based education is one of those innovations (Franklin and Peat, 2001).

Why is the remarkably fast growing innovation of web-based education important to our world? Firstly, it is radically growing in the first world nations of the world, especially in the United States (Barker, 2002). This alone means that it will likely grow in other nations in the world, as this innovation dominates education at all levels.

Secondly, teachers at all levels can merely post their syllabi on Blackboard but some have radically changed their whole method of teaching so that the class venue for the teacher and the student becomes the computer. The classroom now is a "virtual learning environment." Learning is no longer bound by space and time (Franklin and Peat, 2001). To use a metaphor associated with the past, the traditional classroom has become the expensive and difficult to handle as the rolled parchment manuscript when the printing press innovation was implemented. Web-based education has become the cheaper and superior printed book of the modern era.

Before proceeding further, a brief discussion of vocabulary is necessary to provide clarity in this article. The literature tends to use the following words interchangeably: online education and web-based education; computer

assisted learning, web assisted learning and web mediated learning; virtual learning environments, online courses, and web-based courses. We are using two terms in a more specific manner. Online education means the use of an integrated and global accessible collection of teaching materials for the attainment of course objectives (Barker, 2002). These teaching materials could be used to augment a campus based traditional class or for a web-based course. Web-based education means the most extreme form of online education that uses streaming videos and the more advanced functionalities available in educational software and where there is no actual face to face contact between the teacher and the student.

For those not familiar with web-based education, it is a big new mystery. Most new users of online or web-based education use the announcements and the functionality of posting materials. Teachers find that posting their one or more page syllabus useful because the students have it easily available and can print it when they wish or as often as they wish. However, few teachers really take advantage of this functionality.

For beginners, the real time grade book, external links, and email functions are wonderful. Students want their grades posted as soon after the test as possible. With software like Blackboard, they can go to their grade book and see the instructor's grades as soon as they are posted. The added advantage is the software protects the privacy of the student by permitting the student to only see his or her grades. External links provide the student with Internet sources that are particularly important and useful from the teacher's point of view. The email function is very handy as it allows the teacher and student to easily communicate with each other or with the whole class as a group using a list-serve. In addition, there is a drop box capacity, which allows the student and teacher to send files and easily keep track of what was sent and when. This is especially useful for students submitting assignments or faculty returning assignments with their comments.



Adults usually use the Internet to achieve different kinds of learning through different types of educational experiences. This paper describes research on adult students in Internet-based courses and ways to enhance their learning.

As society moves from an industrial to an information base, adults are rapidly becoming involved in using the Internet for professional, personal, and educational purposes. Over half of the full-time workforce in the United States uses computers regularly in their jobs (DiNardo and Pischke, 1997), and increasingly these computers are networked. More than 35 % of households own a computer (Negroponte, 1995), and these are quickly being connected to the Internet as adults and children use the World Wide Web for information, entertainment, and education. Rapidly changing societal and work environments demand continuous learning, and nontraditional students are the new majority, pursuing education for career development, job security, upward mobility, re-careering, and other professional and personal reasons.

Distance education (defined as a separation of teachers and students interacting through mediated technologies under the auspices of an institution) is becoming widely accepted as a means for higher education to provide broader access and achieve cost-efficiencies while maintaining quality programs.

A dozen or more *virtual institutions* have emerged, offering or brokering college courses for adults while providing important administrative and academic supports, often without a physical campus of their own.

2.1. d-Education Plans: Facilitating Effective Web-Based Education for Adults Introduction

Web-based (online) distance education has become a major presence in higher education institutions as a method for serving the needs of adults who are place-bound and/or time-bound. To support the growing number of courses offered via the Internet, instructors are often placed in this dynamic teaching environment with little or no guidance. This lack of preparation in combination with varying levels of institutional support often leaves instructors discouraged and their students dissatisfied. To provide a successful experience for instructors and students alike, instructors need help adapting and developing their teaching approach to incorporate strategies that add value to each adult learner's educational experience.



Andragogy is the antonym of pedagogy. In pedagogy, the concern is with transmitting the content, while in andragogy, the concern is with facilitating the acquisition of the content. Andragogy is a theory developed by Knowles (1913-97) which differentiates the needs of adult learners from those of juveniles and uses the term andragogy to describe the specific methods which should be employed in the education of adults.

- The adult learner moves towards independence and is self-directing. The

teacher encourages and nurtures this movement.

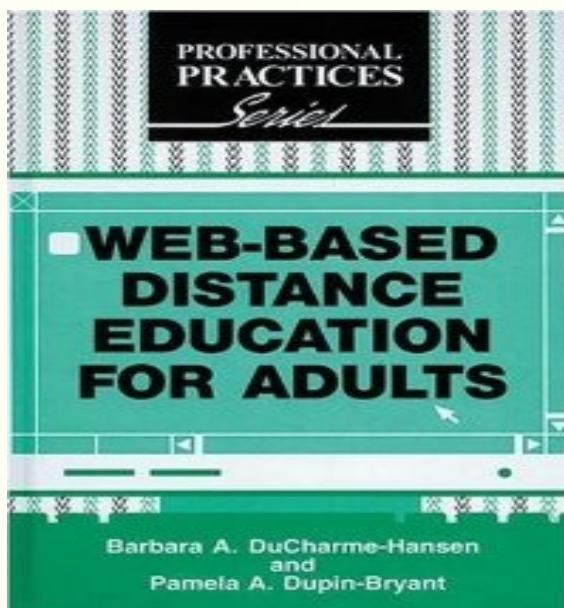
- The learner's experience is a rich resource for learning. Hence teaching methods include discussion, problem-solving etc.
- People learn what they need to know, so that learning programs are organized around life application.
- Learning experiences should be based around experiences, since people are performance centered in their learning.

Andragogy requires that adult learners be involved in the identification of their learning needs and the planning of how those needs are satisfied. Learning should be an active rather than a passive process. Adult learning is most effective when concerned with solving problems that have relevance to the learner's everyday experience.

3. Distance Education Plans

To facilitate successful web-based courses, instructors need to develop a plan that helps them broaden their teaching approach to embrace both the unique demands of learning online and the unique and diverse needs of adult learners. Distance education plans—juxtaposed with the course curriculum, lesson plans, and motivational plans—can help instructors improve their effectiveness and in turn create a successful and satisfying experience for everyone involved. A distance education plan is a systematic structure for introducing or applying distance education activities, methods, and strategies throughout the web-based learning process (DuCharme-Hansen & Dupin-Bryant, in press).

The main goal of distance education plans is to create a technology supported; adult learner focused educational experience that enhances learning and satisfaction. Distance education plans are developed prior to the learning experience though should commonly be reviewed and modified by the facilitator throughout the web-based learning experience. Distance education plans, outline strategies and establish appropriate initiatives before, during, and after the web-based distance education experience.



Distance education plans embrace the idea that distance education courses require a renewed commitment to adult learning principles (Burge, 1988; Collins, 1999; Hayes, 1990). The advent of web-based technologies for distance education has had a dramatic effect on teaching. These technologies are believed to have caused educators and researchers alike to question the effectiveness of traditional pedagogical approaches to teaching.

Nearly twenty years ago, Knowles surmised that “by the end of this century most educational services will be delivered electronically by teleconferencing, cable and satellite television, computer networks and other means yet to be discovered—provided educators learn how to use the media in congruence with principles of adult learning” (1986, p. 4). Knowles was keen in his vision of electronic delivery of education; however, with the development of web-based education, instructors have yet to consistently place adult students and adult learning principles at the heart of distance learning – at the crux of their teaching strategies.

To offset this problem, distance education plans provide a guide for keeping adults at the forefront of web-based teaching and learning. Distance education plans set a foundation of strategies based on the understanding that adult learners bring a wealth of prior knowledge to the classroom and that adult learners find practical application vital to their ability to master curriculum content. Adult learning theories such as self-direction, experiential learning, and collaborative learning, which are key elements

for successful distance learning (Collins, 1999; Hayes, 1990), can be woven within a distance education plan to help adult learners become actively involved in the learning process.

Distance education plans provide a written roadmap for organizing instructional strategies throughout the entire web-based distance education process. Six major strategies for improving web-based instruction provide the framework for successful distance education plans. These strategies include needs assessment, providing guidance, and building community, facilitating communication, humanizing the experience, and evaluating the experience.

Assessing student needs provides instructors information to develop a learning environment that is appropriate, responsive, and beneficial for both the learners and the instructor. Student needs assessment for web-based instruction includes the collection, synthesis, and interpretation of data about learners that can assist the instructor in matching student needs with the demands of the online learning environment.

The main purpose of student needs assessment is to give the instructor the tools and information necessary to make solid decisions about how to best facilitate the educational experience from start to finish. This information will assist in setting learning objectives, deciding on curriculum content, and determining methods, strategies, and activities for effective learning. The overall importance of web-based student needs assessment is to create an environment that can establish, facilitate, and maintain learning that is focused on the adult learner.

Some important areas to assess in online courses include:

- computer skills,
- learning styles,
- available resources,
- learner’s desired outcomes, and
- Prior learning experiences.

These are not the only areas an instructor may decide to assess. As long as an instructor can justify the purposefulness of an assessment, there is a high probability that the assessment will benefit the instructor, the learning environment, and in turn the adult learner.

The necessity for student assessments is

easily justified and commonly supported as an important endeavor. Unfortunately, understanding the importance does not guarantee the success of the venture. Implementing a student needs assessment may be disastrous without the assistance of a well-organized distance education plan.

When conducting needs assessment, planning is central (Galbraith, Sisco, & Guglielmino, 1997). The sequence of events for successful needs assessment within web-based courses includes:

- define the purpose,
- choose the assessment methods,
- develop a timeline for data collection,
- conduct the student needs assessment,
- analyze the data, and
- match student needs with course strategies, methods, and activities

By following this sequence and by incorporating these steps into their course distance education plan, instructors can increase success in online courses.

In order to help students become familiar with the active learning that occurs in web-based environments, the instructor must provide guidance to the learners through developing foundations and articulating expectations. Teachers accepting the role as a guide, leader, or facilitator, rather than an authoritative disseminator of truths is grounded in adult education literature (Dewey, 1916; Knowles, Elwood, & Swanson, 1998; Lindeman, 1961) and is widely accepted in distance education settings (Dillon & Walsh, 1992; Wolcott, 1996). However, the application of learner-centered teaching styles in web-based distance education can be difficult. Too many rules and the instructor becomes an autocrat; too few expectations and the instructor is besieged in anarchy. Both extremes stifle student learning and satisfaction.

Instructors in a web-based course must provide guidance for individuals to flourish in a democratic learning environment where both individual and group needs are met.

4. Developing d-Education Plans

Instructors must take an active role in developing web-based distance education plans. Since distance education plans influence the success of the web-based educational experience,

instructors must continually evaluate, review, and amend their distance education plans.

When incorporating strategies into distance education plans, instructors should ask themselves the following questions:

- Does this activity support the learning objectives?
- Is this activity supporting deep learning?
- Is this activity directly benefiting the adult learners in this course?
- Will the incorporation of technology create any barriers to learning?

The answers to these questions will allow instructors to make solid teaching decisions. In addition, instructors who incorporate distance education plans will find web-based courses less time-consuming and arduous than expected. The development of distance education plans focuses on organizing instructional efforts before, during, and after the distance education experience and therefore cuts down on redundant effort. With the help of distance education plans, instructors will find that designing and facilitating a web-based course can be a rewarding.

A first-time plan will not be perfect. Trial and error is a natural part of any educational endeavor. A well-defined distance education plan will help instructors cut down on the number of instructional errors, but imperfections will inevitably surface during development and implementation. The key is to set realistic expectations about promoting learning, student success, and student satisfaction; regardless of any setbacks, an instructor should continuously work toward improvements.

4.1. A Typology of Internet Uses in d-Education

Distance education providers are faced with the challenge of moving their adult students, faculty, advisers, and courses from the traditional low-tech delivery technologies of print, telephone, and mail to Internet technologies such as e-mail and the Web. These high-tech environments are less familiar to most adults, requiring some skill with computers, and challenge educators to rethink their instructional approaches. Eastmond and Granger (1997) present a three-tiered typology for courses using Internet technology that provides a framework for distance institutions to progress along a continuum from

lesser to greater technological sophistication. This flexible typology can be applied to various configurations of traditional and nontraditional delivery methods to aid educators in planning and implementing Internet-based education.

Depending on the type of Internet technology a distance course employs, adults will tend to learn differently. Concluding their review of adult learning theories, Merriam and Caffarella (1991) found that adult learning tends to be self-directed, that life experiences trigger and aid adult learning, and that reflection and action are integral components of the adult learning process.

Other educators of adults characterize successful learning as including additional attributes such as collaboration, interactivity, application, democracy, constructivism, and a sense of community. Whatever the Internet activity, students must learn how to learn in these new instructional environments, and educators must recognize how different aspects of technology influence different characteristics of adult learning.

5. Adult Learner Progress in Internet Courses

Many of the findings about student success in completing traditional distance education programs are also applicable to Internet-based courses. In comprehensive research on factors that lead to student persistence, Kember (1995) found that social and academic integration play critical roles in adult distance study success. Successful learners become socially integrated by negotiating support for their study time and resources from their employer, coworkers, family, and friends, and they take direct control and responsibility for their distance studies, working within the norms of the institution. Students become integrated academically in their distance study when they feel affiliation with the institution, share the same expectations about academic performance as faculty, take a deep approach to learning (see next paragraph), are intrinsically motivated, receive positive evaluations, and read with enjoyment and breadth. Kember (1995) outlines how distance institutions can facilitate integration by providing stronger course design, teaching, counseling, orientation, and administrative support services.

Use of new techniques in the classroom is vital because of their powerful impact upon students' learning. For example, several studies have shown that students prefer strategies promoting active learning to traditional lectures. Other research studies evaluating students' achievement have demonstrated that many strategies promoting active learning are comparable to lectures in promoting the mastery of content but superior to lectures in promoting the development of students' skills in thinking and writing. Further, some cognitive research has shown that a significant number of individuals have learning styles best served by pedagogical techniques other than lecturing. Currently, most published articles on active learning have been descriptive accounts rather than empirical investigations, many are out of date, either chronologically or methodologically, and a large number of important conceptual issues have never been explored. New qualitative and quantitative research should examine strategies that enhance students' learning from presentations; explore the impact of previously overlooked, yet educationally significant, characteristics of students, such as gender, different learning styles, or stage of intellectual development; and be disseminated in journals widely read by faculty.

Instructional designers can foster adult success in Internet courses by incorporating activities that promote the dimensions of adult learning mentioned earlier (Eastmond and Ziegahn, 1995). Additionally, they can individualize activities and assignments. Course guides should suggest strategies for learning with on-line environments and resources. Finally, courses should be designed to foster a *deep learning* approach, in which students find enjoyment and meaning in a personalized academic task that fits into a holistic view of the subject while eschewing *surface learning*, which is caused by excessively heavy workload, shallow assessment, extrinsic interest, and a lack of freedom in activities and assignments (Kember, 1995).

Effective teachers give individual attention in private messages and provide summarizing comments in the general discussion to keep the conversation on course. The virtual institution also needs to provide academic and administrative services via the Internet to help

create a sense of integration for adult learners as they progress through distance degree programs. These on-line facilities can include advisement and counseling; assessment of prior learning; on-line academic resources; book purchasing and delivery; a help center for technical, academic, and administrative concerns; career development; and admission, registration, and academic record services.

6. Conclusion

Internet based education has expanded to the Internet to the extent that in some settings the terms *distance learning* and *Web-based courses* are becoming synonymous. This learning environment provides tremendous convenience and flexibility, allowing busy, mobile adult learners to engage in education when and where they wish. Beyond its logistical advantages, the Internet holds important educational promise for engendering active and experiential learning, encouraging reflection and application, and fostering collaboration and individualized construction of meaning in teach communities that extend beyond the boundaries of the traditional classroom or campus. However, faculty, staff, administrators, institutions, and students face many challenges in taking full advantage of these learning environments. Research about Internet-based instruction indicates generally positive student response and desire for more courses of the same type. Although initial institutional efforts at Internet-based distance learning tend to be directed toward course design and faculty training, the fully established Internet institution will have to provide a broad range of academic and administrative support if it is to establish and sustain successful adult learning.

As web-based distance education becomes indispensable to higher education initiatives, it is imperative that these entities refine their distance learning programs to better serve the needs of adult learners.

Offering students an enhanced web-based learning environment will bolster the reputation of distance learning as a means of delivering quality learning experiences and of propelling distance education enrollment well into the twenty-first century.

Web-based education is a reality but it is also

a changing reality. In many universities, online education in public administration is not much more than placing a correspondence course on the web. Correspondence courses are useful but they also have well known limitations. Many online courses share those same limitations. In the rush to technology, many universities felt that placing text on a web page was the answer and they saw a cheaper way to provide higher education to more students.

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SUSTAINABLE SCHOOL: THE USE OF BLOG AS A TOOL FOR TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

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Abstract

The school-focused professional development of teachers, through processes of social interaction in a collaborative environment, is an important element for the establishment of a sustainable school. This study investigates the contribution of blog, as an online tool, to the professional development of teachers and the implementation of sustainable school practices.

Keywords: *Sustainable school, blog, professional development, ICT*

1. Introduction

The integration of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in primary schools is directly related to the training and the professional development of teachers which are considered a key prerequisite for a sustainable school. Moreover, it is necessary to adopt a decentralized logic of professional development based on practices that enhance autonomy, innovation, initiative, time management and reinforce the professional skills of teachers.

It has been noted that the school-focused professional development of teachers creates patterns and structures both at individual and school level, which contribute to lifelong learning. They further contribute to the development of sustainable practices that meet the requirements for a sustainable school and can be an important and permanent part of the school culture. However, in order to form such logic, the cooperation between the teachers of the school through processes of social interaction in a collaborative environment is much needed. The knowledge sharing, the reflection on personal practices, the collaborative culture, the exchange of views, the joint planning of activities contribute to the development of a learning community and at the same time, they fulfill the criteria of a sustainable school (Kilpatrick et al. 2003, Flogaith & Liarakou, 2009). Through this process, elements of teachers' professional development which focus on the school reality will emerge.

1.1. Professional development and sustainable school

Throughout the years, an extensive literature on the training of teachers including both

centralized and decentralized approaches has been developed. The main criticism against centralized training programs is due to the lack of clear guidance and planning, fragmentation, lack of continuity and consistency and finally and most important due to the fact that this kind of programs failed to link theory with practice (Hoban & Erickson 2004). For many researchers, these programs are characterized by an inability to promote sustainable professional development and they often fail because they do not take into account the dynamics of the school. In addition, they do not suggest ways which ensure that teachers will manage the changes in the specific circumstances in their own school (Fullan 1991). As pointed out by Shallcross (2006), centralized training, that is, the one directed from top to bottom to support the growth of the school, has proved to be a training model with serious deficiencies. In an effort to improve the situation, some scholars propose the organization of teachers' professional development in a way that it will provide opportunities for immediate and sustainable implementation in practice, monitoring of the implemented practices in the classroom, collaboration, exchange of views, knowledge sharing, joint planning of activities, development of research skills (Harris 2002). Henderson & Tilbury (2004) underline that the positive element in the course of such programs / actions is their direct relationship to the school reality and its priorities. The continuing and school-focused professional development is an important aspect for the development of teachers' capacities and skills which are incorporated gradually into their special "professional identity" with a set of activities that lead to their further development (Tillbury & Finn 2002).

1.2. Teachers' professional development and ICT

Relevant studies have shown that teachers' professional development in relation to ICT cannot be examined only as an enhancement of teachers' basic skills. It is also important to encourage their development in the direction of integrating technologies in all teaching subjects and strategies. According to Perraton et al., teachers' professional development in relation to ICT involves two types of activities and roles (Perraton et al. 2001, Mary Hooker 2009). The

first type implies that teachers will learn about ICT and its use in teaching, whereas the second implies that ICT will be used as a tool for their professional development (Collis and Moonen, 2001, Hooker 2009). As Drenoyanni (2007) puts it "this theory argues that the proper approach to the teaching of ICT literacy is holistic in nature and takes place in the context of the subjects of the curriculum".

1.2.1. Communities of learning and practice

The debate on school changes with a holistic approach began to highlight the communities of learning and practice as a result of the reform efforts in the decade of 1990 (Grossman et al. 2000, Kilbane 2010). For the sustainability of a learning community, it is necessary to ensure that its members will contact each other and that they will also meet in person and through the use of technology and the opportunities offered by the Internet. Given the lack of time for communication and interaction between the teachers in the school environment, technology can be instrumental in this direction. Although the communication exerts a formative influence on the participants, it is also very important to develop cooperation among members through exchange of views, knowledge and practices, as well as through the joint planning of activities (Schrage 1990). Furthermore, some scholars point out that a learning community should have common goals and at the same time, allow its participants to help each other, work together, and feel that they belong to the group (Hiltz & Wellman 1997, Solomonidou 2006). All the above will lead to a variety of views, knowledge sharing, as well as to a comparison of information. Besides, networked learning environments are designed to provide the framework in order to support users to learn in a collaborative community (Komis 2004).

1.2.2. Blog

Blogs can be used for collaborative learning as they provide tools for communication, commentary, sharing of ideas, as well as tools to access files of any information type, sharing of workspaces and implementation of activities (Dimitracopoulou & Petrou 2003). They also have significant features, such as time for reflection, evaluation and decision-making before the next

post or “comment” (Komis 2004). Blogs belong to this kind of technology known by the term “social software” and enable users to meet virtually, to collaborate electronically and form online communities. Most similar technologies follow a “bottom-up” approach to create communities where participation is voluntary and the identity of the members is gradually developed into the self-regulating community (Gee1996, Wenger 1999, Viglas κ.α., 2007). These new instruments create conditions for cooperation and build networks that strengthen sociality through knowledge and mutual participation in new kinds of activities (Mark, 2001, Muirhead, 2004). If a community member is not participating, it does not mean he/she has nothing to write or that he/she has no interest. Most often non-participation is due to the fact that he/she has not experienced the process of “socialization” and that he/she has not learned to interact effectively in a community. This is the key element for the success of the blog in the education process (Viglas κ.α. 2007). All these features of blogs do not only serve the professional development of teachers but also they meet the basic criteria of a sustainable school which in turn involve teaching approaches as well as a school culture and school networking.

A wave of scholars (Makri & Kynigos 2007) argue that the use of blogs in the sense that supports interaction could enhance teaching. Some of the users/ teachers who use the blog are connected through the Internet, learn from other teachers and extend their “personal learning network” through a lifelong process that includes formal and informal methods of learning. Finally, these scholars note that it is necessary to carry out further research on the potential of blogs as a practice that on the one hand, supports interaction and on the other, can promote the professional development of teachers.

2. Research

2.1. Aim of the research

The aim of this study is to investigate the potential use of blogs as a tool for teachers' professional development and the implementation of sustainable practices in the school environment, in a sense that they will last

over time and that they will keep on being enriched while complying with the characteristics of a sustainable school.

To meet the research objectives, a blog has been created and teachers started publishing common cross-curricular activities/proposals through the use of ICT as well as links to suggested websites. They were also “commenting” on posts in cooperation with the school counselor who was at the same time the researcher. Both during and after the intervention, the teachers worked together in order to create their own websites, which they used in their teaching.

2.2. Justification of the research

It has been observed many times in the educational reality that teachers deal with the changes proposed by the institutional decision-makers without attending training courses previously. The researcher from her experience as a teacher and school counselor was aware of this situation. Thus, when in May 2010, the syllabus was updated with the introduction of the module “Information and Communication Technology” for the first time in 800 pilot primary schools throughout the country, teachers were almost unprepared, that is, without substantial training of the instructors of Informatics and of all teachers who were asked to use ICT knowledge and skills in teaching subjects. The researcher was a school counselor at one of the schools that would implement the new syllabus and where the present research has been conducted. As part of her duties, she was responsible for the necessary formative interventions at the level of Regional Education for the implementation of the new curriculum. She found that there was not any possibility of implementing training activities in order to address the specific needs of teachers outside teaching hours and the time available was stiflingly limited. Therefore the actions for the professional development of all teachers of the school had to be focused in the school environment. She also found that the approach should be osmotic, i.e. with the interaction and collaborative action of the participants because at the same time, the implementation of the curriculum was something to be done.

2.3. Description of the research

Taking into account all the above, the counselor/researcher suggested that teachers should negotiate an intervention that would be implemented during the whole school year. The aim was to adapt and shape the curriculum of ICT with the participation of all teachers regardless of specialization, considering the reality of the school. For the purposes of the intervention, the use of blog as an online tool has been proposed and agreed. In particular, features such as blog posting in chronological order, links to other sites and comments on the published posts have been used.

The blog was a supportive tool of the actions taken by the learning and practice community which had been created at school through the cooperative actions of the teachers, such as the exchange of views, knowledge sharing and collaborative teaching. All teachers who participated were "authors" of the blog, which means that they were able to display their publications independently. The contents of the blog were the following: published instructional activities that have been planned jointly by the teachers of the school through the use of ICT, comments and opinions on the published posts, suggested links or/and use of them in teaching. The school counselor/researcher participated in the aforementioned actions by publishing comments, views and proposals.

In the course of the implementation, some difficulties have been experienced due to a) the lack of teachers' training in order to acquire knowledge and skills in using ICT in teaching and learning, b) the lack of the teacher's training who was serving in the school as an instructor with specialized knowledge on Informatics for the integration of ICT in teaching and c) the different levels of familiarity of teachers with ICT. To address these problems, a teacher familiar with the tool along with the teacher of Informatics and with the support of the consultant/researcher undertook to help other teachers of the school to engage and receive training. Initially, a small group of blog users has been created. In the course of the process, there was a gradual increase in the participation which turned out to be almost universal. The "diary" of the blog has revealed that the degree of involvement, as far as the posts of essays, the participation in comments and the links are

concerned, was not the same for all teachers. According to the data analysis, it is noteworthy that all teachers were frequent visitors of this blog in order to get ideas which in turn acted as a springboard for further discussions at school. Both during and after the intervention, teachers created online collaborative tools. These tools (blogs, wiki) contained teaching proposals for interdisciplinary projects which the teachers designed jointly and implemented with their pupils. As it was found by the researcher, their use has continued after the completion of the research and during the next school year.

3. Methodology

The objective of the study was to investigate the effects of blogging at: (a) the operation of learning communities, (b) the improvement and expansion of skills / competencies of teachers towards the use of ICT for educational purposes, and (c) the creation of similar collaborative web tools by teachers, of a holistic approach towards teaching and learning through the negotiation of issues that mainly concern the school environment and which are basically offered for interdisciplinary approach. The present study shows and describes only a small part of the results, particularly those related mainly to the impressions and comments of the surveyed teachers in relation to the use of the blog as a tool of communication, interaction, strengthening collaborative climate in the school.

The "case study" has been chosen as the research approach. While qualitative research is associated with the study of a school environment, the "case study" as a research strategy helps the researcher to explore and analyze systematically and in detail the interactions that occur in a particular condition in a single school, by recording the activity of the participants and the interpretations they give to it. At the heart of each case study there is a method of observation (Cohen & Manion 1997). In this study, the researcher has mainly followed the "participatory" type of observation. The researcher, being also the counselor of the school which has been selected for the purposes of the study, has engaged in the activities she attempted to observe. She was both writer and reader of the blog by posting posts and comments.

The data that have been pooled and

evaluated before, during and after the intervention consisted mainly of interviews of teachers and written documentation (blog content and content of teachers' websites). To process the data, the methodology of qualitative content analysis has been used. In Mayring's words, it is "an approach of empirical, methodological controlled analysis of texts within their context of communication, following content analytical rules and step by step models, without rash quantification" (2000). Qualitative Content Analysis gave greater significance to in-depth investigation of the material. It retained the advantages of quantitative analysis but it progressed further to qualitative-interpretative analysis (Mayring 2000a, Pagourelia & Papadopoulou 2009).

4. Research data

From the qualitative content analysis of the data, the following results have arisen:

Communication

The blog facilitates communication in terms of functions of the learning community that had developed at school. It helps keeping the "warm" communication within the learning community, as it enables its members to communicate online without local and time constraints. Moreover, the blog can act as a springboard for someone who is reluctant to communicate in person and thus, it gives him/her the opportunity of having a first contact by posting teaching suggestions or/and links, enhancing his/her socialization. The young teachers seem more enthusiastic to use the blog, maybe because they are more familiar with technology. Some of the oldest are hesitant but even though they characterize the tool "impersonal", they state that it supports communication.

Collaborative climate

Facilitating communication seems to have contributed to the support of collaborative climate that had already emerged in the community of learning. As noted by the teachers who participated in the survey, the blog contributes to the maintenance and development of a collaborative environment by offering the opportunity to publish and monitor the process of joint planning activities. To some teachers, the blog offered

the motivation for involvement in the planning of ICT, but also for participation in the learning community by adopting the common target of the group"

Confidence

The blog also helps strengthening the confidence of young teachers through the process of publishing plans or proposals. This statement has been mainly highlighted by the young teachers of the school, who then participated actively online and in person at school.

Sharing ideas

The feeling of safety by enhancing their self-confidence had led to an increase of posts with ideas, teaching suggestions. The majority of the participants claimed that there was an exchange of ideas and proposals for the planning and implementation of teaching activities with ICT. It was a "trigger", as they used to say about their involvement, but it was also a stepping stone for discussion and reflection on various practices in person when they had available time as well as at school.

Experiential learning

The blog has helped improve and expand the skills of teachers on the use and application of ICT because they have familiarized themselves with the online tools and with the interaction they have acquired knowledge and skills in planning activities with ICT. Getting more familiar with an online tool and its collaborative possibilities, teachers put forward, during the intervention and after its completion, a common planning of similar websites with content that approached teaching and learning holistically.

5. Conclusions

The first results showed that the use of ICT makes it possible to develop a collaborative environment even when the conditions are not conducive at school. The blog contributes to the operation of learning communities, in terms of communication, socialization, cooperation, interaction, knowledge sharing, motivation for commitment to the common goal of the community, expansion of community members. Additionally, it helps teachers to become more

familiar with online collaborative tools and improve their skills in order to use ICT. It is an incentive for creating websites that will be used for the joint planning and implementation of interdisciplinary work plans with the pedagogical use of ICT. In a review for programs related to education for sustainable development worldwide, Henderson & Tilbury (2004) argue that the key element of a sustainable school is the continuing professional development of teachers through collaborative reflection processes that transform future actions.

From the analysis it becomes evident that through such procedures, it is possible to enhance a positive atmosphere at school and a collaborative culture that will contribute to the emergence of school-focused professional development in terms of knowledge, skills, reflection and meditation of personal practices and the creation of a school context that will support the learning community. According to the findings of the research, it is also noted that the use of blog may contribute to the professional development of teachers and the emergence of such practices which can be sustainable in terms of the characteristics of sustainable schools and of continuity, duration, and future enrichment.

Note: Teachers' websites can be found at:

- <http://aboutsea.wordpress.com>
- <http://olastintaxi.blogspot.com>
- <http://dimgalat.blogspot.com>

The intervention blog is not publishable at the moment as it is being processed for the purposes of a PhD thesis.

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APPENDIX

Communication

- "... I visit the blog while I am at home at night after 10... because I have family obligations. It is very convenient because the blog is available at any time, so you can sign in, add something, use information... shape it with the other users".
- "... For me it is important for a colleague to sign in and just say hello..."
- "... We make a post just to say hello, we (the younger teachers) are familiar with the blog in general..."
- "... I feel that is impersonal, but it is useful as an adjunct to communication ..."

Collaborative climate

- "The blog has helped to develop cooperation at school to some extent..."
- "The blog has facilitated the process of joint planning activities because it acted as a compass..."
- "... I would say that I am very familiar with ICT, but it is the first time I follow the process of creating and developing cooperative activities , there is always something to learn..."

Confidence

- "... I am sure it will go very well". "Besides, the pupils in the 6th year of their studies have used Microsoft Excel at beginner's level in order to create a game... they have also made a graph with Yannis and Martha... so, I think they are ready to proceed to the next activity ..."
- "... I was told that they have been helped and have dealt with the material I have posted and I am really happy..."

Sharing ideas

- "... A post can act as a springboard for a new discussion at school, that's good ..."
- "...The blog helped to get ideas from each other and communicate..."

Experiential learning

- "... I spent a lot of time but I have learned a lot through this opportunity... Both we and our pupils became familiar with this procedure"
- "...I realized things that I haven't thought, if you don't involve..."
- "... You can chat and collaborate for basic things such as where to type the password in order to sign in, but also for other things such as how to post and how to enter a comment and in general how to make the most out of it..."
- "... I would like to continue next year... it would be good to have a common theme and approach it holistically within school".

WHY TECHNOLOGY IN SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING (SLT)?

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Abstract

The present study has the double aim of raising the awareness of the relevant actors with regards to the potential of IT as a powerful means of enhancing the effectiveness of SLT and of determining the right balance needed for a harmonious integration of IT with more traditional methods and techniques in the teaching process. We attempt to give an answer to such questions as: "Is digital technology needed in SLT? Does the value of using IT depend on the context?" The answers given are grounded on the well-supported pronouncements of the contemporary literature dealing with the subject and on data that have an institutional backing reflecting the experience of some advanced countries. Further on a presentation of the opinions and practice of the high-school teachers of foreign languages in Korca, collected through a questionnaire, will be followed by a critical assessment of the results, together with suggestions on how teachers can avoid some of the pitfalls that attend the application of IT in a foreign language class. A synthesis of the dimensions opened up by the integration of IT in the teaching process will conclude this article, highlighting its importance as a means of relating the language classroom to the modern world.

Keywords: *Information Technology (IT), pedagogical tool, integration, technophobia, authentic material, distance learning*

1. Introduction

In our daily experience and professional routine we hear more and more often expressions such as 'we live in the Net Generation', 'challenges of the information society', 'welcome to the digital epoch', etc., that, to the ear of both scholars and common people, do not sound like metaphors anymore, but represent a living reality throughout the globe.

The Internet technology has hardly left any sector of modern life untouched. The teaching field as well is facing the challenges of IT tool implementation. In this new context, the demand for the application of IT in Second Language Teaching presents a lot of complex

issues that need a solution.¹

Within this framework, this research intends to analyze and assess the role of IT in Second Language Teaching (SLT) in order to determine a necessary balance for the integration of IT as a pedagogical tool in the SLT process measuring all possible advantages and disadvantages of it in comparison with the traditional SLT methods.

Furthermore, this study aims at raising the social conscience of actors – trainers, teachers, learners, education policy-makers of the potential of ICT and the limitless options it offers to increase the efficiency of foreign language learning.

On a larger scale, this analytical research is meant to contribute to the major goal of intercultural global education perceiving Internet technology in SLT as an enhancer of the harmonious development of learners' and teachers' identity and personality in a dynamic multilingual multicultural social context to promote citizens' cohabitation in a complex information society.

2. Analytical examination of ICT role in SLT by recent studies

Contemporary studies on this topic emphasize three major trends that are promoted by the implementation of ICT as a powerful communication tool in SLT as described below:

2.1. Intercultural communication

"The cornerstone of sociocultural/sociocognitive approaches to computer-assisted language learning research and practice is the capacity of technology to serve as a means of facilitating human interaction and communication."² Ever since networked technologies became increasingly popularized in the 1990-s, they have helped connect people to information emphasizing people-to-people links. The Internet

has expanded the potential for interactive participation through various forms of social networking, (co)authoring, publishing, etc.

But no matter how entertaining such programs may be, or how large their capacity is in mediating intercultural communication, the exploration of the limitless online universe might pose great difficulties to both language teachers and students, who should not merely be familiar with this technology, but also be able to conceive the complicated sociocultural context where it takes place/occurs in order to relieve possible cultural tensions during the teaching process.

In the same research, Steve Thorne supports the view that despite the same functioning of internet technology across different cultures, variations have been identified in their '*cultures-of-use*'³ - a term which depicts the manner how technology is used and perceived in various social contexts. Such phenomena occur primarily due to different perspectives of estimating the study of foreign language across cultures, secondly, as a result of the diversity of previous experiences of electronic communication, complicating the intercultural communication mediated by the Internet.

2.2. Sociolinguistic and pragmatic development

A lot of researchers regard communication through technology as a promoter and developer of the sociolinguistic and sociopragmatic features of discourse. More specifically, the free use of 'real information' by students compared to the data offered by the foreign language textbook raises their awareness of the existence of informal language varieties and registers traditionally absent from their text materials. Thus, the number of options of Internet technology-mediated discourse at students' disposal increases significantly. Moreover, learners can be involved in constant and prolonged communication with native speakers. During this type of communication learners also develop their sociopragmatic competence, an example of which are the cases of correct formal and informal addressing forms among second language learners and native speaker peers. Such

¹ For a more detailed presentation of the technology evolution through decades in SLT see Remi A. van Compernelle and Lawrence Williams, "(Re)situating the Role(s) of New Technologies in World-Language Teaching and Learning", in *Second Language Teaching and Learning in the Net Generation*, edited by Raquel Oxford and Jeffrey Oxford, Honolulu, National Foreign Language Resource Center, 2009, p. 11.

² Richard Kern and Mark Warschauer, "Introduction: Theory and practice of network-based language teaching", in *Network-based language teaching: Concepts and practice*, edited by Richard Kern and Mark Warschauer, Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, 2000, p. 1-19.

³ Steve Thorne, "Artifacts and cultures-of-use in intercultural communication", *Language Learning and Technology*, 7(2), p. 38-67.
<http://ilt.msu.edu/vol7num2/thorne/default.html>

'linguistic exchanges' create a context in which the social consequences of wrong usages enable learners to perceive the respective social meanings of the corresponding form of address.

2.3. Online communication and linguistic accuracy

Beyond developing sociolinguistic and sociopragmatic competence, the new technology promotes linguistic accuracy, a product usually regarded by learners as the main aim of education in a foreign language. From a sociocultural point of view, this dimension has gained a new meaning, which mainly refers to learners' participation in communicative exchanges using online tools. During such sessions native speakers, who provide peer assistance, together with second language learners remark on each-other's language uses, comment on, analyze and evaluate their own language product, etc, which certainly contributes to the improvement of formal linguistic accuracy among foreign language students.

According to recent studies, the use of *Learner Corpus Analysis* (which consists of focusing students' attention on their own errors) is seen as fruitful in enhancing learners' concentration upon their extensive and accurate language development. Furthermore, the study of Paige Daniel Ware and Robert O'Dowd⁴ observed the impact of peer feedback on language development among American learners of Spanish and Spanish learners of English. The survey indicated that all students experienced positive feelings about the corrective feedback from the native e-peer. This finding has broad implications for the further development of linguistic accuracy during collaboration online.

Further arguments and estimates concerning the ever-increasing attention to ICT in SLT come from the American Foreign Service Institute, who advocate the fact that Second Language Acquisition is both an intensive and time-consuming activity. This institute, after years of experience in training field agents, estimates that the SLA at a high level of fluency needs from 700 to 1300 hours of instruction, which means that

four years of language study at university do not suffice to achieve functional proficiency.⁵ Still, for those students who started studying a foreign language at high school and continued it at university, the situation is not bright at all, since, first of all, plenty of work done at university level simply revises the knowledge acquired at high school, in addition, high levels of language proficiency need not less than 4-6 years of full instruction depending on the range and nature of the linguistic material obtained.

Another concern of SLA researchers and teachers goes to the inefficiency of the learning process due to poor insufficient information. They believe the language learning process can be made efficient only by raising contacts with the target language. Following this perspective, going to the region where the target language is spoken, 'plunging' in its cultural and social reality is certainly the most favorite but also most expensive option. (Statistics show that less than 3% of students in the world study abroad on academic programs.⁶) In such a context, SLA theorists believe in the limitless capacities of IT in fostering learners' contacts with SL, which, if used wisely, could well replace the necessity to study abroad. The fact whether ICT fulfils this mission or not, depends on the way it is integrated in the SL curriculum.

The ways how IT tools are used must be governed by a specific theoretical model. In the net generation significant support has been given to the so-called *interactionist model* of SLA (a theory strongly supported by Pica, Kanagy and Falodun)⁷, which relies on the principle that SL is best learned through social interaction emphasizing possible errors during learners' efforts to communicate and comprehend each-other's meanings in the social learning environment. The nature of ICT tools is heterogeneous, meaning that different tools have different benefits. The most ideal and popular one nowadays is the Internet – the icon

⁴ Paige Daniel Ware and Robert O'Dowd, "Peer feedback on language form in telecollaboration", *Language Learning and Technology*, 12(1), p. 43-63.
<http://llt.msu.edu/vol12num1/wareodowd/default.html>

⁵ More detailed figures by the American Foreign Service Institute are quoted in Robert J. Blake, *Brave New Digital Classroom – Technology and Foreign Language Learning*, Washington D.C., George Town University Press, 2008, p. 1-2.

⁶ *ibid.*, p.2.

⁷ T. Pica, R. Kanagy and J. Falodun, "Choosing and using communication tasks for second language instruction, in *Tasks and language learning: Integrating theory and practice*, edited by G. Crookes dhe S. M. Gass, Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, 1993, p. 11.

of IT, which gives students access to authentic materials in the target language or offers them the possibility to virtually travel to the region where the language is spoken only by a mouse click.

This sense of authenticity is further evident since the Internet provides an outlet for everybody to raise one's voice, promote one's self-image and legitimize one's goals. Robert J. Blake, in a recent study, strongly advocates Internet advantages when he identifies IT as a text-based medium that amplifies students' attention to linguistic form, a stimulus for SL production, a safe and nonthreatening form for SL discussions, especially for women and minorities, an expanded access channel with possibilities for creating global learning networks.⁸ Meanwhile, scientific research shows that network exchanges help learners enroll more often in the communicative learning process, experience more pleasure and become more self-confident rather than similar students in traditional SL classes.

The same resource indicates that 84% of teenagers today – the college learners of tomorrow use the Internet primarily as a tool for communication through instant and text messaging.⁹ This shows that such an activity is both a familiar and a favourite tool for them.

From a practical perspective, the American Department of Education observes a few educational benefits of IT extending use in SLT. As figures denote, there has been reported an ever-increasing enrollment pressure (with 25% from 1990-2004) in public schools, they tend to face an additional increase with 15% within a few years.¹⁰ The high flux of students complicates the normal functioning of school institutions (class teaching), thus, in the future SL instruction is expected to take place at a distance, which will offer a reasonable solution to the majority of language learners who can't have a seat in the language real classroom (even though class experience won't be diminished).

According to the same department, in higher levels of education, especially professors of literature express a serious complaint regarding their language programs, which are too weak to prepare students to read the original, meanwhile

reading them in translation does nothing to further students' SL proficiency.

On the other hand, especially for less-known foreign languages, another curricular problem appears – the need for qualitative pedagogical materials at all levels of proficiency, which remains unsolved due to low commercial profit margins at the publishing houses, asked to produce very limited copies of print materials. Technology can serve as a solution in this case by creating and offering online materials to students at all levels responding to their needs.

Finally, other data indicate that most institutions of higher education are affected by a prevalent student trend to gravitate toward courses that deal with either culture or language rather than literature¹¹. But such departments can recapture students' interest by integrating technology capacities in SL culture courses supplementing and enriching them with art and literature knowledge available in the form of web materials.

A lot of studies¹² highlight the constant fear of many people in general and teachers in particular from ICT due to the insufficient information they have about it. With the increasing presence of the Internet the term '*technophobe*' has appeared to describe this category of teachers, a lot of whom have had successful careers with students. It is believed that they misconceive the role and place of technology considering it a methodology detached from the language learning process, and, as such, it is immediately refused. Others hold an incorrect view as if the technology of today is all we need to know, as if it is sufficient for us to face tomorrow's challenges. The fact that technology changes day by day creates another barrier to other teachers, who complain they won't be able to keep up with such rapid and sudden changes. While some others fear the "nightmare" that tomorrow's technology will replace teachers' work. These 'phobias' keep teachers away from technological innovations and from recognizing the benefits of using IT in class.

⁸ Robert J. Blake, *Brave New Digital Classroom*, p. 4.

⁹ *ibid*, p. 5.

¹⁰ The abovementioned data are quoted in Robert J. Blake, *Brave New Digital Classroom*, p. 5-8.

¹¹ *ibid*, p. 7.

¹² *ibid*, p. 8-14.

3. A case study with foreign language teachers in the district of Korça Research questions and methodology

Following our methodological approach to base the arguments about the use of technology in Albanian schools on a firm empirical basis a survey was carried out in 2011 with 16 foreign language teachers in the high schools of Korça district. The method of collecting the data was through a questionnaire completion (available in the appendix).

The research questions were:

- Internet access and frequency of use
- Electronic competence and rate of ICT integration in the curriculum
- The rate of institutional support provided
- Teachers' attitudes, difficulties and future expectations regarding the use of ICT

In this article we will merely focus upon the examination of teachers' attitudes, difficulties and future expectations regarding the possible integration of Internet tools in SLT. A thorough analysis of the questionnaire results, with regard to all issues and questions appearing in it, will be the object of a new specific article related with the contemporary profile of foreign language teachers facing IT challenges.

After closely reflecting upon teachers' comments and concerns, a few recommendations for future work have been made.

4. A synthetic discussion of teachers' attitudes to IT in SLT

At this stage, it is crucial to examine teachers' attitudes to IT in SLT, since they have a more immediate and concrete perspective on it. It is important not to raise unrealistic expectations regarding the possible contribution of technology in the foreign language curriculum, because, what is encountered in teachers' circles often contradicts theoretical research and statistics. For truth's sake, teachers generally distrust the new technology and are unwilling to learn more about its application and benefits in the SLT process. Why does this happen and do teachers have the right to hold such views?

The results of our questionnaire show that only a small number of teachers result to have expressed promising attitudes, while the

majority's attitudes converge with what we have quoted from the resources.¹³ Here are the most frequent complaints of the foreign language teachers asked in our survey:

1. I have never had a single English class in the computer room, because the school director has programmed it for the subject of Computer Science only. (18%)
2. I haven't been trained about technology. (82% of the teachers questioned)
3. I am afraid that I know less than my students and there is a terrible embarrassment when it comes to using IT in class. (22%)
4. Our coursebook materials are excellent, let's use them, I see no space for ICT in teaching French. (18%)
5. Technology makes me feel uncomfortable in class, that's why I don't even imagine using it with learners. (22%)
6. Preparing materials for a class with technology takes plenty of time. You can't do it very often. We have to teach 5 classes each day, it's impossible. (65%)
7. How can I possibly use technology as I have to teach in classes with approximately 40 teenage students? (80%)
8. There is a basic need for infrastructural investment in our schools. (42%)

Certainly, such attitudes are real especially in the Albanian society at this time of transition and need to be considered. But there is something basic that these teachers still lack, that would make a big difference – it is the unclear information they have about technology as a socially inevitable supporter helping to increase contacts in the foreign language and culture. We are of the opinion that it is high time our society overcame this barrier if we really want to move forward with the rest of the world. With the good intention to help people become conscious of ICT advantages and encourage teachers to get started with simple technology tools in class, we are trying to respond to the abovementioned concerns expressed in the questionnaire offering some reflective practical solution.

With regard to the first problem, we suggest that teachers' staff must negotiate and plan the

¹³ See teachers' questionnaire attached to this article.

use of computer room well in advance to leave scope to all teachers and subjects to design lessons/projects when they need to.

As far as the second complaint is concerned, it is very frequently heard by teachers, but, as a matter of fact, everybody knows how to use the email or the Internet and this knowledge is enough to get started with technology in the classroom.

The third remark is often true for teachers who may have received no instruction in the use of technology. However, having learners in the class who know more about technology than teachers do is something profitable, because teachers can rely on this group of students for help and support, encouraging and motivating such learners to exhibit their skills and knowledge in this area.

In response to the fourth issue, the use of technology in class does not replace using traditional materials (the board, the coursebook), rather, technology tools are used to complement and foster classroom work following the textbook topics of discussion, e.g.: the topic on sources of energy can be supplemented with various online technology-mediated activities, such as: projects, forums discussion, etc.

Fear from technology is often expressed by teachers who have had negative experiences with technology in the past, therefore, the best way to address the situation is to make them aware that they already possess some technical skills by using technology in their own lives, and encourage them to get started by applying simple tools. Their engagement in training workshops or online courses would certainly lead to technology acceptance in the long term. Technical problems with technology are rather frequent and something normal, that is why teachers should always be prepared to come to class with a second teaching plan, to avoid class failure in case of technical setbacks.

Collaboration and discussions among teachers at school and in forums as well as the use of technology resources provided by most coursebooks nowadays are necessary in helping teachers create additional materials more easily.

Finally, a suggestion can be given to those teachers who teach overloaded classes – to divide the class in two, ask one group to work on the computer as the other group does some written task, and then swap activities.

5. Advantages and disadvantages of IT in teaching foreign languages

The following is a summing up of what we consider to be some of the major advantages and disadvantages of using IT in teaching foreign languages:¹⁴

1. The integration of IT in the teaching process provides the teachers and students with a wide range of authentic materials that they can use in class. Such reference sources as online dictionaries, translation programs and encyclopedias are of great help in the process of teaching reading skills. The Internet can be used to provide free of charge access to newspapers, magazines reviews and all sorts of materials that can be of use in the language classroom.
2. The Internet can be used as a most valuable communication network. The advantages that the global network of communication brings to the foreign language classroom as a great opportunity for interaction among students or between students and teachers are almost too obvious to mention.
3. IT provides students with various means and techniques for the development of language skills. Special programs can be downloaded for the improvement of speaking, reading, and writing skills. Using IT as a means of teaching a foreign language enhances the students' communication abilities by situating them in a real communication environment where they can exchange messages with one-another in the language they are studying.
4. The internet has made possible a radically new approach to acquiring a foreign language: Teaching/Learning at a distance. The value of learning at a distance for those students who can't

¹⁴ The advantages and disadvantages of the Internet technology in SLT have widely been treated by a great number of researchers. Among various works on this topic, special interest pose the articles of M. Warschauer (see Mark Warschauer, "Computer-mediated collaborative learning: Theory and practice", *Modern Language Journal*, Cambridge, Vol. 81(3), 1997, p. 470-481; also see, M. Warschauer and D. Healy, *Computers and language learning: an overview*, Language Teaching, Cambridge 31, 1998, p. 57-71.

afford to study abroad and thus gain a first-hand knowledge of the language and culture they are exploring cannot be overestimated.

5. Technology can be used to bring us into a more immediate contact with the culture of the people whose language we are studying. As the learning of a foreign language is a complex socio-cultural phenomenon getting to know better the culture of the native speakers of the language is a great help to the learning process.
6. The Internet can be a great motivation for the achievement of learning objectives. It has been proved that the students who use the Internet with a learning objective are more active and productive than those who don't.

Together with the advantages we should not overlook some of the obstacles that attend the use of IT when teaching a foreign language.

1. Having a free and unlimited access to the internet is not a matter to be taken for granted in countries like Albania where considerations of a financial character do not allow maximum efficiency in its use by teachers and students (installing the Internet in schools or training teachers on how to make the best use of it in class can be quite costly).
2. Sometimes navigating the net with the purpose of finding what you need for the lesson can be a frustrating experience for a number of reasons, ranging from the inability to read and comprehend what is on the screen to being overwhelmed by an overabundance of information which the teacher or student finds it difficult to swift through.
3. Technical problems, such as the slowing down of the net, can have a very negative impact on the achievement of the objectives planned for the lesson.
4. The extensive use of IT in teaching a language entails a paradigmatic shift in the way the teaching process is conducted and the respective roles that teachers and students assume. In the new environment provided by IT the teacher is no longer a final authority on knowledge but rather a guide and a

facilitator of the learning process. The students, on their part, assume greater responsibility by becoming more active and autonomous. These radical changes in the way the whole network of relationships in a foreign language class is conceived can be confusing and unsettling for traditionally minded teachers used to the old teaching/learning stereotypes.

6. Conclusion

As a conclusion, we should assert that with all the obstacles and difficulties involved, the advantages that the use of IT brings to the teaching of foreign languages are too important to ignore its use in the classroom. The challenge is, first, to find the right balance between the new IT based methods of teaching and the traditional ones by integrating into a coherent whole the best things that each approach has to offer. Second, to make it possible for both teachers and students to fulfill the new roles demanded by this new learning environment - the teachers should prepare themselves for a continuous course of technical and professional training, while the students can benefit from technology only if the activities that it is used to serve are congenial to their interests and needs.

The use of ICT as a communication tool provides opportunities and challenges for SLT. These challenges require a more accurate and argument-based perception of ICT role in this process. Considering this approach, we regard technology not as an isolated phenomenon detached from the foreign language teaching practices (this would be nonsense and would have serious consequences upon language learning), but as a pedagogical tool the value of which is determined by the application of it in response to the concrete pedagogical class objectives. As such, we believe that technology must not be separated from the rest of the classroom, since it forms a crucial part of a broader cohesive multidimensional approach to SLT.

This is what Helena Meyer, teacher of English and specialist trainer for the teaching of foreign languages, says about the use of IT in the foreign language classroom:¹⁵

¹⁵ Helena Meyer, in response to Pete Sharma "Controversies

'Yes, technology is here to stay -- nobody can deny this. Our kids... breathe it, eat with it, sleep with it... And blind resistance will take us nowhere. On the other hand, uncritical adoption of technology just because it's fashionable might lead to unprincipled teaching -- which, in my opinion, is the greatest sin of all...

As a teacher, I try to use the technology I have available, in a balanced way, but if I'm teaching in a situation where technology is not part of the resources I have, I go back to the 'old ways', with no loss of quality...

As a trainer, I come across teachers who have already jumped in the band-wagon, and won't teach a single class without a fancy technological device. And also deal with those who say: "I'm a good teacher and have done without it all my life, so why bother to change?" To both, I encourage a review of beliefs, and, as you well mentioned, to think about sound pedagogical reasons for using (or not) technology...'

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APPENDIX

TEACHER'S QUESTIONNAIRE¹

1. Are you familiar with IT?

2. Estimate your personal electronic competence. (from 1 to 4 in ascending order)

3. What is the place of IT in your daily work? (with students, colleagues, etc.)

4. What activities do you apply IT for?

5. To accomplish tasks with students I have used:
 - Email
 - Word processor (Word)
 - Chat
 - Blog, wiki, podcast
 - Website
 - Online references (dictionaries, encyclopedias, etc)
 - Videoconferences, etc
6. Is there collaboration among colleagues within and beyond school? Specify.

7. Are you aware of the legislation and initiatives for the integration of IT in SLT in Albania?

8. Have you ever been trained by your institution for IT use?

9. Estimate the technological infrastructure at your school. (from 0 to 10)

10. Are you for or against the use of IT in SLT in and beyond the classroom?

11. Mention some advantages of applying IT in acquiring English (other languages)

12. Are there disadvantages? What deters the implementation of IT in the Albanian context?

13. What is the impact of the Internet on the kind of English (other languages) students learn?

14. Your vision about the nature of SLT in the future. Do you fear losing your job in the future as a result of the increasing presence of IT in the language learning process?

¹ This questionnaire has been translated into English by me personally. The final results of it will serve to a broader study targeting the integration of IT in SLT in our region.



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A COMPARATIVE INSIGHT INTO ENGLISH AND ALBANIAN SET PHRASES

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Abstract

It is well known that speakers do not use words in isolation but within the frame of discourse. Words vary their meanings according to different collocations they have in discourse at the moment they are used. When these collocations are lexicalized they become set phrases (idioms), which have particular meanings in a given language. Because of their particular meanings, these phrases are very difficult to be taught and learned, especially from one language to another. Albanian teachers teaching ESL to Albanian students encounter a lot of difficulties when it comes to these set phrases. This article includes an introductory section about set phrases or expressions or idioms in general. Then what follows is a general overview of how these phrases are presented in English textbooks (Masterclass series) of different levels for Albanian learners of English as a second language. Several issues and problems that are related with their teaching will be mentioned and in the end we try to give some suggestions and recommendations.

Keywords: *set phrases, English, Albanian, teaching*

1. Introduction

Speakers of a language do not use its words in isolation but inside the frame or “in the web” of discourse (Naciscione 2001). Words vary their meanings according to different collocations they have in discourse at the moment these words are used. When these collocations are lexicalized they become phraseological units, or set expressions (phrases) or idioms. An idiom is considered as a complex word-equivalent in which the globality of nomination reigns supreme over the formal separability of elements.¹

The vocabulary of a language is enriched not only by words but also by phraseological units. There are many definitions and diverse views about them. This is also related with the terms used to name them as set expressions or idioms as they are called by different researchers. From now on we are going to call them as set phrases because we are considering the ones which have the structure of phrases. Usually they are defined

¹ <http://www.ranez.ru/article/id/391>

as word-groups that cannot be made in the process of speech; they exist in the language as ready-made units. The same as words they express a single notion and are used in a sentence as one part of it.²

Despite differences of opinion, most authors agree upon some points concerning the distinctive features of set phrases such as:

- Integrity (or transference) of meaning means that none of the idiom components is separately associated with any referents of objective reality, and the meaning of the whole unit cannot be deduced from the meanings of its components. The phrase *by heart* tells us nothing about its real meaning that has nothing to do with its parts. *Bie sheqeri në ujë* (sugar drops into water) has a total different meaning from what its components mean. The meaning of the whole unit is *nuk e ke me nxitim* (you do not have to hurry).
- Stability (lexical and grammatical) means that no lexical substitution is possible in an idiom in comparison with free or variable word-combinations (with an exception of some cases when such substitutions are made by the author intentionally). If we say *green thumb*, we cannot substitute *green* with *blue* or *red*, neither can we use *finger* instead of *thumb* because the meaning would be destroyed. In Albanian there is no equivalent phrase to be used.
- Separability means that the structure of an idiom is not something indivisible, certain modifications are possible within certain boundaries. If we consider *bite one's nails* we can notice that the verb can change according to different grammatical categories just like the other verbs, e.g. *bites*, is *biting*, would *bite* etc., or one's can be *my*, *his*, *her* etc. the phrase is the same in Albanian, *të kafshosh thonjtë* and is used in the same way with the proper modifications.
- Expressivity and emotiveness means that idioms are also characterized by stylistic colouring. In other words, they evoke emotions or add expressiveness. A hard act to follow is much more expressive

than just saying *hardworking*. Or in Albanian when we use *bëj një vrimë në ujë* we are emphasizing the fact that somebody did nothing (*asgjë*) and it is much more effective.

On the whole phraseological units, even if they present a certain pattern, do not generate new phrases. They are unique.³

2. Text Analysis

In the text *First Certificate Masterclass* (Haines & Stewart 2008) there are included a lot of exercises about phrasal verbs. In fact, many phrasal verbs are idiomatic – in that their meanings are not easily unpacked from their component parts (Thornbury, 2002). All the exercises about them are included under the section of vocabulary. Most of them are of the same kind and the requests usually are: *Replace the words or phrases with the correct form of bring and one of the particles from the list*, (p. 15) or *Replace the verbs in italic in these sentences with the correct form of the phrasal verb from this list*. (pg. 16) But there are also other types of exercises which relate them to the text and then trying to find their meanings by replacing them or sometimes the students are supposed to match the phrasal verbs with their meanings which are given in a list and then trying to complete the sentences with the correct form of the phrasal verb with *give* (p. 27) in this case. Another exercise requires from the students to choose the correct word to complete the phrasal verbs in the sentences, for instance: *He always turns to / into his manager for advice on what to do*, (pg. 48) and the like. Another type of exercise, which I find interesting is that the students are supposed to discuss some questions that include phrasal verbs, for instance: *After you have checked in for a flight, what do you usually do?*, or *Do you like people to come to the station or airport to see you off?* (p. 63) In this way, not only do they recognize the meaning of the proper phrasal verb but they also know how to use it based on their own experience, which will help them to remember the meanings of these phrasal verbs. In Albanian *check in* has become very usual. For the expression *see somebody off* we use a single

²<http://uareferat.com/ukr/details/1314>

³ For more information see <http://www.inst.at/trans/14Nr/arsentyeva14.htm>

word *përcjell*. If you don't know what a word means, **look** it _____, is another exercise which expects the students to complete the phrasal verbs with an appropriate word. (p. 74) One of the most effective exercises is the one which makes students transform sentences without changing their meanings, but using the word given, for example: *While he was clearing out the car, my father found my camera., came, My father _____ my camera while he was ...* (p. 100) Workbook, which accompanies the Student's Book contains a lot of exercises with phrasal verbs like the ones that I mentioned above and having more or less the same requests. There is one exercise which has to do with body idioms, and this is the only one where the word 'idiom' is mentioned. The request of the exercise is that the students have to choose the correct part of the body from the list to fill in the idioms in italic in the sentences, e.g. *I can't remember her name – it's driving me mad – it's on the tip of my _____*, so the students have to choose the word *tongue* from the list to have the idiom *it's on the tip of my tongue*. The problem is that there is no information of what an idiom is. It is supposed that the students already know what it is or the teacher has to explain it. And in fact, this is what I did with my students. I explained what an idiom is and while having the exercise I also tried to make them think on the equivalent set phrase in Albanian, which have a lot of similarities with body idioms in English, e.g. *e kam në majë të gjuhës* or *give one's right arm / të japësh krahun e djathtë, twist somebody around one's little finger / e vërtit në majë të gishtave*, but *a real pain in the neck* does not have an equivalent phrase in Albanian.

On the other hand, the text *Advanced Masterclass CAE* (Aspinall & Capel, 1996) contains less exercises with set phrases, either phrasal verbs or idioms. It is mentioned that although phrasal verbs may sometimes be used in formal writing, they are much more common in informal texts. So the students have to decide which of the words of phrases in bold best complete each sentence, e.g. *I'm really exhausted – think I'll **turn in / retire** for the night.* (p. 16) This type of exercise is very effective because it makes students know the meaning of the phrasal verb, which is given, but also the proper context where it can be used. Another exercise requires from the students to create

different phrasal verb by combining the verbs *run, take, make, set, break* with the particles *up* and *out*. Then they have to fit the most suitable phrasal verb into the gapped sentences by choosing the appropriate tense as well. (p. 51) Some phrasal verbs are taken from an article and the students have to work out their meanings in context. (p. 93) The expression *The Rat Race* is mentioned as the title of the structure section but the meaning is not explained at all. (p. 96) The students have to work the meaning out themselves because it is not given in context or the teacher has to explain it (this is what I did with my students). In this text we can also find the use of phrasal verbs under the section of listening from which they have to identify the phrasal verbs and also compare them with others which seem similar, e.g. different uses of *go on* in different contexts. (p. 130) Another exercise includes expressions with *get*, which means not just phrasal verbs. (p. 163) The other exercise is about phrasal verbs as well but I find it very helpful because they are given in context. In fact, these phrasal verbs like *throw in, roll up, heat up, turn up, check out* have more than one meaning and the students are given examples to work on them. (p. 178)

The other text we have referred to is *Proficiency Masterclass* (Gude & Duckworth, 1994). In it we find exercises with different requests from the ones we mentioned above. The terms 'idiom' or 'idiomatic expressions' are used regularly, although there is no explanation or definition of what they are. We find requests as matching the idiom with its proper explanation. (p. 3) They include idioms like *a couch potato, a new broom, a rolling stone*, etc., which are connected with different kinds of people. In Albanian we do not have phrases equivalent with these. We also find requests which make students be creative like writing short dialogues with the expressions and acting them out in front of the class or trying to sketch illustrations to show what the idiom means in a humorous way. (p. 3) There is an exercise that includes expressions connected with *time* trying to fit them with the underlined words in the sentences given. (p. 16) Of the same kin are the exercises with include expressions with *luck* (p. 37) and *weather* (p. 38). We also find exercises where rewriting is required, e.g. *The disagreement is a lot of fuss about nothing.* The students have to rewrite it by using the word *teacup* without

changing the meaning, which makes them think to use the expression *a storm in a teacup*. (p. 42) (*shumë zhurmë për asgjë*) Exercises with phrasal verbs are also included, e.g. with the verb *tie* (p. 45), or *run, look, catch/to be caught* (p. 61), *take* (p. 91) and *help* (p. 97)

There is another exercise about idioms connected with reading and words (p. 107). One word from each expression is missing but the correct explanation is given, e.g. *read between the _____*. (*të lexosh mes rreshtave*) So the students have to fill the blank space by choosing to use the word *lines*, and so on with the other examples. But idioms are also found in speaking activities, e.g. students copy an idiom or expressions from what they remember onto a separate piece of paper then try to illustrate its meaning by drawing so that the other students can guess its meaning. This activity is funny, creative and helpful at the same time. (p. 111) Another exercise includes alternatives (p. 129), e.g. *I'm opting out of the _____ race and going to live on a small farm in the country side*. The students have to choose from A *horse* B *dog* C *rat* D *cat and mouse*. In fact, there are a lot of other exercises, but we are not going to mention all of them because they are more or less the same with the types already mentioned.

Workbook also contains a lot of exercises with set expressions. The requests are almost the same like filling the blank spaces, transformations or rewriting, explaining the meaning of the phrases from the text, etc. There are also included exercises with drawings which help students guess the meaning of the words to complete the expressions, e.g. there are given drawings of an armchair, a book, a blanket, leaf, etc. so that the students can complete the expressions given: *He's a real wet (blanket)*. *The children have turned over a new (leaf) and are getting down to work with some enthusiasm*. (p. 78) (*të kthesh një faqe të re*) etc. or another one with drawings of animals (p. 80) e.g. *You look like a drowned (rat)* (*si pulë e lagur*). *He felt like a (fish) out of water* (*si peshku pa ujë*). *She's fed up with doing all the (donkey) work around the office!* (*puna e gomarit*) These types of exercises are much easier and sometimes the students find them funny. They help them to remember better the set expressions and their meanings.

What conclusion can we draw from these three texts analyses? We noticed that there are some issues concerning the teaching of set expressions to Albanian students. They are related with the definition, the types of activities and the way how they should be taught.

First, we noticed that there is no clear definition about set expressions in general. It remains the duty of the teacher to explain it to the students. Even the terms to describe them are different as 'idioms', 'idiomatic expressions', 'set expressions' and 'phrasal verbs'. It would be fine to find the same term so that the students do not get more confused. Albanian teachers can refer to the following definition which describes them as "linguistic meaningful units, made up of two or more words, with a set structure, being historically created and used for a long time, which is equal to a single word, being reproduced in speech as ready-made and having the role of an indivisible unit." (Thomai 1981)⁴

Second, the place of set expressions in texts is not as it should be. Idioms present problems both in understanding and in production. (Thornbury 2002 b) They, therefore, need to be approached with a great deal of caution and most teaching guides recommend teaching them for recognition only. Traditional teaching approaches tend to group idioms together according to some category, and present them in sets. But, as with phrasal verbs, teaching a set of idioms that are notionally related – such as idioms associated with parts of the body (*down at heel, put your feet up, foot the bill, toe the line*, etc.) – would seem to be a sure recipe for confusion. More typically, idioms are grouped by theme, e.g. the expressions *under the weather, off colour, run down, out of sorts* are all synonymous with *ill*. But again, if these are taught for production, the potential for confusion is high. As with phrasal verbs, a more effective approach might be simply to teach them as they arise, and in their contexts of use. That is, to treat them as individual lexical items in their own right, without making a *song and dance* about them. Phrasal verbs, in Albanian, are difficult to be explained and taught because their meanings are equivalent with one-word verbs.

⁴ This is the translated version of the definition in Albanian. We chose to cite it because it is complete among many other definitions.

3. Discussion

Third, the types of texts should be various. Since idioms tend to cluster together, certain text types are often very rich in them. There are a lot of sources where teachers could pick them like fiction or folklore. Even the activities or exercises might be very well selected, and not just the same, all the time. One of the books we would recommend to Albanian teachers is "*Illustrated American Idioms*". It is an attempt to provide material in English as a foreign language in which graphics serve as the supporting visual representation of selected idioms. In some cases the drawing may be a realistic representation of the the idiom or it may be a symbolic scene or figure. The exercises consist of the base idiom(s), one or two definitions, illustrative sentences with paraphrases, synonymous expressions, and a functional activity. To give students an opportunity to use the idioms in context with some degree of realism, the Functional Activity provides suggestions to this end. However, teachers should not limit application of the newly learned expressions exclusively to suggestions given in the Functional Activity. No doubt other pedagogic applications for both the illustration and the idioms will occur to many teachers using the material on a regular basis. (Curry 1994) This is only one of many other numerous books and dictionaries on how to teach set expressions to foreign students.

Finally, teachers should also try and include set expressions (either phrasal verbs or idioms) in their classroom language as much as possible – and draw attention to these from time to time. (Thornbury 2002: 127). Common classroom expressions incorporating phrasal verbs are *sit down*, *put your hand up*, *turn your papers over*, *write this down*, *cover the page up*, *look it up*, *hurry up*, and *calm down*! Other common expressions including idioms are *take it easy*, *by word of mouth*, *pop the question*, etc.

4. Conclusion

In this article we described what set phrases or idioms are in general by giving different examples in English and Albanian. Because of their very special nature, set phrases are very difficult for foreign learners. Several issues are related with their teaching and learning. The most crucial problems are connected with setting their boundaries in comparison with other units like words and other phrases, their

definition, their meanings and their context of use. Teachers should be very careful in selecting appropriate sources (books, activities, games, etc.) to use in the classroom environment.

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AN EYE ON ENGLISH AND ALBANIAN IDIOMS AS AN ESSENTIAL PART OF THESE LANGUAGES

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Abstract

The field of phraseology in any language is so varied that one could spend an entire lifetime analyzing it from various viewpoints. The aim of this paper is to make a comparative study on English and Albanian idioms because they have become a solid part of these spoken and written languages. An idiom is an expression peculiar to a language. It may be irrational, untranslatable, and even ungrammatical. How can one, literally, pick a quarrel with a person who is beside himself with anxiety? How can one translate How do you do into Albanian? Because idioms are created out of the day-to-day living of ordinary men and women, they are themselves alive, racy, and pungent. They are truly the heart of a language. Some feel that figurative language is a bit insincere, a little arty, good enough for poetry but out of place in honest prose. The truth is that our daily talk is salted with figures of speech. Idiomatic speech will come naturally if you have grown up with the language; if not you have something of a problem on your hands. Also, it aims to draw the similarities and differences between English and Albanian idiomaticity: how is an idiom defined in these languages, how are they classified in both languages, the features and origins of idioms in both languages, why are they so important for a language and above all can we translate English idioms into Albanian and vice-versa. The paper will also present us with the Albanian equivalents of some English idioms.

Keywords: *idioms, equivalents, non-motivated, untranslatable, inflexibility, conventionality, informality, monosemantic*

1. Introduction

In this article the object of study are the English and Albanian idioms from the structural, semantic, grammatical & lexical point of view. By idioms it is meant the use of words which is peculiar to a particular language. In both languages non-motivated word-groups are described as phraseological units or idioms: *red flower* – motivated; *red tape* – non-motivated (*democratic method*); *heavy weight* – motivated; *heavy weight* – non-motivated (*serious part in a theatrical play*); *ia kreh floket* – motivated; *ia kreh bishtin* – non-motivated (*say nice things to sb. just to please him/her*).

According to Noah Webster's dictionary an idiom is defined as:

1. a peculiar way of saying something which has become established after long use.
2. an expression whose meaning cannot be predicted from the usual meanings of its constituent elements.
3. a style of artistic expression characteristic of a particular individual, school, period or medium.

Whereas according to Jani Thomai a ph unit is "an expression with independent meaning, consisting of two or more full words, highly idiomatic; it is fixed and cannot be freely made up in speech but is reproduced as a ready-made unit". (Jani Thomai, 2005:171).

To have kittens (to be worried or nervous), to put your foot in your mouth (to say something you probably shouldn't do), to shed some light on the subject (to discover things); i zuri rrota bishtin (was found in difficulty), s'e ve ujin në zjarr (doesn't care) are all examples of idioms.

English and Albanian idioms can both have a literal meaning in one situation and a different meaning in another one: *I sat on the fence and watched the game* – literal meaning; *The politician sat on the fence and wouldn't give his opinion about the tax issue* – idiomatic meaning – one isn't making the clear choice regarding some issue) or *Ai i vrau gjithë mizat që i vinin rrotull* – literal meaning (kill the flies); *Ai nuk bën asnjë punë por gjithë ditën vret miza* – idiomatic meaning (waste time idly).

So, firstly every human language has idioms and very many of them. We meet them in our reading and take them as they come, hardly realizing what they are. Although, for example the learner may know that the word 'kitten' means 'baby cat', he/she may well have trouble with the idiom '*to have kittens*' which means '*to be worried or nervous*'; or if they know the meaning of '*tym*' (smoke) they may have trouble with the idiom '*flet në tym*' meaning 'talk foolishness'.

Secondly, as we see an idiom is like a code. You say one thing but you mean another. The weird thing is that everyone else who speaks the same language as you knows what you mean too. Every country has its own idioms. So, if you are from that country, then you will understand the idioms but if you are from another one, you

are going to be very mixed up when you hear its idioms.

2. A thorough comparison of English and Albanian idioms

In both languages we may say that idioms have some main features in common which are:

- Conventionality which means that their meaning or use cannot be predicted, or at least entirely predicted, on the basis of knowledge of the independent parts. For example: kick the bucket – kthen sytë nga qielli (die) has nothing to do with kicking buckets
- Inflexibility: which means they are meaningful only as a whole rather than a collection of separate words. The words of an idiom are not substitutable. We cannot say kick the pail instead of kick the bucket although bucket and pail are synonyms as we cannot say m'u bë shkurre instead of m'u bë ferrë (annoy sb. all the time). Also there will be a complete difference in meaning if we change the shape of an idiom: it's raining cats and dogs cannot be changed in It's raining dogs and cats; or shkel e shko cannot be changed into shko e shkel – Ajo e bëri punën shkel e shko (not showing attention).
- Figuration: idioms typically involve metaphors (spend time, battle of the sexes; take the bull by the horns; qan me lote krokodili-shed crocodile tears; lepin sahanet – lick sb.'s boots); metonymies (lend a hand, tund degën e ullirit); hyperbole (not worth the paper it's printed on; bëhet mish e kocka me) etc.
- Informality: idioms are associated with relatively informal registers and with popular speech and oral culture.

The diachronic study traces numerous sources of phraseology. If the source of an idiom is known, it is sometimes easier to imagine its meaning. In general, idioms that are derived from our physical experiences such as those that associate anger with heat, show strong similarities across different cultures and they tend to be fairly easy to understand. On the other hand, idioms that are derived from more specific domains are likely to differ across

cultures.

But let's consider the main sources of idioms in both languages:

- a. Ph. units derived from mythology: to clean Augean stables (to clear away the accumulated mass of corruption); filli i Arianës (lots of means for finding a solution).
- b. Ph. units derived from historical events: to burn one's boats (to cut oneself from all means of hope of a retreat); Scanderbeg's word must have Scanderbeg's arm
- c. Ph. units derived from traditions and customs: to bury the hatchet (to agree to stop arguing about something and become friends again); më i bukur duvaku se nusja (the outer appearance is better than the material itself)
- d. Ph. units derived from human activities: for example, agriculture: to break ground (to be the first to take the first step in an undertaking), si kofini pas të vjelash (too late, when everything has finished); fishing: all is fish that comes to his net (to turn everything to one's use), si peshku pa ujë (alone); music: play second fiddle (to sb.) – (to be treated as less important)
- e. Ph. units derived from literary works: much ado about nothing, lufton me mullinjtë e erës (fight with the windmills)
- f. Ph. units from foreign languages such as French (appetite comes with eating – oreksi vjen duke ngrënë)
- g. Ph units including the names of different parts of the body, colors, animals and verbs. For example: eye – to be the apple of one's eye (to be loved by sb. esp. older members of the family), i hedh një sy (catch a glimpse); heart – to lose heart (to become discouraged), m'u ngrohz zemra (to have satisfaction); arm – to keep someone at arm's length (to avoid becoming too friendly with sb.), i kthehu krahët (abandon); back – to put one's back into sth (to work very hard at a task), i ktheu kurrizin (despise, abandon); brain – to have sth on the brain (to think repeatedly or constantly about sth), humbi mendjen (be baffled); ear – to be all ears (to listen eagerly or curiously), i kanë fryrë në vesh (to speak badly to sb

against sb else); face – to lose face (to be humiliated), ia perplasi në fytyrë (to say openly his/her discontent); hand – to be at hand (to be very near), i dha duart (to sack sb); foot/feet – to foot the bill (to pay the bill, often for another person), ua mbathi këmbëve (walk away quickly); head – to come to a head (to reach a crisis), le koken (do everything for sb. because of the great love for him/her); neck – a pain in the neck (an irritating person), i bie në qafë (annoy, bother); nose – to be as plain as the nose on your face (to be very obvious), ia pruri në majë të hundës (bored to death); fly – there are no flies on him (to be very alert), i dogji miza (was affected); donkey – to do the donkey work (to do heavy or routine work), i është bërë shpirti gomar (very bored, annoyed); dog – to go to the dogs (to decline to a very bad state), s'ma ha qeni shkopin (very clever, tricky); fall – to fall on one's feet (to be fortunate), i ranë pendët (fall from a high estate); go – to go up the wall (to become very angry or annoyed), shkon si cjapi tek kasapi (go to a place where he/she shouldn't); lay – to lay down one's arms (to surrender), shtriji këmbët sa ke jorganin (spend money according to the economy); make – make a name for oneself (to become famous), bëji sytë katër (be attentive), put – to put someone on his guard (to warn sb), ve dore (hit); take – to take to one's heels (to run away), marr nëpër gojë (speak badly for sb).

From the grammatical and lexical point of view, English and Albanian idioms are classified into:

- Ph units functioning like nouns: noun + noun: brain trust (a group of experts who answer questions and give advice); the ins and outs (the details); llogje Kavaje (absurd words); ëndrra në diell (nonsense)
- Ph units functioning like verbs: verb + noun: to make a call, to take steps; hëngri dajak (to be criticized), nxjerr në shesh (reveal a secret); verb + adverbial particle: to give up, to put on/off/out; i ra prapa (to follow sb), e ngriti lart (to

praise sb); verb + and + verb: pick and choose (to select very carefully), cut and thrust (to struggle); merr dhe jep (try a lot);

- Ph units functioning like adjectives: noun + noun: bread and butter (important, basic); kockë e lekurë (too thin)
- Ph units functioning like adverbs: noun + noun: bread and cheese (the dearest necessities of life); pikë për pikë (very detailed); preposition + noun: by heart; by chance; on tiptoe; në pike te hallit; në majë të gishtave; conjunction + clause: before you can say Jack Robinson (very fast); sa të thuash pesë (very fast)
- Ph units functioning as prepositions: in consequence of, for certain, në vend të...
- Ph units functioning as interjections: upon my faith, punë e madhe, s'ke ci thua!

As from the semantic point of view ph units are classified into non-motivated and motivated units. Non-motivated units are more ancient. Their characteristic is that they cannot be analyzed taken separately. They are created from anecdotes, historical events etc. For example: *e shiti sa frëngu pulën* (very expensive), *avazi i Mukes* (the same habit); *the green-eyed monster*; *Achilles heel*.

Motivated ph units are more in number. Many of them are created by the transformation of the free word-groups into figurative ones. For example: *e zgjidhi qesen – tie off the bag* (*Ai e zgjidhi qesen dhe nxorri mollët* – used as a free word-group; *Ai shkoi në pazar dhe e zgjidhi qesen* "spend too much" – used as a figurative word-group).

So, idioms are important because they are very common in both languages. They add color to the language, helping us to emphasize meaning and to make our observations and explanations lively, vividly and interesting. If you say '*learning a language is an uphill task*', anyone who has walked or ridden a bicycle up a steep hill will immediately understand the effort involved or if you say '*duket si në pëllëmbë të dorës*' everyone will understand that it means 'very clear' because idioms sometimes bring a clear picture to mind.

Idioms have important roles in spoken languages and in writing. People think that idiomatic language is more informal and,

therefore, common only in spoken language. This is not true. Idiomatic language is as fundamental as tenses or prepositions; as the lexicon or grammar. If you listen to people speaking, or if you read a novel or newspaper, you will meet idiomatic language. Idioms are used in a wide variety of contexts and situations. So, they can be found either in spoken or in written English/Albanian language, both formal and particularly informal language because they bring great values. However, idioms are used in informal written and spoken English and Albanian, but tend to be avoided in academic writing. The language used in seminar discussions is often quite informal, so it would be acceptable to say: *Hunt's arguments do not hold water* (an idea is not true, does not work). In a written assignment, however, it would be more appropriate to use a formal word such as unconvincing or flawed instead of the idiom *do not hold water*.

Appropriateness of usage of idioms is another problem in both languages. In most idioms, changing a single word can produce a comic effect to the native-speaking listener. Telling your conversation partner that *it is raining dogs and cats* or *it is raining cats and pigs*; *puna është bërë shko e shkel* or *puna është bërë shkel e ik* would certainly cause a smile.

So there are some reasons why idioms may choose one order of words rather than another:

- The word order may be the most 'logical', given the origin of the idiom. For example, in the expression swallow sth hook, line, and sinker the image is that of a fish that first swallows the bait on the hook of the fishing rod, and then swallows the line, and finally swallows even the sinker.
- The word order may be the most 'natural' because a flow of information tends to move from general to specific aspects. For example the word order alive and kicking makes more sense than kicking and alive, because kicking implies being alive.
- The word order may sound best because of its rhythm. English but even Albanians show a preference for putting the longest word last (part and parcel, me tesha e kotesha).

Another problem in both languages is that

you may use an idiom that is not right for the situation, and if you use an idiom wrongly, it sounds rather strange. For example: *to pass* means not to accept an offer; *to pass out* is to become unconscious or *i ka të pakta bukët* means not have long to live whereas *i ka të pakta fjalët* means to be a person of few words. So, you should use idioms with care and only when you are sure of their meaning.

Guessing the meaning of an idiom by its words is very difficult in sentences such as: *It was raining cats and dogs when we were walking home last night* (raining very heavily); *Ai zbardhi dhëmbët me historinë e shokut* (laugh aimlessly) if you haven't come across these idioms but sometimes the meaning of the idioms is more obvious. The act of taking the bull by the horns clearly points to bravery and decisiveness in action: *I can't wait for you to discuss this matter with the manager. I shall take the bull by the horns and do sth about it myself.*

Context plays an important part in guessing the meaning of an idiom: *Atij asnjëherë s'i qesh buza* means 'gloomy', whereas in another context, for example, in literature it means 'lives in misery': *Popullit shqiptar kurrë s'i ka qeshur buza.*

Because idioms are part of a culture (an area where languages can be very different) they are very different to be translated, except in a very roundabout way. Sometimes you can translate an idiom from one language to another but most often this isn't possible. To translate an idiom it is necessary to know its equivalent on the target language; if there is no equivalent you must translate its meaning not word by word or invent sth funny that works in target language. The only way to be proficient with idioms in a foreign language is to immerse in the language because some idioms have also their corresponding variant in either language. Corresponding variants may be of two kinds: mono equivalent & selective

Full mono-equivalents of Albanian/English languages coincide with the corresponding as for their meaning, lexical constitution, stylistic values & grammatical structure. For example: *an apple of discord* – *mollë sherri*; *Achilles' heel* – *thembra e Akilit*; *take heart* – *marr zemër*; *lock, stock and barrel* – *me lackë e me plackë* etc.

Partial corresponding ph units are those which fully transmit the meaning of the idiom but preserve lexical, grammatical or lexical-

grammatical differences. For example: *as like as two peas* – *si dy pika uji*; *one swallow doesn't make a summer* – *pranvera s'vjen me një lule*; *beat one's brain* – *vras mendjen*, *eat one's word* – *s'mbaj fjalën*; *a burnt child dreads the fire* – *kush digjet nga qulli i fryn kosit*, *all cats are grey in the night* – *gjithë derrat një turi kanë.*

There are cases when to one English/Albanian ph unit correspond several English/Albanian ph units. The translator has to choose the most suitable variant for a given context. For example: *fall from one's high estate* – *i ranë pendët, i ranë fletët, ra nga fiku, ra nga kali.* It is the context which decides about the proper variant. These are called selective ph units.

So in translating idioms we must bear in mind these moments:

- There are cases when the idiom has its corresponding variant in each language – kill two birds with a stone – *me një gur vras dy zogj*; to throw light on – *te hedhësh dritë mbi.*
- The formulation of the idiom doesn't coincide with that of the other language but the idea is there: provide grist for the mill of – *shpie ujë në mullirin e..* The formulation of the idiom in English is 'provide grist' – *shpie bereqet* whereas in Albanian the formulation is *shpie ujë* but it is clear that despite the different wording the idea is the same.
- The idiom doesn't exist at all in one of the languages. In this case the advice is to employ the following ways of translation:

Literal translation and often adding such words as: *sic thuhet, si i thonë, kësaj i thonë* for ex: *this is to put the car before the horse* – *kësaj i thonë të tërheqë karroca kalin dhe jo kali karrocën.*

Contextual translation for example: *you can't have your cake and eat it too* – *është e pamundur edhe ta ruash dhe ta hash kekun.*

Paraphrase or descriptive translation – this is suitable especially in the translation of ph units which have to do with concrete historical events or have a terminological character. For example: *to cross the floor of the home, Hobson's choice* etc. these have no equivalents in other languages. Therefore, these units are paraphrased for ex: *to cross the floor of the*

house – të kalosh sa nga një parti në tjetrën.

Let's look to some of English idioms and their Albanian equivalents:

- you can't get blood out of the stone – s'nxirret dhjamë nga pleshti: it's very difficult to make someone give or tell you sth
- lick sb's boots – lëpin canakët e: to obey, please sb in authority completely, esp. when this makes you seem weak and silly
- catch sb redhanded – kap me preshe në dorë: to see sb at the moment of doing sth wrong
- cock and bull story – përralle me mbret: a story, an excuse that you think is very hard to believe
- shed crocodile tears – qan me lot krokodili: to pretend that you feel sad, sorry, upset
- between the devil and the deep blue sea – mes dy zjarresh: in a difficult situation in which any choice that you make will have bad results
- talk nineteen to dozen – grin sallatë; to talk a lot
- by hook or by crook – ma hir a me pahir: to do sth at any costs
- cry for the moon – kërkon qiqra në hell: to want sth that is impossible
- make a mountain out of a mole hill – e bëjnë qimen tra: to treat sth as it is very difficult or worse than it is
- buy a pig in a poke – dërr në thes: buy or take sth without looking at it carefully first
- still waters run deep – byreku e ka gjellën nën petë: sb who you think is very boring or calm, may surprise you with hidden emotions

derived from different fields and those that are derived from more specific domains are likely to differ across cultures, even cultures that are strongly related.

English and Albanian idioms are very important in each spoken and written language because we encounter and use them everywhere and they add color and variety to the language.

On the other hand, idioms make a language very difficult to understand because people don't know the culture and history behind the idiom. Sometimes even changing a single word can produce a comic effect to the native. Also, idioms are generally impossible to be translated in either language because it is the area closest to culture. A word for word translation never makes sense.

As a conclusion, we have to point out that idioms are an essential part of a language (and not just a part of English and Albanian). They give a meaning more vividly and often more briefly than a long literal explanation would do. However, learning idioms is not *a piece of cake* (very easy) but once you know them they can be a lot of fun.

3. Conclusions

After the study we may say that both English/Albanian languages are highly idiomatic. These idiomatic phrases are meaningful as a whole or complete item rather than a collection of separate words.

Idioms are created from the free word-groups which in the course of the historical development of English and Albanian languages have acquired semantic and grammatical inseparability. We may also say that idioms are

BILINGUALISM AMONG ALBANIANS: ADVANTAGE OR DISADVANTAGE FOR PRESCHOOL CHILDREN?

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Abstract

The linguistic situation of monolingualism until recently was thought to represent a normal situation because it was thought that it dominates the terrestrial globe. The second half of the twentieth century brought new knowledge, particularly the better understanding of the geopolitical situation of a large number of regions of the world and review of data on old situations. It was so obvious that everywhere in the world, the linguistic situation of monolingualism was less common than previously thought and that bilingualism or multilingualism rather represents a normal situation in many countries of the world. Albanians are generally recognized as a nation among which bilingualism is a characteristic because in all the territories where they live they use a native language and one or two other languages. Albanians who live in Macedonia are no exception, since, apart from their mother tongue they are speaking the Macedonian language, but in some areas even Turkish is presented as a third language. Until recently, the prevailing idea was that it is better the child at preschool age not be allowed to learn a second language until the speaking of the first language was well stabilized, but new pedagogical, psychological and linguistic studies indicate that a child is able to manage two or more linguistic systems, on condition that learning occurs in an environment that does not cause personal conflicts.

Keywords: *monolingualism, bilingualism, mother tongue, preschool children, Albanians*

1. Introduction

The ability to acquire and use language is an inherited ability of the human being, but only as capacity, a predisposition, since, in order to develop speech, social interaction and development of the intellectual abilities are necessary as well. Therefore, nowadays, the idea prevailing in the literature is that the process of language acquisition is not a result of the environment but a biological process. When learning to speak, the child is actively engaged in the gradual discovering of the system of rules it is subjected to. Thus, rightfully, Lindfors says that "Speech is inseparably connected to our mental life – our perception, memory, attention, our

understanding, our reasoning, and, expressed shortly, to all our attempts to give sense to our experience in the world" (Lindfors, 1991, p. 8).

In the past, it was believed that the language situations of monolingualism were normal and even statistical data was offered for this. However, in the second half of the XX century, a rapid evolution took place and a better understanding of the geopolitical situation of the majority of the world, as well as a better explanation of the information from the previous situations in the past where it was seen that everywhere in the world the language situations of monolingualism were less common than it was previously thought and that, on the contrary, bilingualism and also multilingualism are normal situations (even from a constitutional point of view) for many countries in the world. Today, we may conclude that bilingualism is present in every country, in all social classes, in all ages, since there is almost no country without a national minority. Moreover, there are more and more mixed marriages where the mother tongue of the spouses is not the same, and there is also greater migration from the poor countries in the more developed and wealthier ones where children get educated in the language of the country where they are staying or live, and at home they speak the mother tongue of the country of their parents. Thus, there is a higher number of children who learn how to speak two languages or who become bilingual.

2. What is bilingualism?

There are many definitions about what bilingualism is. However, in most cases, it is defined as the learning and use of two or more languages on regular basis. The level at which one is bilingual can vary from person to person. Some people are capable of using two, three or more languages in different situations without a problem and this is often referred to as "balanced bilingualism", whereas the most frequent situation when bilingual people use one language more often and more fluently is referred to as "dominant bilingualism". Nowadays, science mostly defines two ways in which people acquire or learn more than one language:

- a. simultaneous acquisition and
- b. sequential acquisition.

The simultaneous acquisition is a situation in which the child learns both languages at the same time (one can frequently come across children that learn even three languages at the same time). This situation is characterized by three defined stages in which the language is learned simultaneously: the first stage is when the child mixes both languages in one system, the second stage is when the child starts to separate the words of each language and makes a distinction about which person to address in which language, and the third stage starts when one of the languages is used more and it becomes dominant which is the most frequent case in bilinguals (however, not a rule).

The sequential acquisition happens when the second language is being learned after the acquisition of the first language. This situation is also characterized by three stages which motivate and guide the sequential acquisition of the language: in the first stage, the child observes the speakers of the second language and is quiet, perhaps it uses nonverbal speech followed by utterance of all the memorized words and phrases; in the second stage, the child communicates with others in the second language, starts to create sentences individually in the second language; and in the third stage, it attempts to speak accurately using an appropriate register of words, correct grammar and pronunciation.

Albanians, generally on the territory of the Balkans where they live, are famous for being bilingual and multilingual. If we tried placing them in the previously mentioned ways of acquisition, we might conclude that the bilingualism of Albanians is both simultaneous and sequential, namely the Albanians who lived or live on the territory of former Yugoslavia are characterized with both simultaneous and sequential bilingualism. Simultaneous bilingualism was a characteristic of former Yugoslavia, since at that time, the Albanians in this country, apart from the mother tongue, at the same time they learned and spoke the language of the country they lived in (in some cities like Skopje, Tetovo, Struga apart from the mother tongue, also Turkish was very frequent among the Albanians, so very often it was the case when Albanian children learned three languages at the same time) as well as Serbian language in Kosovo. This type of bilingualism after the disintegration of the country is

gradually replaced with sequential bilingualism, since society is more and more separated and ethnically pure areas are created, where the need and the possibility to learn both languages at the same time is lost. Albanian children are introduced to the second language at school (English in first grade, the mother tongue of the country they live in from fourth grade), while in Kosovo, the situation is completely different after separating from Serbia, the bilingualism is completely lost and the last generations do not speak Serbian at all. However, on the other hand, as a result of the establishment of international institutions, the learning of English is more and more frequent at the earliest age. Still, the current situation and expansion among children does not allow us to completely call it bilingualism. The Albanians who live in the Republic of Albania are characterized of sequential bilingualism, since living in a country where Albanian language was the only language, there was not a social situation and need to learn another language. Yet, more and more people over time had become bilingual by learning the language from their relatives who spoke another language or by watching and secretly listening to various television and radio channels. Thus, more and more people, apart from their mother Albanian tongue, spoke Italian, Greek and Serbo-Croatian. After the disintegration of Communism, they started to freely learn and speak other foreign languages, mostly English.

Bilingualism is little understood and is perceived with great scepticism by parents, educators, and teachers, while language specialists also express doubts concerning bilingualism and usually expect negative consequences from the learning of two languages, especially when this is done with children at preschool age. At the same time, they believe that the greater exposure both to the simultaneous or to the sequential bilingualism would cause delay in the speech of children, or that children would not succeed to adopt the languages and that they would not be able to speak fluently either language. This concern is spreading more and more, causing the appearance of certain myths regarding bilingualism which leads to even greater confusion such as: the myth that the delay of speech in children is caused by the learning of another language; the myth that in order to

better learn the other language, one should stop to speak the mother tongue and speak in the other language; the myth that parents should stop using the mother tongue at home and speak the other language when the children start learning the other language, and so on.

Research about the advantages and disadvantages of bilingualism is still at its infancy, and more and more researchers from different areas (linguists, psychologists, sociologists and others) focus their attention more and more on this issue. The results gathered thus far indicate that all these myths about bilingualism in children are wrong and that bilingualism cannot cause a delay of speech, since the problem of delay of speech is manifested both in monolingual and bilingual children; bilingualism neither increases nor decreases the possibility for delay of speech. Also, the speaking of the mother tongue should not be suspended, since the firmer the knowledge is in the mother tongue the easier is the acquisition of the second language. Parents should, on the contrary, continue using the mother tongue, speak about their daily activities, such as school, sports, etc. When parents do this, they provide models for the use of grammatically correct sentences and also provide approach to a more elaborate register of words which contributes to the better adoption of the second language.

When referring to bilingualism, parents, educators, teachers, language experts and others have different opinions whether the learning of the second language should start at an early age or later, when their children are linguistically shaped. Different opinions stem around these questions, which are becoming more and more interesting for research. According to one research published in 1989 in the journal "Cognitive Psychology", it is concluded that people who learn the second language before puberty achieve greater fluency as well as greater success in the application of the grammar rules. Another study conducted by the University of Illinois also demonstrates that persons who try to learn another language after puberty achieve lesser results than the ones who do before puberty, hereby stressing the importance that the second language should be learned between the early age and adolescence. Some experts go even further, suggesting that the second language should be learned at preschool age, and even earlier, in order to gain

greater advantage. They explain that at an early age the possibility for interference between the linguistic codes is much smaller because the abilities for imitation are most pronounced in this period which allows the children, in a playful way, to spontaneously be introduced to the basics of the second language. Also, at this age, children fit in, in the process of socialization much easier and are very expansive and receptive of various upbringing – educational influences, including the learning of a second language. On the other hand, Bialystok & Hakuta, (Bialystok & Hakuta, 1994), Tabors (Tabors, 1997) and others, have expressed the idea that there is no evidence for the existence of a biological limit for the learning of second language or that children should have an advantage over the adults, since, even the ones who begin learning the second language in their childhood, they may always face difficulties in the pronunciation, the grammar rules, the vocabulary of the other language and they may never fully adopt or use the other language. There is no way to explain why some people are successful in the learning of second language and some others are not. However, there is much evidence that many people who learn another language at an older age succeed in speaking the other language fluently. However, both groups agree with the fact that, apart from some problems which appear during the learning of second language at any stage, this does not mean that bilinguals are confused or that they encounter an obstacle in the learning of second language, but, on the contrary, that there are many advantages and benefits which are fruits of bilingualism.

The learning of a second language provides children and adults with various benefits, here we will mention only a few such as:

- The children who speak more than one language have a greater ability for communicating as well as greater academic potentials, also offering them greater opportunities in the mature years;
- The communicative advantages of bilinguals include wider communicative networks, literacy in both languages and increased metalinguistic awareness;
- The cultural advantages of bilinguals include deeper level of multiculturalism, wider perspective of the world in two

languages, as well as higher tolerance and sensitivity about the questions related to culture, language and race;

- The cognitive advantages of bilinguals include better cognitive functioning, a higher number of cognitive paths as well as an improved memory and brain plasticity;
- The social and emotional advantages of bilinguals include higher self-confidence of the bilingual person as well as a greater sense of identity;
- The socioeconomic values of bilinguals include an increased level of educational achievement, higher possibilities for employment as adults, as well as a potential for higher incomes; the latter is confirmed by a great number of bilinguals in various countries who claim that their knowledge and ability to communicate in two or more languages, as well as the understanding of the culture of the other languages they speak, have all given them an advantage over their competition in employment and in the achievement of their goals.

However, as it was mentioned earlier, not every child becomes bilingual. There are many factors which contribute for the child to become bilingual, the age and the time of exposure to both languages, as well as the degree of exposure to one language. The success in the adoption of the second language mainly depends on the interaction of the external and the internal factors. The external factors include the level of approach that the speakers have to the second language, the frequency with which the child comes in contact and interaction with these speakers, the level to which this second language context is emotionally supported as well as the messages and pressures imposed by the school and the society regarding the speaking of the second language. The internal factors include the cognitive abilities and limitations of the child, the need to learn the second language, the talent which the child has for learning another language, as well as the individual temperament and social skills. Thus, Winsler, Díaz, Espinosa, & Rodríguez (Winsler, Díaz, Espinosa, & Rodríguez, 1997) rightfully conclude that if bilingualism is appreciated by the family the children live in and by the school they study in, then these children

learn to appreciate bilingualism, and they will most probably learn and keep both languages at the highest level.

This is why we may conclude that children are fully capable of learning more than one language, and that the systematic exposure of children to both languages is a key step in the development of the ability to use both languages. This should be started in preschool institutions, and bilingualism can only bring benefits, some of which we mentioned above. The bilingualism in children at preschool age, as well as at a more mature age in Albanians, should be considered only as an advantage which, in the future, would offer the individuals only benefits and higher competitiveness in all areas of life. Therefore, the established bilingualism should be supported by all sides, if possible institutionally.

The benefits and experiences of the several projects which were carried out in our country should be pointed out, such as the bilingual kindergartens. However, when an educator was teaching by using mostly one of the languages, the mother language, and only a few words or sentences of the other language, these classes were referred to as bilingual. On the other hand, the early learning of English language should be also supported, which begins in first grade in our schools, and also in some preschool institutions through various projects, as well as the learning of a second foreign language which begins in sixth grade. The value of the learning of more languages has drastically increased in the last 20 years as a result of the globalization in many areas of our lives. The best example for this is the development of the Internet and the electronic communicational appliances which made global communication easy and common. People who know more languages (usually English) are rewarded with easier access to a great number of resources offered by the Internet and with this they have an advantage over those people who speak only one language.

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BORDERS AND REPRESENTATIONS OF HEROES WITH DISABILITIES IN THE BOOKS OF EV. TRIVIZAS

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Abstract

The established power in Foucauldian terms allows us to analyze the “borders and representations of heroes with disabilities” in fairytales and children’s literature. In the field of health, a number of nursing educators and sociologists discussed a variety of topics relating to old age and nursing homes, the status of nurses as professionals, the conflict between medicine and midwifery, intellectual disability and sexuality, AIDS, the history of hygiene education as well as issues of public health and lifestyle. Just like gender, race and class, disability has become a standard analytical category in the historian’s tool chest nowadays. Up until now Paul Longmore and Lauri Umansky’s book ‘The New disability history: American perspectives’ (2001) has been still providing the most thoughtful introduction to this burgeoning field. This aspect is based on the social-constructivist approach of history and closely connected to the ongoing emancipatory processes of persons with disabilities all over the world. We use post-modernist philosophies and theories of history in order to deal with the problematic feature of ‘identity’ in current disability theory. This research focuses on the heroes with disabilities as they are represented in the stories for children (fairytales and children’s literature) written by Eugene Trivizas. The researching material consists of the books:

1. The bald hedgehog {O falakros skantzoxoiros} (1996). Athens: Kedros.
2. The little disappointed elephant {To paraponemeno elefantaki} (1996). Athens: Kedros.
3. The ill rooster {O sunaxomenos kokoras} (2002). Athens: Kedros.
4. The three fancy ribbons {Oi treis apokriatikes kordeles} (2002). Athens: Patakis.
5. Ildoyardos Sarapasnip (unpublished)
6. The pirates of the chimney {Oi peirates tis kaminadas} (1997). Athens: Psychogios.
7. The last black cat {H teleutaia mauri gata} (2001). Athens: Ellinika Grammata.

Keywords: *disability, children’s literature, Eugene Trivizas, borders, social acceptance*

1. Disabilities in children's literature

In Greek Children's Literature during the last decades we find several books with disabled heroes in leading roles or not (children or younger). Such references in the Greek Literature initially appear during the 19th and 20th century, possibly because the need for the rights of people with disabilities in society starts to be "unveiled", also combined with the distinct sensibility of writers¹. Literature orders some image elements of disability through myths, stories and tales that circulate in a given historical and cultural period. The texts approaching disability issues help the reader and especially the young reader, to understand such matters in depth and multifacetedly. The special child and therefore, his special confrontation – treatment becomes the fictional material of literary narrative from 1980 and onwards. At these dates, there is a wider development in social processes, in new trends and ideas for the special child (Karakitsios, 2001:336).

From the Greek and foreign language studies, conclusively the following result:

- disabled heroes appear mostly with negative stereotypical views and prejudices,
- texts focus on what children can do, but not elements of their nature,
- the texts are sometimes abusive,
- parents and teachers admit that they neither know how to choose such books nor how to use them,
- personal perceptions, opinions, observations and experiences of writers on disability are presented²

It is recommended for authors who write for people with disabilities to know about the "movement of the disabled", as any other movement and present their literary experiences in order to give to the children as reading public the opportunity to understand disability as a condition (Keith 1994). Despite the declaration

of children with disabilities rights, the decrease in membership at institutions, the reduction of deaths and the change of attitude of the society, this is not manifested in children's books. There is a distinguished desire of authors to present issues that children or young people with disabilities face, but their approach in combination with a lack of knowledge or training about what disability is or how someone reacts and works with disability, restricts this writing, causing therefore, through unclear messages, pity and disgust. According to Cumberbatch & Negrine, Keith, Quicke, and Staunders (Britain, 2004), it results that, regardless the type of disability depicted in children's books, they appear to have some common characteristics which at the same time constitute the six pitfalls of fiction on disability:

- Representation of persons with disabilities as 'non-human' with either negative or positive connotations, as too say, "bad" or "good".
- Representation of persons with disabilities as "strange": The human dimension is not shown; however, the character is described with either negative or positive stereotypical images.
- The phenomenon of "secondary role": the character with a disability is neither the central character in the plot nor has a comprehensive development, but serves as a means of better understanding the disability of the central characters.
- Lack of precision and realism in the depiction of the disabled person and the state that he is in.
- Representation of people with disabilities as 'outsiders', as socially isolated and marginalized.
- The author fails to see a happy end, a full and proven life, as a possibility for a person with a disability.

The works of Eugene Trivizas are among the books of the last decades that attempted a different approach on perceptions of disability in literature by adopting modern concepts and presenting disability without prejudices and stereotypes. The internationally award-winning author and Professor of Criminology at the University of Reading, is distinguished with

¹ In our work, as in Greece generally accept disability definition of the World Health Organization (2002) according to which the disability is the result of organic or environmental causes that generate a set of barriers in important areas of life such as self-care, employment, education, entertainment and general social participation. From Paparidou Elena - Capstone (2012:10)

² Greek language studies: Papadatos, George (1992)., Tasiopoulos, Vagelis (2006)., Kotopoulos H., Triantafilos & Karakitsios, Andrew (2006)., Karga, Stavroula (2008).

innovative literary conception. Several researchers of his work have noticed his subversive intent that distinguishes it³. The unconventionality expressed both in terms of content (e.g. reversals of these myths) and form (e.g. improper use of words). His books have a striking appeal both to children and adults, as the author himself stated that his works address not only children but adults who read the writings on children⁴. In other words, the goal is to "co-treat" child and parent.

2. Material and method analysis

At the beginning of this study, we defined the research on disabled characters in the works of Eugene Trivizas. We collected, studied and identified heroes with some form of disability in sixty-three (63) projects that appear in six (6) issued publications and one (1) unpublished. The identification and selection of projects was done with the help of the author himself, in a personal communication that we had with him⁵. Also, from the seven (7) projects used in this work, five (5) are fairy tales and two (2) are fictitious children's literature. As project selection criteria, we set:

1. The author of the works should exclusively be Eugene Trivizas.
2. The existence of one or more heroes that show some form of disability in starring roles or regional.

The method used for the analysis of our goals is a combination of content analysis with data from the theory of literature, most notably the literary theory of characters. This choice was dictated by the material of our research, which determined the form and content of categories and subcategories of the analysis framework that is classified. Content analysis, as defined and described by B. Berelson is a method of research used in the social sciences and allows the

systematic exploration of the text, analyzing it through the presence and frequency of specific terms, narratives or concept/ quantitative form but also looking for the characteristics of the subject matter/qualitative form (Berelson, 1971:116-117). The narratology allowed us to clarify the functional relationship of heroes with disabilities in the social environment, and psychological status at the individual level through specific literary narrative choices. In this research, the conceptual analysis unit was the theme and the test on its (novel).

The Bald Hedgehog

The main character of the story is Ermolaos the Hedgehog. A comprehensive and dynamic character whose personality and habits are presented below. The character doesn't show any evidence of disability at the beginning, as his disability is not caused by nature but by other heroes. He is initially presented as a great, beautiful and spiny hedgehog, who is a regular and social "great, nice and prickly" person (p.5). Then, after waking from winter hibernation, in which they have stolen his thorns and realizes what has happened, he is presented in a very bad psychological state. The absence of thorns becomes immediately apparent. Feeling the void in his back, frightened, he doesn't recognize himself, he is crying bitterly, he believes he is into a disastrous mode, he cannot be treated. He is negative against what happens to him and does not seem to accept it "Ermolaos tossed out of bed feeling a gap in the back" (p.25), "What a disaster. Thousand bitter tears" (p.28). By solving the problem, the hero is now happy, proud and asks the other hedgehogs to look at his new acquisition "- Look! Look at me please!" (p.28).

During the realization and grieving on his problem no other hero appears and we cannot identify whether the hero with his disabilities is acceptable. He was helped by Mr. Manthos who is presented like a good-hearted man "Suddenly, by good luck Mr. Manthos passes by, the one with the cinnamon mustache and the golden heart", "I'll save you, my little bald hedgehog" (p.30). Ermolaos seems to be acceptable after solving his problem. Although he differs from the other hedgehogs, where instead of thorns on his back has straws, they accept him and give him the position of leader of all hedgehogs "And immediately they vote him ruler and leader" (p.33).

³ Alexandra Zervos, "Eugene the parodist of our era drafter, or the adventures of words and texts", Texts 6 (2007) <http://keimena.ece.uth.gr> (prosv. March 1, 2011) (hereinafter Zervos 2007), Alexander Akritopoulos, "the modern tale of ADO. Triviza: Fiction and reason," Texts 6 (2007) <http://keimena.ece.uth.gr> (prosv. March 1, 2011), George Papantonakis, "Trivizas: Tales from the land of the lost kites" Texts 6 (2007) <http://keimena.ece.uth.gr> (prosv. March 1, 2011) (at Papantonakis 2007).

⁴ E.g. in an interview with journalist Lena Aroni at the show NET Diaries (May 2009).

⁵ The communication performed on line in August 2011.

The plaintive little elephant

The hero with disability, Vladimiro is the main character of the story, which is an elephant with an oversized trunk. His mother punishes him by pulling his trunk, because of his misbehavior. He feels uncomfortable when other animals stumble in his big trunk. He is trying to cover his problem with funny ways, revealing in this way that he doesn't feel comfortable with himself and doesn't seem to accept his malformation "Vladimiro blushed with shame and folded his trunk like an accordion ..." (p.9). His weak personality is indicated with his decision to abandon his community. It's difficult for him to face the rejection, so he prefers to leave instead of facing it. Meeting Lito and helping her to pass the river, Vladimir finds a friend. His trunk, which everyone fooled him for until then, becomes a useful tool "he helped her pass and now they're friends" (p.17). He was protecting Lito and worked for her sake. This behavior may indicate the hero's fear at the possibility of losing his friend and thus, acts overprotective. A spherical hero who displays all the above elements is represented. However, stereotypes are detected to the logic of his presentation as there are some stereotypical attitudes, such as the attempt to hide the problem and the decision to leave the community. The hero's evolution and the fact that he was accepted make him also a dynamic character. Finally, the value of his oversized trunk and his size, becomes priceless when he saves the plane of Lito's father "- If it wasn't you, he said, I had to fall with my orange parachute" (p.22).

Lito was the first who accepted him and these two, became inseparable friends. Then her father understood that he is invaluable and asked him to stay with them. In the new residence where Vladimir lives, he is accepted by everyone. It is worth noting that the refusal of acceptance is given by the animals and the nearby growing up ground of the elephant. On the contrary, the acceptance and love of the hero is given by the human society, which is a new environment for him.

The sick rooster

Erikos is an impressive rooster, imposing in the appearance with a wonderful voice which lives in Delagratsia. He is a comprehensive and dynamic character, the specifics of whom unfold gradually through a type of an episodic plot (Kotopoulos -

Papantonakis 2011: 162-166). The hero's disability does not appear from the beginning. Instead, there is a highlight of his strong voice and consistency in work. Chickens are rushing to bring the doctor, once Erikos starts to lose his voice. A move that shows he was loved by other animals as well as by villagers. The dynamic hero defends his position, when he learns that he will be expelled from the village in order to be replaced with a younger and stronger rooster "- Don't do that to me, he begged. Let me stay "(p.28). Ashamed and very sad, he collects his things and leaves the village.

Erikos' problem concerned residents, disrupts their everyday lives and the mayor calls for an emergency council considering the situation crucial "The situation is critical. Erikos has hoarseness "(p.27). Despite the importance of his work, what they think as a first option is to dismiss and replace him with someone younger. Not only he is not being accepted, but society is trying to get rid of him without showing any effort to solve his problem, which directly affects the social structure and its basic functions "- We should fire him! The postman suggested. - Yes, fire him and hire a new dynamic rooster! "(p.27). The mayor was inexorable on his replacement regardless of his protests. The choice of Trivizas to select village's children to defend him with deeds to make him stay is not random. Those are who respect and accept his disability. Finally, even those who persecuted him before accept him back, after resolving his problem and being able to wake them up every morning.

Three carnival ribbons

The Gudun is an alien creature who finds shelter from persecution of the Gudun – eater, at Chara's home. It is a round character described as mischievous and getting always involved in adventures. It appears sad about the disabilities that it faces. It seems very sensitive and despaired because of its bad hearing which make it losing Chara's nice words "- Sighs. - Why? - Nothing! The Gudun sighed a dozen times, "" - How to hear with only an ear? How? "(p.6). Despite Chara's efforts to convince it that it is not so important having only one ear and no tail, it persists and wants to find a solution in any way. After the ear restoration, the Gudun is very happy. Excited about its new acquisition, it wants to try and exercise its hearing with many sounds

"The Gudun went crazy from its joy" (p.22). The sadness comes back when it remembers of its missing tail. Indeed, it feels falling into depression and hopes to have one like everyone "Around 4:00 p.m. he fell back into deep melancholy. It gathered in front of it a stack of tissues and started counting them" (p.28). It reappears stubborn and hurried to fulfill its desire. The problem was solved with the three carnival ribbons used as tail, making it happy. The mood changes and the solved problems, reveal the evolution of the hero making it dynamic. The happy Gudun, boasts its colored tail in the mirror "The Gudun was very happy. Every five minutes he looked in the mirror and spent the rest of the day chasing its tail" (p.34).

The only character who interacts essentially with Gudun is Chara. Chara has a positive view of the problems and tries to make him feel miles better by diminishing his disabilities which the Gudun takes to heart "- I do not also have a tail, Chara consoled it, but I do not count tissues. Besides, tails are no longer in fashion" (p.28). She tries to console him about the tail saying that not everyone has a tail and that it doesn't need one. At the end she carries out again its desire. We observe Chara facing the hero with disabilities with care and love. She tries to ameliorate its mood in order to palliate his misery.

Ilduardos Sarapasnip

In this fairytale the character with disabilities, Ilduardos Sarapasnip is not the main character, but the baby which the protagonist stork commits himself to deliver to a poor family in his first assignment. He's a flat character as we aren't given enough information about his personality and attitude. The information about Ildouardo are few and only at the end he appears as a kind-hearted, smart and successful doctor in wheelbarrow. "He saw someone entering the igloo sitting in an armchair on wheels wrapped in furs." On the other hand, Flapa - Flup, the protagonist of the story, is a stork carrying Ilduardo to his family when he was a baby, who also risks becoming disabled by losing his legs. "One of your feet is completely frozen. I fear that it will be lost, maybe the other also." In contrast with Ildouardo, Flapa - Flup is a dynamic character who evolves, develops and changes his stereotypical attitudes and perceptions about disability that he had at the

beginning of the story. He considers the child as nothing and believes that it is better to die than to live without being able to walk which can also make his parents feel sad "- Are you crazy? You will throw the baby in the sea to have a bath? He will drown if you drop him. - Well, isn't it better? - What is better? - To drown. You said that he will be unable to walk well, maybe not at all ... - And this is a reason to throw him in the sea? - So I say, not to disappoint his parents. «The idea is clear that disability makes people useless, unable to offer to society and their surroundings and make them upset and troubled. Even when the experienced stork says that every baby is precious, he appears again negative, unable to imagine how it is possible for a disabled baby sometimes to be useful. Many years later, after having delivered his last baby the Flapa – Flup falls into a bad blizzard, loses consciousness and wakes up after days with frozen feet. He cannot believe that he risked losing his legs, cannot imagine what will happen, he prays not to lose at least one of his legs and reaches the doctor with the saving liniment as soon as possible "- My feet? - Yes. – Can I lose only the one ... ? Us storks can be standing on one foot. But if I lose both ... What will I become, my God ... What can I do?". When he learns that the doctor is Ilduardos, he realizes his mistake years ago and he realizes that every baby is precious and useful. We observe an attitude change towards disability after the risk incurred and the cure of a disabled highly-regarded doctor.

Ilduardos is being treated with prejudice by Flapa – Flup. He considers that his disability will cause misery to him and his family. It's impossible for him to imagine that disability does not exclude people from life. Others who associate with Ilduardo have a completely different attitude. The more experienced stork, the Flip - Flop, says to Flapa – Flup that everyone is important "Every baby is precious! More valuable than you can imagine ... - I try to imagine, but I cannot." Based on this, we observe a teaching tone in which everyone should be accepted in any form of disability even if it faces how different he might be. The fact that the disabled hero appears after many years as a successful doctor who saves lives, proving that disability is not an obstacle to evolution and not excluded from education and work.

Pirates of the chimney

The disabled character is the pirate Patsoupe, having a starring role and the disability he is facing is the lack of the right palm. He is a dynamic character who at the end of the book changes behavior and attitude. A rusty hook replaces the part of the missing hand. He appears as a despicable pirate, short and chubby. "The other short, chubby, with shrimp eyes and cheeks, wore boots from dogfish leather with red buckles from cuttlefish bone and instead of a right hand, he had a rusty hook" (p.23). He seems subordinate to another pirate, the Kordone, as the second is the leader, the one who plans the robbery, gives instructions for their implementation, while Patsoupe simply performs. He expresses ridiculous questions continuously, indicating his naivety, which is enhanced by the lack of basic numeracy "Doctor, I'm not good at counting. To be honest, I do not know to count more than six. - Six, why six? - My fingers are five and a hook...six" (p.38). The hero uses the hook to replace some functions of the palm. Counting it as a normal part of the hand after showing characteristics of a healthy portion "... Patsoupe asked snatching with the hook a chunk pirate burger ..." (p.26), "- Here. The hook is hurting me" (p.37).

The social environment of the disabled Patsoupe does not pay much attention to the hook and we don't find any reference to him by another hero. The racist behavior towards him is due to his naivety and lack of basic knowledge.

The last black cat

In this particular work, though there are several references to characters that have some form of disability, those who are most involved in the story and being disabled, are the lady - Rini and the dwarves. Lady - Rini is a flat character who helps in the development of the story and there are only a few details for her. She is an elderly woman, facing trouble with her leg "... An old kindly lady with wrinkly face, limping a bit at the right foot..." (p.174). Lady - Rini lived in a slum, worked wherever she could, loved animals and especially cats. She had lost her husband and her children in an earthquake and people treated her like a crazy, inferior, strange woman "Other people thought lady - Rini peculiar and crazy and they smiled with condescension, when they saw her feeding her cats" (p.175). During the plot, she appears bold and courageous to protect and

help the cats confronted by a ruthless furrier. On the other hand, the three dwarves are presented with a very bad character. They are also flat characters and there are presented only a few of their features. They worked under the ruthless furrier. There wasn't anything visible to their faces except their eyes. Being unsympathetic and malicious, they are torturing and scraping the cats "They say that they enjoy torturing cats, to scrape them alive" (s.324). Lady - Rini is faced by the society like a strange, inferior woman who had lost her mind. They considered the love and care she showed in cats, that it is intertwined with the lost sense. However, this behavior is most likely to come from the view that she had lost her mind and not because of her disability "... and then she had lost her sense" (s.175). We have no data towards on the attitude of the dwarves' social environment. Despite the fact that they do only very cruel and heartless acts, they are placed in this context.

3. Conclusion

In Triviza's books with disabled heroes, the disabled character is at the same time the main character in three of his seven works, in which there are eight characters in total. At the rest, they have minor roles and assist in the development of the story. It is worth noting, that all three main characters are animals. In the works that the character with disabilities isn't the protagonist, he is a human. The characters mostly belong to the male gender. In six of eight cases the heroes are male, only in one case the hero is a woman and finally in the case of Gudun although it's an alien creature, it becomes distinct from the context that is a male hero.

Regarding the status of heroes in society and their acceptance, the findings are very interesting. In five of the eight cases, the characters with disabilities are not accepted by the society. Of these five heroes, only three are accepted at the end and only after they have restored their problem. The heroes with disabilities are accepted from the beginning only in three cases. Ilduardos Sarapasnip, at the homonym book, although he is facing the racist behavior of the young Flapa - Floup, becomes an acceptable character in the society where he lives and works as a doctor. The pirate Patsoupe at "The Pirates of the chimney" confronts racism in a small extent but due to his naivety it is not

about his disability. The Gudun, at "The three fancy ribbons" is not facing any racist behavior or any kind of exclusion. Social exclusion seems inextricably linked to the way that the psychology of the hero is shaped.

The starring characters are all spherical and dynamic. The author reveals most of their features as the story progresses, and shows them in changing and evolving. The reader can create an integrated view of the hero through the elements of their personality, attitudes and behaviors which come out. Three of five heroes who have minor roles are flat characters and the reader knows only a little about them. These characters have little or no verbal appearance at the works. The only hero that is exclusively dynamic and seems to evolve, to change opinions and behaviors is Patsoupe at the "Pirates of the chimney." We have the appearance of stereotypical attitudes towards disability by an also disabled character.

It should be noted that all the above characteristics of disabled heroes, filtered through the basic element of the Trivizas' style, humor (especially stylistic humor / register humor)⁶, promote reading enjoyment, while expressing their author's unconventional mood. Modern textual practices familiar to children through concrete projects contribute to the development of communication skills that are needed, while at the same time removing the arid priggery approaches. The didactic messages of projects are studied; inevitably most often in literature for children, they are given by way of comical and humorous reference through fictional concoctions with bold and unexpected developments. In contrast with the author's view, that is not his intention (interviewed on Lena's Aroni show at NET channel Calendars, 2009) to submit specific ideological-political concerns, but to delight the reader through the depiction of humorous incidents and use of language, we find that the use of stylistic humor performs inevitably ideological role (Stamou 2012: 302), and cultivates a critical attitude towards society and its problems. Behind the attractive story plot and humorous twists, fear and bigotry are discarded and serious social issues are affected. The struggle between good

and evil and the elimination of stereotypes that prevail in the texts, prepare the young reader to accept the otherness, which is an immediate challenge of today's reality. The "reading" of the comprehensive tables of our research reflects a pragmatic way about the disability issues, how Trivizas neither mimics nor accurately represents reality. He does something more important. He signifies through polyphony (Bakhtin, 1981), i.e. the simultaneous existence of different perspectives or voices, which make up a new social and ideological backgrounds. The "voices" in those children's books are Trivizas's multidimensional characters which impress the voice of the author to the diverse perspectives and reflect the social and ideological position toward things and its moral messages stripped from any didacticism. At the same time, the coexistence of different characters coming from different worlds, those of animals, children, good and evil, intertwines a text where they act and being heard voices from different social and stylistic perspectives.

⁶ Salvatore Attardo, *Humorous Texts: A Semantic and Pragmatic Analysis*, Berlin Mouton de Gruyter, 2001 (at: Attardo 2001).

4. Pivot tables

Table 1: Hero's elements

Title	Main Character	Human	Animal	Other	Male	Female	Problem restitution
The bald hedgehog	✓		✓		✓		✓
The plaintive little elephant	✓		✓		✓		
The sick rooster	✓		✓		✓		✓
Three carnival ribbons				✓	✓		✓
Ilduardos Sarapasnip		✓			✓		
Pirates of the chimney		✓			✓		
The last black cat (lady - Rini)		✓				✓	
The last black cat (dwarfs)		✓			✓		

Table 2: Frame of society

Title	Social isolation	Social acceptance	Finally social acceptance	Disadvantageous position
The bald hedgehog	✓		✓	
The plaintive little elephant	✓		✓	✓
The sick rooster	✓		✓	
Three carnival ribbons		✓		
Ilduardos Sarapasnip		✓		
Pirates of the chimney		✓		✓
The last black cat (lady - Rini)	✓			✓
The last black cat (dwarfs)	✓			

Table 3: Hero's psychological profile

Title	Bad mood	Mood amelioration	Without psychological delineation	Running tendencies
The bald hedgehog	✓	✓		
The plaintive little elephant	✓	✓		✓
The sick rooster	✓	✓		✓
Three carnival ribbons	✓	✓		
Ilduardos Sarapasnip			✓	
Pirates of the chimney			✓	
The last black cat (lady - Rini)			✓	
The last black cat (dwarfs)			✓	

Table 4: Type of characters

Title	Flat	Round	Static	Dynamic	Sterotypical	Foil
The bald hedgehog		✓		✓		
The plaintive little elephant		✓		✓	✓	
The sick rooster		✓		✓		
Three carnival ribbons		✓		✓		
Ilduardos Sarapasnip	✓					
Pirates of the chimney				✓		
The last black cat (lady - Rini)	✓					
The last black cat (dwarfs)	✓					

Table 5: Hero's speech

Title	Small verbal appearance	Zero verbal appearance	Casual speech	Gentle accent	Rude accent	Conventional accent
The bald hedgehog	✓					✓
The plaintive little elephant	✓					✓
The sick rooster				✓		✓
Three carnival ribbons			✓		✓	
Ilduardos Sarapasnip		✓				
Pirates of the chimney			✓		✓	
The last black cat (lady - Rini)	✓			✓		
The last black cat (dwarfs)	✓		✓		✓	

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CLEPSYDRA: A MODEL OF INVESTIGATING THE RELATIONS BETWEEN SCHOOL AND CHILDREN'S LANGUAGE

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Abstract

The Greek school has changed completely during the last three decades. From the monolingual and monocultural classroom we got ahead to a multilingual and multicultural one (Nikolaou 2000, Griva & Kamaroudis 2001, Skourtou 2001, Koiliari 2005, Chatzissavvidis and Tsokolidou 2008). And more often schoolmasters had not been prepared to these entirely new circumstances. In this paper we present a theoretical tool in order to investigate, clarify and classify situations and avoid linguistic racism and xenophobia. We named this model "Clepsydra" from the name of the main fountain in Acropolis, watering classical Athens for centuries. It is divided in ten different levels, from the most negative attitude to the most positive linguistic awakening of the pupils, their parents and the language minorities. Clepsydra is illustrated by several examples. Our aim is, by the one hand, to have a critical point of view from researchers working in educational systems of neighbor countries as Albania, Bulgaria and FYROM, and, by the other hand to ameliorate and enrich our sample with other Balkan and international languages, dialects, idioms and sociolects, in a difficult or harmonious contact and symbiosis. And, then, why not, try for common actions in our Balkan societies?

Keywords: *Greek education, multiculturalism, bilingualism, language awareness, modern didactics*

1. Introduction

The school systems throughout the nineteenth and twentieth century put aside, oppressed and at times razed either different languages or dialects and idioms of local communities. Just in the last quarter of the twentieth century, under pressure from international organizations such as UNESCO or the European Union, much interest showed up to become familiar with, record and preserve the language or the range of different languages. Yet, in numerous cases, it was by far too late: the linguistic «biodiversity» had changed radically. And this was due to the fact that the central State Authority desired to delve into its power and create citizens as much homogenous as possible.

Indicative examples are the United States of America: the ideal citizen had to be as close as

possible to the formula:

W.A.S.P

namely

White, Anglosaxon and Protestant

White Anglo-Saxon origin and Protestant Christian (Protestant)

These four acronyms are quite often encountered on the walls of metropolitan centers or even along the pavements, as part of the youth artistic expression «graffiti».

In the 19th century, the term «melting pot» was used to describe the fusion of different nationalities and ethnicities in the «new promised land» (and up to a point it implied the Soviet Union). Some Greek-Americans still call themselves as

W.E.C

namely

White European and Christian

once, better as White European, non Spanish Origin, Christian

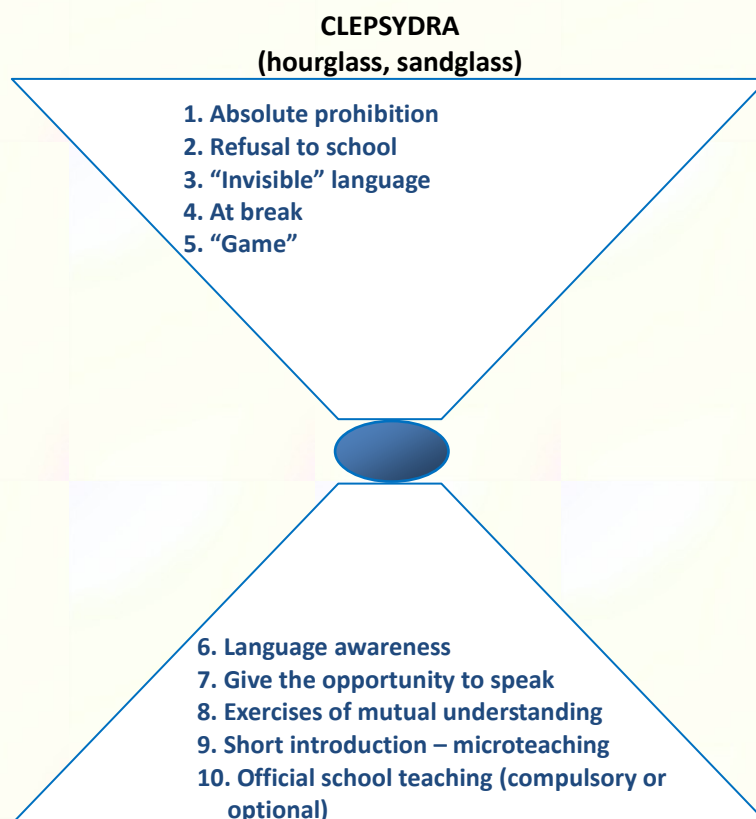
For this reason they prevented their integration to the gradually developing Spanish-speaking community. (After all, there was much prejudice squeezed upon the illegal immigrants of Mexican origin, by the «true-blood»

Americans)

We propose a theoretical model for the best possible understanding of the various circumstances which have been observed and reported in references and we may encounter. Additionally, being furnished with the right training and information, we will try to avoid the linguistic tribalism (racism) and defend both the linguistic rights of children as well as of the wider society. The standard is «illustrated» by accompanying examples, mainly from the Greek and global reality.

2. KLEPSYDRA = KLEPTO (STEAL) + HYDOR (WATER)

We called it Clepsydra (Hourglass or Sandglass), simply because it represents exactly, what we want to convey: starting from a solid negative attitude towards the phenomenon of linguistic difference we move to a positive progressive pedagogical use of it. And let us consider the Greek society which for twenty years has changed into a multilingual and multicultural one.



3. Commentary

1. Prosecutions

Addressing the Slavic dialects of Macedonia, especially in the region of Florina was that the bilingual was nearly regarded as a spy, a «rat», or simply as an enemy of the state and its security, especially during the nineteenth century. In Greece this situation has lasted until 1974 (Kostopoulos, 2002²)!

2. Refusal to school

Punishment and humiliation

When a school student in Thebes or Livadia, used Arvanitika or Vlachika (armouni) he arose the anger of teachers. To make things worse, teachers inflicted physical torture upon pupils when they uttered this «prohibited» regional language.

In the nineteenth century, in France, the young students who spoke in their mother tongue Breton (Celtic descent in Brittany) which was quite different from French had to hang around their necks the “symbol”: a small item (twig, pebble). In this way, they managed to force the speakers of Breton not to use their mother tongue at all (Broudic, 1999: 32-35).

Another attempt of limitation of a regional language by the National French Language is the following: French Linguists, Mr. André Martinet and Mrs. Jeanne Martinet, the famous University Professors' couple, stated to us that there had been labels in all Public Schools and Administration Buildings, even some years after the Second World War, with capital letters, marked that: IT IS PROHIBITED TO SPEAK "BRETON LANGUAGE" AND TO SPIT ON THE SOIL, or in French: IL EST INTERDIT DE PARLER BRETON ET DE CRACHER PAR TERRE.

This information was also confirmed by Mrs. Danielle Giot-Renaudin, student in that period, sociologist and Mayor of the historical small town Termes d'Armagnac, Gers (32), France, and Mr Gaston Renaudin, General Inspector of the Metro of Paris, (Chemin de Fer Metropolitain).

3. An “Invisible” language

That is how it was considered: an «invisible» language or «unvoiced». Teachers listened and monitored the students to switch into a different language from the school language and pretended that they did not understand or smiled condescendingly, especially when they

themselves were aware of it (Griva & Kamaroudis, 2005: 36-37).

4. At break

The Principle of tolerance

The language or the dialect switching/shifting from students was tolerated during breaks in the schoolyard. Representative examples: the Pomaks in Minority Schools of Xanthi Schools, the schools of the German region of Switzerland where students freely use the local Swiss-German dialect.

5. “Game”

In this case the teacher uses words or phrases of the local language or dialect. Once again, he asks some bilingual students to mention the word in their language too, as a fooling game.

6. Language awareness

It is the step that a pupil realizes the linguistic diversity of his classmate. The teacher still maintains the playful character but he can also ask his students to say good morning in their mother tongue or to write their names according to the Latin, Slavic, Arabic or any other alphabet on the blackboard. This is the first level of the so-called “Language awareness- Eveil aux langues” (Candelier, 2003) or in greek ‘Γλωσσική αφύπνιση’.

7. “I give the opportunity to speak”

If this linguistic channeling continues, through elicitation and data processing, it will end up to a broader cultural awareness. More specifically, with the term «awareness» we refer to the conscious approach of the linguistic stimuli so as to develop a profound understanding and a deeper meditative - critical observation on different languages. Not far from the principal view of a solid and multicultural society reflected in the powerful western world.

We expect:

- a. The creation of positive representations and attitudes, the acceptance of a broad linguistic and cultural identity.
- b. The Development of post-communicational linguistic skills (observation and reasoning)
- c. The Formation of a broader linguistic culture

It is worth, at this point, to quote a relevant poem from the collection *Seals*:

The Barbarians will not come back from the border, they will rush through televisions, in children's rooms
(P. A. Sinopoulos, 1971)

Activities to be advised:

A good idea would be to write down a selection of goodwill greetings, at first on the board and then on the notebooks. The teacher could develop the different linguistic competences of the pupils by getting them involved in a cultural exchange activity.

Expressions	Languages
Season's Greetings	English
Beste Wensen	Dutch
Meilleurs Vœux	French
Frohe Festtage	German
Felices Fiestas	Spanish
Migliori Auguri	Italian
Πολλές Ευχές	Greek

Source: Ευρωπαϊκή Ένωση (2006), Πάμε να εξερευνήσουμε την Ευρώπη, Βρυξέλλες (= European Communities, Let's explore Europe, Brussels).

8. Exercises of understanding

At this level, we have all noticed an attempt to acknowledge the different languages of the inhabitants of the countries in Europe and all around the world (Griva & Kamaroudis, 2005, 37-42). Let us notice the different ways of saying *good morning* in the three language families.

Latin		Germanic		Slavic	
French	<i>Bonjour</i>	Danish	<i>Godmorgen</i>	Czech	<i>Dobré ráno</i>
Italian	<i>Buongiorno</i>	Dutch	<i>Goedemorgen</i>	Polish	<i>Dzień dobry</i>
Portuguese	<i>Bom dia</i>	English	<i>Good morning</i>	Slovak	<i>Dobré ráno</i>
Spanish	<i>Buenos días</i>	German	<i>Guten Morgen</i>	Slovene	<i>Dobro jutro</i>
		Swedish	<i>God morgon</i>		

Numbers:

Much interest should be placed upon the numbers and the way they are learned by heart.

Greek	French	Spanish	Russian	English	Persian	Bengali	German
ένα	un	uno	odin	one	yek	ek	eins
δύο	deux	dos	dva	two	do	doi	zwei
τρία	trois	tres	tri	three	se	tin	drei
τέσσερα	quatre	quarto	tchetyre	four	chahar	shar	vier
πέντε	cinq	cinco	piat	five	pandj	pantch	funf
έξι	six	seis	sesht	six	shish	chhoy	sechs
επτά	sept	siete	siem	seven	haft	shat	sieben
οκτώ	huit	ocho	vosiem	eight	hasht	at	acht
εννιά	neuf	nueve	deviat	nine	now	noy	neun
δέκα	dix	diez	desiat	ten	dah	dosh	zehn
εκατό	cent	ciento	sto	a hundred	sad	shot	hundert

Source: Cuisenier, Jean (1995). *Ethnologie de l'Europe*, Paris : PUF, Collection "Que Sais-je"?

9. Short Introduction - micro-teaching

Considering the composition of the students' audience and the contribution that can be offered by parents, teachers can organize at regular intervals activities of type:

- The language of the day,
- The language of the month,
- Speak the language of friend / girlfriend,
- Adopt a small / smaller language.
- Preserve the endangered languages

There are a lot of opportunities given throughout the course of the school year, for example:

- The European Day of Languages - on the 26th of September,
- The International Mother Language Day – on the 23rd of February,
- The International Day against Racism- on the 21st of March.

Then you will connect with smaller or wider projects, in the specific class or in the entire school (Skourtou, 2011, Tsokalidou, 2012: 116-135).

10. Official School Teaching

From the monolingual school, we devoted a few years in the multilingual school, reflecting both the multicultural society and the demands of a modern European-oriented education.

Our model is presented and applied to the Schools of Grevena, Region of Western Macedonia in a program entitled: «From theory and observation in the classroom to the teaching practice». The *Clepsydra* we have already presented to you is just a useful tool to understand and try to classify a very complex multilingual situation with many dimensions: sociolinguistic, educational, political, ideological. much different from one place to the other.

The authors of this paper will be very pleased to incite the reactions of our readers, answering especially in the two following questions:

1. Do you observe similar situations in the educational system of your country (especially after the '90s)?
2. How did the educational system react to such cases, in your country?

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CREATIVE WRITING, SUSPENSEFUL LITERATURE AND EXCITED STUDENTS

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Abstract

Teachers struggle daily to get their students interested in the literary texts they have to read for their classes. As the current situation poses several encumbrances in the form of curriculum norms, students' disinterest, limited school time and out-dated course books, we propose the insertion of Creative Writing into the teaching of Literature and explore its prospective use in the classroom. We suggest that the particular use of suspenseful Literature, through the teaching of its notions of suspense and cliff-hanger and its techniques, has the ability to transform the classroom into a reading community, where the children will be intrigued enough to read suspenseful literary texts, analyse their meanings and story evolution and finally create their own stories, based on what they have learned. Such a module outline is presented in the end.

Keywords: *Creative Writing, Literature Teaching, Suspense, Cliff-hanger*

1. Introduction

Are there ways to get students interested in what they have to read for their classes? As teachers, we can never find the perfect answers in such questions. The major problem for Greek Literature's teachers is why so many students hate to read. Does the Internet attribute to this situation? Researching unlimited amounts of information on the Internet takes only a few minutes whereas reading demands hours, although we do not think that this is a convincing explanation for the everyday problems teachers constantly face. The classical way for educators trying to figure out methods to get their students excited for reading is by choosing literary texts allegedly entertaining and exciting. Texts or chapters with catchy titles based on things that students will probably find interesting. But teachers, just like students, have rules and curriculum's guidelines to follow. The already approved by the state "literary canon" does not allow free selection of literary texts.

The main purpose of teaching literature, according to the new curricula, is the "critical education on modern culture". Among many and significant sub – purposes, a particular one is the reconstitution of the class as a community of readers, governed by the values of democracy, equality, respect for the difference, pluralism,

dialogue, critical alertness and self- knowledge, intercultural awareness, without focusing on the skills that pupils are expected to acquire. Nevertheless, it is worth concentrating on the educational material of the Literature course. In the Greek school, reading Literature is still performed using schoolbooks of anthologies of literary texts and extracts, whereas other educational systems have incorporated for decades into school the reading of whole literary texts. The hindrance of book selection functions prohibitively against the acquaintance with modern book production, but also leads to the effective exclusion of the contact between pupils and the main literary genre of our times, the novel, which, through the complexity of its composition, is capable of exercising its readers into high level reading practices. Fortunately, the current curriculum proposes the reading of whole literary texts, integrated into the proposed module, without albeit eliminating the use of the schoolbook of anthologies. Nevertheless, it is still an important step into the right direction, since, with the teacher's initiatives, informal book clubs can be created, where students can be exposed to many and varied reading stimuli.

Without precluding certain positive elements of the historic layout of the teaching material-prevailing till now in the organization of Literature course-, our own teaching proposal agrees at this point with the current curriculum of the 1st class of Senior High School, as it falls within the thematic or generic way of organizing the class material. This method utilises the historic approach too, as the methodological propositions require teachers and pupils to find and recognize the continuity of certain themes or certain literary genres over time and to detect the dynamics of their survival. It goes without saying that the integration and creative use of ICT, which redefines the methods but also the purpose of teaching of literary texts, is of particular importance here. By recognising reading as the core of the Literature course, a cultural phenomenon associated with almost all aspects of life, we base our methodological approach on two pupil – centred teaching methods: teaching in groups and through projects, with their multiple methods being known. The unit of organisation is that of the proposed curriculum: the teaching unit, which starts with the phase before reading, continues

with the main reading process and finishes with the phase after the reading. The new curriculum does not dare propose Creative Writing as an independent course, something that our university has realised many years now as an independent cognitive subject both in undergraduate and in postgraduate level. It is clear, however, that its theory and mainly its practices have crept into its logic particularly into the third phase of reading, namely that of “after the reading”. In other articles we have referred in detail on what creative writing is and the way it is envisaged both in our country and worldwide (Kotopoulos 2011, 2012). The educational benefit of the first systematic efforts of Creative Writing teaching for an entire school year in classrooms is proved to be particularly important (Nikolaidou 2012, Simeonaki 2012). In summary, one could argue that Creative Writing works as bait for the students, who work with more gusto, undertake “literary” initiatives, are interested in a more meaningful way for the acceptance of a text. Students discover in practice that a text is never just written once and then abandoned. Creative Writing reveals to them the mechanisms of the “construction” of the text, not only the literary one, but also showing in practice the great importance of the time of the narration and the narrator's point of view. The students comprehend that that the morphological or generic restrictions may come as a writing tool and have a maximum impact. The writing becomes meaningful, the constant corrections the same. But the most important is that the teaching of Creative Writing redistributes the consolidated balance of the classroom and lets all the voices to be heard. The students with higher school performance do not necessarily write the best texts. Student who stood at the sidelines of the lesson acquire voice and audience. In this atypical form of textual democracy, the well written, especially the inspired, text has everyone's enthusiastic acceptance. Even if it is written by the pupil of the last desk, who had not expressed himself before. We must realise in the end that the teaching of Creative Writing requires school time. If we live under the Damoclean sword of the curriculum, such efforts are not worthwhile. But what we lose in school time, we win into the enhancement and production of texts.

2. Cliff-hanger Literature

Of course there are still several ways to design a unit: by theme, time period, literary movement, genre, author etc. striving in every case to grab the students' attention and draw them in. With a suspenseful unit there are a lot of possibilities of having students excited about the lesson, eager to know what happens next. Thematic units especially give students the potential to regard Literature as a useful tool and a benchmark in their own development as people (Smagorinsky 2002:11). *Cliff-hanger*¹ literature's texts teach students that life is full of suspense and you can't always know what will happen (Paulk 2007). In suspenseful literary texts, students may find that they can read not only to be entertained but also for a number of purposes, "*for the love of literature, to appreciate the author's craft, or for information*" (Paulk 2007). Reading becomes now fascinating and students automatically appreciate the authors' craft of writing whilst loving Literature. Lack of interest in Literature in school lies on students' belief that what happens in classrooms has little relevance to real life. And this is the crucial point of deciding on connecting suspenseful units with Creative Writing. Students will be entertained and will love Literature not only by reading, as this is half the way they have to cover and many times "bores" them, but by writing literature texts themselves. Therefore we have come up with Creative Writing projects. Students will be also furthering their understanding of the text they have read working at the same time at their writing skills. Students will "play" with such texts, will dab on their techniques and discover their conventions. Not all, of course, will become writers, but it is very likely that they will love literature and written texts in general. Several of them will be interested or sufficient readers and one or two will become impetuous bookworms. Anyone familiar with the schoolroom arena knows that this is not a small feat.

But what exactly is suspense? Focusing on

the plot, the reader's interest swivels around what will happen next, how a fact evolves. As each action is not complete, we wonder about its result, and even though on the one hand it complements the previous one, on the other hand it raises new questions about the future. This particular chain of actions is what we call suspense (Nodelman 1992: 63). During the building of suspense, a well-structured plot captures the reader and holds his attention until the end of the story, but it is difficult to say why a model of events causes pleasure.

A classical and unadorned definition of suspense belongs to M. H. Abrams: "suspense is a lack of certainty, on the part of a concerned reader, about what is going to happen" (Abrams 1999: 225). There are quite a few ways writers can increase suspense in their literary works. All of them create a lack of certainty trying to give to the readers enough to make them incurably curious and simultaneously to withhold the item of curiosity as long as possible without losing their interest. Curiosity can be regarded as a response or state of mind of the reader in reading stories and narratives of every kind. It is probably impossible to find readers who are not curious at all, on any level. Moreover, it seems difficult to distinguish being curious from being interested. We can say that we are curious to know something, because we are interested in it; or that, as we find something interesting, we become curious to know more about it. A suspenseful reader can become curious as well. Good authors can skilfully create suspense by "holding back". They build anticipation for the readers, raising questions in their minds and present the answers after some delay. According to Lodge (1992: 14) this is the only way to sustain suspense (the word "suspense" came from Latin *sus – pendere* and originally meant "to hang"). Lodge roughly divides the questions raised into two kinds: those having to do with "causality (e.g. whodunnit?)" and questions to do with "temporality (e.g. what will happen next?)". The prototypical example of the former question will be asked by the reader in the classic detective story and the latter by the reader in the adventure story. For Lodge the effect of suspense is especially associated with the adventure story and with the hybrid of detective story and adventure story known as the thriller. In these kinds of narratives, protagonists are repeatedly

¹ The generic term "cliffhanger" is originated from Thomas Hardy's lyrical and psychological serial novel *A Pair of Blue Eyes* (1873). When the novel was serialized in *Tinsley's Magazine* between September 1872 and July 1873, Hardy chose to leave one of the main protagonists, Henry Knight, literally hanging off a cliff staring into the stony eyes of a trilobite embedded in the rock. This became the archetypal—and literal—cliff-hanger of Victorian prose.

into situations of extreme jeopardy and can successfully arouse in the reader a feeling of sympathetic fear and anxiety about the character's destiny (Lodge 1992: 14). This is the most common type of suspense as writers like to increase the intensity of the story, usually creating fear for the readers. Writers bring us to the point of intensity and then they slow down, drawing us out by telling many tiny details, something they don't do in every part of the text, and actually pausing the story on a microscopic level.

Sternberg shares Lodge's view, strongly relating suspense to curiosity and characterising both of them in terms of lack of information. Sternberg is more specific suggesting that suspense arises out of lack of desired information regarding the outcome of a conflict "that is to take place in the narrative future, a lack that involves a clash of hope and fear" (1978: 65), and thus it is essentially related to the dynamics of the ongoing action. According to Sternberg the clash of the reader's hopes and fears about the outcome of the future confrontation caused by the writer's postponing the answers sustains suspense. Sternberg's examples concern revenge tragedies such as *Hamlet* as an example in which this interest is effectively employed. The protagonist seeks to identify the criminal or establish his guilt, while the reader is given an omniscient viewpoint and is informed of the antecedents of the crime soon after the beginning of the story (Iwata 2008: 21). We can find similarities in what we call dramatic irony, another way of creating suspense. In this case the readers know something the heroes / heroines don't (like ancient tragedies or Shakespeare's works as we have already mentioned). The prolonged postponement of the catastrophe creates "a complex of different forms of suspense—retardatory, actional, and psychological—which becomes essentially intense when the revenger is a rounded and sympathetic character" (Sternberg 1978: 179).

Another basic notion of suspense develops when a reader anticipates what a character is going to do. Writers present the character with a kind of choice or challenge and help us wonder how the character will decide. They often create a choice for the character early in the plot and keep the readers wondering how the character will decide. Which way will they go? How will

they choose? This anticipation is built around a choice the character needs to make. By leaving the choice open, the readers are left to wonder while writers create suspense that holds them until the character's decision.

Toolan focuses on the plot-based suspense, rather than "the arguably less-powerful suspense created by delayed identification of the true perpetrator in crime and detection stories" (2001: 99), and presents pairs of conditions of suspense creation, as well as surprise to be reviewed later. This type of suspense arises when

- a. the narrative 'forks' reaching a point of development where very few (often just two) alternative outcomes are highly predictable, so that one or two narrative completions are clearly 'foreseen' by the reader and
- b. at this point of narrative forking between broadly predictable completions, both or all such completions are 'withheld': the disclosure of just which completion obtains in the present narrative is noticeably delayed, beyond its earliest reasonable report (Toolan 2001: 100).

We can be a little more analytical in Toolan's view dividing in three the broad conditions that have to be satisfied when suspense arises in literary fiction:

- a. a conflicting event or situation has, at least, two possible outcomes that the reader perceives as forked or bifurcated;
- b. those outcomes are predictable or foreseeable by the reader without difficulty; and
- c. the resolution of suspense, if it is given, should be postponed or delayed, beyond its earliest time.

By studying his construction, one can conclude to the following typology:

Suspense of "if (something happens)": In this version, the suspense creates a reflection, after the relevant preparation from the narrator, on if something happens, bringing the protagonist or another character of the novel or all the characters of the novel in a difficult position or sets their lives at risk. There are two versions here, toggling between what will happen and what will not.

Suspense of "what (follows next)": This is a

kind of tension referring to the continuation of action, as it has already been configured and troubles about the form of the action of the protagonist or other characters of the novel, in order to cope with the new situation, as it has set about. As a form of tension, it can have unlimited values, which means that there are several cases of alternative actions, which the hero undertakes initiative from, after individual reflection and decision or a collective one, in order to deal with the situation. This category of suspense can be met by the reader in all the texts, as the heroes, being in a difficult position, will have to face this situation, break the stalemate and arrive at a solution.

Suspense of "how (something happens) and how (the characters will react)": This category strengthens the reflection and concern of the reader as to the way a certain sudden or unexpected twist will happen "against all the previous facts of the plot". It contains the narrative details of the way an episode will happen that will bring the characters into a difficult position as well as their course of action. It can take unlimited values, since several unknown factors have the potential of creating this unwanted situation or there are probably more than one solutions, in order for the heroes to get out of the difficult situation.

Suspense of "who (will be or do something that will bring about tension)": A last form of suspense investigates the subject that creates the suspense, whether this is a person (for example, the opponent) or an object. This kind of suspense can also have infinite values, since the categories of people or objects that can lead into a particular situation are more than one.

For some scholars even this ambivalent game can be considered a type of suspense (Lukens 1995: 75 – 76) (cliff-hanger) that renders a story exciting. It is about a technique in which, during a conflict, the victory tilts between two opponents, making the reader anxious to have a bigger story deployment. Therefore it constitutes a particularly interesting "chapter" in a literary text, which prevents the reader from abandoning the book (Nicolajeva 2005: 101). Here, we must

mention in addition the foreshadowing, namely the way an author chooses to reassure his reader and to help him withstand the agony of suspense. For that reason, but also in order to produce a satisfying sense of the inevitable, he has to see if there are traces of the final outcome – without damaging or destroying the suspense. These traces in literary theory are called foreshadowing, corresponding to Homer's "prooeconomia". Foreshadowing, thus, is a literary adornment, a ploy used to offset the suspense, without destroying it (Nicolajeva 2005: 101). It consists of small traces scattered throughout the story, in order for them to be indicators of the final outcome or a temporary change. They can be incorporated into the action at a very early point very expertly and with skill so that they are not visible and their realisation by the reader comes much later. Of course, not all readers are ready to recognise all the nuances that the writer allows to infiltrate his story. Their function, in conjunction with the suspense, is very important, as they balance out the narrative.

Before ending we have to touch upon the relationship between suspense and *surprise* as common and crucial elements of interested literary fictions. We are not going to attempt a thorough analysis of their connection – the best suspense literary narratives contain surprise – so as to develop a detailed explanation of how these forms of interest are created in literary texts, and to propose models for them. But we have to clarify that creating suspense involves more conditions, necessary and optional, and more complication than surprise. According to Iwata suspense and surprise are different emotions. Suspense can be regarded as a *progressive* emotion, whereas surprise is a *perfective* emotion. As such, suspense as an interest is considered as a *process-oriented* interest, while surprise is an *effect-oriented* one. Suspense is mostly experienced while reading and has the reader involved with the story. Surprise drives the reader to reassess the story in the new light it throws on events and to look for some further message; this is often a main aim of the literary fiction which ends in surprise (2008: 253-254). Usually narratives combine suspense and surprise rather than containing either of them alone.

3. "Cliff-hanger" Proposed Module

The proposed module is recommended to cover two hours of teaching and there should be two additional hours when the texts, written by the students, will be read.

A. "Warming Up"

The students get the gist; this can be done orally and can be supported with words or phrases on the board and workbooks or on small papers. This warming up is intended to create the feeling that we can create some reality, as we see it and as we want it and to engulf it in our discourse, spoken or written. Our aim is to bring discourse about, to make the words and the phrases prevail in classroom, without serving cognitive or "communicative" needs but functioning autonomously. As an example, we have listed different ways of "warming up" (being understood that no more than two of the following can be chosen):

1. We ask students to propose a singer or actor or the name of a musical band that they like and then we write the proposed names on the board. We challenge a debate on which name is nicer (e.g. Pyx Lax) and which is not really liked (e.g. Dakis because it is the nickname for Vrasidas, Lady Gaga because it sounds bad). These preferences can be supported by the students with the most varied arguments. We do not prescribe the preferences as right or wrong; we just elicit the students' tastes.
2. We ask students to suggest some professions, which are then written on the board. Each student selects a profession and writes down at least three characteristics of this particular professional (e.g. lifeguard – sleek and comfortable shorts- bathing suit, young with sunglasses, binoculars). Then, we ask the students to imagine the professional on the rush hour during his work and to write a typical phrase about it (e.g. the lifeguard dives into the sea, holding a kind of buoy). Finally, we ask them to imagine a scene with the lifeguard relaxed (e.g. holding a cold cup of coffee). For all of the above, they note down some words that will help them

express orally what they have already thought. It is advisable to create a humorous atmosphere with some doses of irony that undermine seriousness.

3. We ask the students to propose an object that is located inside or outside the classroom. We write down their proposals on the board. We give them about three minutes to note roughly the key words that will be required for the description of the object that everyone has proposed.
4. Paraphrasing Rodari, we ask the students to propose one word each, and after discussion we vote for the preferred five; with those words we create roughly a story. This exercise can be divided in two parts: we first select five words relevant with each other (notebook, pencil, computer, exercise, teacher); and then the five more irrelevant (printer, sailboat, sycamore, stem cells, ice cream).

B. Introductory Activity

Students will be informed on what the module is called and then what the module will be about. After learning that "Cliff-hanger" will be a unit of suspenseful and cliff-hanging stories, the students will be asked to write down the definition of suspense in their notes. The plot of Thomas Hardy's "A Pair of Blue Eyes", listed here, will not be given at start to students, who will initially read only the following extract that constitutes a classic scene of suspense. It should be noted that in novels that have been adapted in films, an analogous part of the film could be selected, creating a similar atmosphere, being presented before or after the reading of the corresponding extract.

Elfride takes a telescope to the top of a cliff overlooking the Bristol Channel, to try to see the ship that is bringing back from India her secret fiancé, a young architect. She is accompanied by Henry Knight, a friend of her stepmother. Knight is a mature intellectual man who has made advances to her and she is guiltily becoming attracted to him. As she sits on the top of the cliff, Knight's hat is blown towards the edge, and when he tries to retrieve it, he realises that he cannot climb back up the cliff which terminates in a drop of several hundred feet. Elfride's impetuous efforts to assist him only make things

worse. Knight made a last desperate dash at the lowest tuft of vegetation which arrested his further descent. Elfride disappears from Knight's view, presumably seeking assistance, though he knows they are miles from any human habitation. What happens next? Will Knight survive, and if so, how? Suspense can only be sustained by delaying the answers to these questions. Eventually Knight is rescued by her; but the cliff scene is prolonged from Chapters XXI to XXII, for over ten pages, until the rescue scene, and in the middle of this suspense scene Knight's philosophical reflections on geology and natural history are described:

Time closed up like a fan before him. He saw himself at one extremity of the years, face to face with the beginning and all the intermediate centuries simultaneously. Fierce men, clothed in the hides of beasts, and carrying, for defence and attack, huge clubs and pointed spears, rose from the rock, like the phantoms before the doomed Macbeth. They lived in hollows, woods, and mud huts—perhaps in caves of the neighbouring rocks. Behind them stood an earlier band. No man was there. Huge elephantine forms, the mastodon, the hippopotamus, the tapir, antelopes of monstrous size, the megatherium, and the mylodon—all, for the moment, in juxtaposition. Further back, and overlapped by these, were perched huge-billed birds and swinish creatures as large as horses. Still more shadowy were the sinister crocodilian outlines—alligators and other uncouth shapes, culminating in the colossal lizard, the iguanodon. Folded behind were dragon forms and clouds of flying reptiles: still underneath were fishy beings of lower development; and so on, till the lifetime scenes of the fossil confronting him were a present and modern condition of things.

These images passed before Knight's inner eye in less than half a minute, and he was again considering the actual present. Was he to die? The mental picture of Elfride in the world, without himself to cherish her, smote his heart like a whip. He had hoped for deliverance, but what could a girl do? He dared not move an inch. Was Death really stretching out his hand? The previous sensation, that it was improbable he would die, was fainter now.

However, Knight still clung to the cliff (209-10).

C. Reading - Prediction

All students will be required to read extracts from the book, chosen by the teacher. All will participate in reading. Ask for volunteers first. If no one volunteers, then the teacher will read, but will continue to ask for volunteers to read. Stop after each section and have students predict and confirm or rethink predictions.

Teach prediction based on cues and perusal. Notes: Write on board: *Predicting Outcomes: You identify details and hits to guess about what will happen in a work of literature.* Have students make a chart in their notebooks similar to this one. I have already listed the questions on my chart, but students will write the questions and their predictions when we get to that point in the story. Do not list the questions in their chart, yet. As we read *A pair of Blue Eyes* students will make predictions at key points (marked in the teacher's edition) during the story. They will then go back and confirm or rethink what actually has happened in the story. Indicatively, we suggest types of questions that could be used after the reading of the aforementioned proposed extract.

Table 1: Spreadsheet of possible types of questions

Question	Prediction	Outcome
How did Knight found himself here?		
What is his relationship with Elfride?		
What do you think is his profession?		
What do you think will happen next? Will Knight be saved or not?		

D. Vocabulary Index Card Matching – journalists

The students take finally into account the continuation of the story, through a summary of the text, provided by the teacher. Tape one vocabulary word or definition on each student desk. Some desks may require more than one card. Students then will be asked to write a context sentence with their vocabulary word. (The vocabulary words come from *A pair of Blue Eyes* This novel gave us the generic term "cliff-hanger").

Then the students will have to write down

what they felt when reading the story and send these thoughts as reportage to a literary journal, where they are supposed to be employed as journalists and critics. When the students are finished writing in their journals, they will be allowed the opportunity to share their journal reports. We will further discuss how suspenseful literature will leave readers hanging “on the edge” and wanting more.

E. Homework (Projects) / Presentations

Individually or in groups, students will be called to write a short story imitating a cliffhanging story, adopting all the techniques that were mentioned above and have been used in the classroom. We remind them and motivate them to use the next:

Unusual Events: Realistically employ an unusual event to create curiosity, which over time can build into suspense. Maybe the overnight appearance of a wrecked car across the street or the presence of a strange object left in someone's room without any logical explanation will get the reader engrossed.

Unreliable characters: A character that does not always tell the truth or an unreliable narrator can help create an air of mystery and intrigue. A common response from the reader is to ask why is the character not telling the truth and what is he trying to hide.

Ultimatums: Having a character face a deadline or an ultimatum is another time-tested method to hook the reader. One prime example is the story of Cinderella, where the midnight deadline helps create an inviting storyline. Moviemakers do it all the time with great success, but that does not mean this method is easy, for overkill is a real concern here. The ultimatum or deadline must be realistic and tension should increase as the story moves forward to the moment of truth.

Unexpected Turn of Events: Whenever a story sets off in a new and unexpected direction, there is bound to be more interest on the part of the reader. A classic example from the world of fairy tales is the story of Jack and the Beanstalk. Who would expect that a seed, even a magic one, would grow so tall overnight and lead to such a fascinating and scary world?

Pacing: Pacing of a story is a reliable manner to increase suspense. A steady build-up of tension along with an increased sense of events unfolding can guide the reader towards the

climax and ending of the story. In general, the use of dialogue tends to increase the pace of the story. So begin the tale with a large amount of descriptive wording and gradually work towards text that is heavy laden with dialogue.

Depending on the teaching time we can devote and the teaching goal we have set, part of the exercises or whole ones can be done in classroom. In the case of a group work, we urge them to work consecutively continuing the story that another student has written up to a point, namely a critical one. A brief reference can be done to similar projects in Greece or abroad. It is understood that not all presentations can be read, but alternatively they can be uploaded on the classroom's electronic magazine or they can be printed and “hung” onto a corresponding to the subject of the teaching intervention board.

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DEDICATED TO THE USE OF LITERATURE FORMS IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE SCHOOLBOOKS

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Abstract

This paper reports on the using literature forms in English language schoolbooks. It aims to show that "Using Literature forms in the English Language schoolbooks" is a concept that has its focal point in language development. Also, any syllabus based on this concept should also maintain language as the central concern. For this, it is imperative that curriculum developers depart from the traditional view attached to literature. It is also equally important that the syllabus has suggestions for teaching strategies and forms of assessment. The objectives may outline the importance of literature towards language development, but they become redundant if the teaching and assessment techniques do not apply those objectives practically. The first part of the paper expounds on the perceived goals of the process of using the literature materials. The second section focuses on the effects of teacher's development.

Keywords: *literature, literature forms, schoolbooks, language*

1. Introduction

The use of literary forms in the English language teaching school textbooks is enjoying a revival for a number of reasons. Having formed part of traditional language teaching approaches, literature became less popular when language teaching and learning started to focus on the functional use of language. However, the role of literary forms in the English language teaching school textbooks has been re-assessed and many now view literary texts as providing rich linguistic input, effective stimuli for students to express themselves in other languages and a potential source of learner motivation.

My aim in this paper is to present the general view of using literary forms in English language school textbooks. Although the studies on the use of literary forms in teaching English have been increasing abroad, in my country, particularly in public schools, only English grammar is being taught. The students who are expected to memorize these rules cannot use English. My aim is to exhibit why and how literary forms can be used in order to teach English effectively and efficiently.

For a long time, literature has not been included in the curriculum of teaching English

since teaching a foreign language has been regarded as a matter of linguistics. "In sixties and seventies, in fact, there was a distinct reaction against the use of any literary English at all in the classroom, but now the pendulum has swung the other way ..." Jennifer Hill (1994). As is mentioned by Jennifer Hill, there is a growing interest for the use of literature in EFL (English as a first language) / ESL (English as a second language) classes in recent years, and there are studies on how to use literature in EFL/ESL classes in the world.

The teachers of English in the above-mentioned schools concentrate on teaching grammar. After the explanation of the rules of grammar, teachers give their students mechanical drills, and the students are obliged to make the drills consisting of unrelated sentences. The students, therefore, memorize the rules. As for reading, special course hours are not devoted to develop the reading skills of the students. In classes, the passages in the course textbooks, which are usually far from motivating the students, are studied. First, the vocabulary is given, and the students have to memorize it. Then, the teacher asks factual questions about the passage. The answers to the questions are easily seen in the passage. So, the students do not have to infer anything from the passage.

"Language is not only langue, but also parole". (Roger Sell, 1995, p.12), Teaching a foreign language, therefore, is an act of teaching and developing the reading, speaking, writing and listening skills of students as well as introducing the culture of the society within which the target language is spoken so that our students can understand what language actually means, instead of what it tells. Roger Sell (1995) points out that "From the point of view of language education, the most important implication is that knowledge of linguistic form – of words and grammar- is not enough. For the purposes of both comprehension and production, a learner also needs to develop a fully internalized grasp of the social and cultural environments within which the language in question is actually used". He adds as well that "We know what the language means because, in certain types of context and language use within the culture, certain signifieds are associated with certain signifiers, and because language is used in certain ways in certain situational contexts" (Sell, 1995, p.9). In order to develop students'

comprehension and production skills, literary works seem to be the most suitable materials. Jennifer Hill (1994) mentions the reasons for using literature as extensive readings follows: the possibility of internalizing the language and reinforcing points previously learned, a genuine language context and a focal point for the students in their own efforts to communicate and the most important – the Motivation.

2. Traditional Approaches

The teaching of literature has recently been resurrected as a vital component of English language teaching. Over the past few decades, there has been much discussion on the value of attempting to teach any kind of literature, whether it is the classics or any imaginative work written in English, as part of an English language syllabus. For instance, in the sixties and seventies, there was a distinct reaction against the use of any literary English before the pendulum swung again in support of literature teaching. The opposition towards literature may well have been due to the impact of the approaches that were practiced in the decades prior to the sixties and seventies and prevailing ideas in language teaching and methodology.

The study of literature acquired eminence during the Romantic period when the Romantic poets such as Wordsworth and Coleridge asserted that the "imaginative truths" expressed by literature were superior to those discovered by scientists, historians and other scholars:

the Poet, singing a song in which all human beings join with him rejoices in the presence of truth as our visible friend and hourly companion. Poetry is the breath and finer spirit of all knowledge; Poetry is the first and last of all knowledge - it is as immortal as the heart of man.

(Wordsworth: 1805)

Literature was seen as a body of knowledge which ought to be learnt for its own sake. The process of creativity and the entire body of literature were given an honored and elevated status that sustained the elitist nature which the study of literature had already acquired.

In examining traditional approaches to literature, what is apparent is the prevailing views amongst the elite were continually emulated by educationists, possibly preventing a

clearly-defined role for literature teaching in education. Most of these views remained as propaganda and failed to motivate a reasoned set of proposals as to how a literature course could be designed. The ultimate purpose of literary criticism can be defined as interpretation and evaluation of literary writings as works of art and the major concern of the critic is to explicate the individual message of the writer in terms which make it clear to others. However, this is a difficult process to implement without a sufficiently explicit and pedagogically-oriented definition of the nature of literature study as a subject. A consistent assertion that literature illuminates the mind with no specific aims in terms of objectives only served to make literature an unpopular subject. Moreover, changes began to happen in the sixties and seventies.

The approaches in language teaching in the sixties and seventies stressed the structural methods to language learning, with emphasis on discrete-point teaching, "correctness" in grammatical form, repetition of graded structures and restricted lexis. These approaches represented a methodology unsuited to literature teaching, and were unable to accommodate literary texts. Thus, in many situations, while English language teaching adopted a structural approach, literature was taught as a separate subject, sometimes comprising purposeless poetry recitation.

Nevertheless, current approaches have endeavored to reexamine the value of literature and have begun to uphold its worth again. These approaches assert the value of literature teaching from several aspects, primarily, literature as an agent for language development and improvement, cultural enhancement and also for the eminence that many poets have previously ascribed to it.

Literature is beginning to be viewed as an appropriate vehicle for language learning and development since the focus is now on authentic language and authentic situations.

3. The Relationship between Language and Literature

It is difficult to supply a watertight definition of the term "literature" but what can be asserted is that literature is not the name of a simple, straight-forward phenomenon, but an umbrella

term which covers a wide range of activities. However, when it becomes a subject of study, it may be seen as an activity involving and using language. The claim "the study of literature is fundamentally a study of language in operation" (Widdowson: 1971) is based on the realization that literature is an example of language in use, and is a context for language use. Otherwise, studying the language of literary texts as language in operation is seen as enhancing the learner's appreciation of aspects of the different systems of language organization.

Linguistic difficulty has been one of the main arguments against literature. There has been a general pre-supposition that to study literature, one required knowledge of the intricacies of language and an inherent interpretative ability to derive the writer's message.

Traditionally, literature has been used to teach language use but rarely has been used to develop language use.

The advantage of using literature for the latter purpose is that literature presents language as discourse, in which the parameters of setting and role-relationships are defined. Carter (1986) insists that a natural resolution would be to take an approach in which language and literature teaching are more closely integrated and harmonized than is commonly the case at the present time so that literature would not be isolated, possibly rejected, on account of the "literariness" of its language: It is my contention that some of the language activities and work with models on the literariness of texts can aid such development, and that responses can best develop with increased response to and confidence in working with a language using a variety of integrated activities, with language-based hypotheses and in classes where exploratory, student-centered learning is the norm.

Another argument against literature also relates to literariness. With the shift to communicative approaches to ELT in the eighties, literary language is seen as not providing the conventional and appropriate kinds of language required to convey, practical, everyday messages. Poems, plays and novels make use of the same basic language system but have differing functions from non-literary discourses in the communicative function. The result is that poets, novelists and playwrights produce linguistic messages, which by their very nature, stand out

prominently against the reader's background awareness of what is both communicatively conventional and linguistically appropriate to the social purpose that the message is to fulfill, though grammatically intelligible in terms of syntax and vocabulary.

Yet, what emerges from such work is the recognition that the precise contextual values of every word, phrase, clause and sentence can be inferred from its interaction with all the others in the text.

4. The advantages of using the literary forms in English language

School textbooks

John McRae (1994) distinguishes between literature with a capital L - the classical texts e.g. Shakespeare, Dickens - and literature with a small l, which refers to popular fiction, fables and song lyrics. The literary forms used in the English Language school textbooks today are no longer restricted to canonical texts from certain countries e.g. UK, USA, but include the work of writers from a diverse range of countries and cultures using different forms of English.

Literary texts can be studied in their original forms or in simplified or abridged versions. An increasing number of stories in English are written specifically for learners of other languages. The types of literary texts that can be studied inside and outside the English language teaching classroom include:

- Short stories
- Poems
- Novels
- Plays
- Song Lyrics

Literary texts provide opportunities for multi-sensorial classroom experiences and can appeal to learners with different learning styles. Texts can be supplemented by audio-texts, music CDs, film clips, podcasts, all of which enhance even further the richness of the sensory input that students receive.

Literary texts offer a rich source of linguistic input and can help learners to practice the four skills - speaking, listening, reading and writing - in addition to exemplifying grammatical structures and presenting new vocabulary.

Literature can help learners to develop their understanding of other cultures, awareness of

'difference' and to develop tolerance and understanding. At the same time, literary texts can deal with universal themes such as love, war and loss that are not always covered in the sanitized world of course books.

Literary texts are representational rather than referential (McRae, 1994). Referential language communicates at only one level and tends to be informational. The representational language of literary texts involves the learners and engages their emotions, as well as their cognitive faculties. Literary works help learners to use their imagination, enhance their empathy for others and lead them to develop their own creativity. They also give students the chance to learn about literary devices that occur in other genres e.g. advertising.

Literature lessons can lead to public displays of student output through posters of student creations e.g. poems, stories or through performances of plays. So for a variety of linguistic, cultural and personal growth reasons, literary texts can be more motivating than the referential ones often used in classrooms.

Literary texts can present teachers and learners with a number of difficulties including:

- text selection - texts need to be chosen that have relevance and interest to learners.
- linguistic difficulty - texts need to be appropriate to the level of the students' comprehension.
- length - shorter texts may be easier to use within the class time available, but longer texts provide more contextual details, and development of character and plot.
- cultural difficulty - texts should not be so culturally dense that outsiders feel excluded from understanding essential meaning.
- cultural appropriacy - learners should not be offended by textual content.

Duff and Maley (2007) stress that teachers can cope with many of the challenges that literary texts present, if they ask a series of questions to assess the suitability of texts for any particular group of learners:

- Is the subject matter likely to interest this group?
- Is the language level appropriate?
- Is it the right length for the time

available?

- Does it require much cultural or literary background knowledge?
- Is it culturally offensive in any way?
- Can it be easily exploited for language learning purposes?

It is all very well to point out the advantages of teaching literature but the key to success in using literature in the ESL/EFL classroom depends primarily on the works selected. A text which is extremely difficult in linguistic or cultural levels will reap few benefits. Several solutions have been suggested with regard to the problems of linguistic or other difficulties: simplification, extracts or simple texts. Simplification is not generally favored because of its reduction process. The original book is shortened in characters, situations and events, the vocabulary is restricted and the structures are controlled. Extracts are advantageous because they remove the burden of intensive lengthy reading. However, they are artificially isolated for teaching purposes and do not necessarily cultivate interest in reading in the ESL/EFL learner.

5. Assessment

The notion of literature as a difficult and highly academic subject is also reflected in the techniques of assessment. Assessment is still based on critical essays, which impel teachers to focus on understanding the text and inevitably leads to testing for recollection and literal comprehension. However, incorporating literature into the language classroom calls for more emphasis on the development of language skills, enjoyment and creativity. If these elements are the main focus, then it is possible to depart from any literature examination based wholly on memory.

It is possible to assess in a lively, interactive way (where imaginative recreation can take place), in which students are encouraged individually or in group (suitable for continuous assessment) to approach the text in an integrated manner. This could include:

- re-writing a poem/story/scene from a different point of view.
- scripting an episode for radio or television.
- writing or dramatizing what happens

after the events in the poem/story/play.

- writing an incident as a newspaper report.
- writing the diary of a character in the text.
- writing a letter from one character to another, or from the student to a character.
- improvising a scene for live performance.
- interviewing one of the characters.

These suggested tasks could offer students the opportunity to respond imaginatively to their reading experience by developing the text in a way that employs communicative and purposeful language.

Admittedly, these types of assessment strategies would require a more complicated and perhaps even a more sympathetic method of scoring where language accuracy should not be the deciding factor. However, if students were encouraged to use language imaginatively, their interest and motivation for English would increase, and eventually would lead to improved use and performance in the language.

If literature begins to be taught and examined at lower secondary levels in these ways, it will foster enjoyment of the text alongside a deeper and more meaningful understanding of the language. Students will then be ready to explore some of the literary features of the poems and stories, having become fully involved with the writers and characters in the process of language consolidation and imaginative recreation. Still, to assess or to examine literature in a communicative or interactive way demands teaching strategies that also integrate language and literature, allowing activities which require language, which involve students in experiencing language, playing with language, analyzing language, responding to language and enjoying language. These elements can only be achieved if the student is allowed to engage in a process of discovery:

However intrinsically interesting the ideas presented by the teacher could be, they will only appear interesting to the students if they are allowed to discover them for themselves. This is especially true when what is taught is reading, which is always a process of discovery, a creation of meaning by the reader in collaboration with the author. "If this creative dimension is

removed, if we are told the meaning of what we read before we read it, then we are left with the hollow formality of scanning the words on the page, with no incentive to piece them together, to treat them as communication". (Jennings: 1989)

Therefore, it is essential that when literature is brought into the language classroom, it needs a clearly-defined aim, which is an axiom in language teaching for ESL/EFL learners. Only then can literature be successfully integrated into the language teaching.

6. Conclusion

"Using Literary forms in the English Language school textbooks" is a concept that has its focal point in language development. Also, any syllabus based on this concept should also maintain language as the central concern. For this, it is imperative that curriculum developers depart from the traditional view attached to literature. It is also equally important that the syllabus has suggestions for teaching strategies and forms of assessment. The objectives may outline the importance of literature towards language development, but they become redundant if the teaching and assessment techniques do not apply those objectives practically.

Literature generates creativity in language and imagination and should feature in any education system that regards discovery and enjoyment as essential components of the learning process.

To conclude what I mentioned in the introduction was that my aim was to present the general view of using Literary forms in English language school textbooks and I suppose that I did it. I have also stated that although the studies on the use of literary forms in teaching English have been increasing abroad, in our country, particularly in public schools, only English grammar is being taught. The students who are expected to memorize these rules cannot use English. The aim of this paper was to exhibit why and how literary forms can be used in order to teach English effectively and efficiently.

Literature study can also provide a range of texts and an introduction to the many different varieties of English. The same reasons are true for intensive reading as well. Similarly, William Littlewood (2000) emphasizes the importance of

the use of literature in EFL classes as follows:

A major problem of language teaching in the classroom is the creation of an authentic situation for language. A language classroom, especially one outside the community of native speakers, is isolated from the context of events and situations which produce natural language. In the case of literature, language creates its own context. The actual situation of the reader becomes immaterial as he or she takes on what D. W. Harding calls 'the role of the onlooker', looking on the events created by language. These events create, in turn, a context of situation for the language of the book and enable it to transcend the artificial classroom situation.

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DEVELOPING MATERIALS FOR TEACHING GREEK AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE TO YOUNG LEARNERS

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to present a project for teaching Greek as a foreign language. For the purpose of the project, materials and tasks were developed, based on learners' individual needs. The design of the material was based on modern methods of language teaching and contextualized to the experiences of the specific group of learners, which were identified through a needs assessment instrument, before the implementation of the project. The ten theme-based units were created around selected topics from everyday life. Every unit was designed with the aim to offer opportunities for integrated language skills development, as well as to offer a variety of situations, nations and functions and to provide opportunities for self-evaluation. Every unit was taught through three basic stages:

- a. the pre-stage, which was the stage of activating young learners' prior knowledge, stimulating their motivation and familiarizing them with the vocabulary of the unit;
- b. the while stage: the students were engaged in text reading and comprehension, as well as performing vocabulary activities;
- c. the post-stage: in this stage, the students were involved in writing and speaking-interactive activities, such as pantomime and role-play games.

Keywords: *Foreign language, language skills, material development, individual needs*

1. Introduction

The aim of this paper is to present a project for teaching Greek as a foreign language (GFL), which was implemented in the Greek language school of the Association Pelagonia at Bitola (FYROM). Mrs Papathanasiou, the president of the Association Pelagonia, Jasmina Kocovska, the teacher of the GFL classes, and some students of the third year of the Department of Education in Florina cooperated effectively and contributed to the successful implementation of the present project.

The project, aimed at developing receptive and productive skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) of students learning GFL through a holistic and multi-sensory approach. The basic

goal of the project was to develop students' communicative competence and to probe the "nature of social, cultural, and pragmatic features of language" (Brown 1994: 77). The ultimate purpose was to make students able to respond to and communicate both orally and in a written form in a variety of situations and contexts, thus to use the target language for communicative and real purposes.

An attempt was made to develop user-friendly materials and tasks, based on learners' individual needs (Flowerdew & Peacock 2001, Boshier & Smalkoski 2002). On this basis, a framework for needs-based course design was adopted, which involves needs analysis, course design, materials production, implementation of the suggested teaching and learning process and evaluation of the effectiveness and efficiency of the adopted course design (Dudley-Evans & St John 1998). In this respect, the designed material puts forward the need for an approach, which stresses the importance of skills and strategies.

In this framework, a multi-sensory and multisensory approach to teaching GFL was adopted. By using a multi-sensory approach, which combines visual, auditory and tactile-kinesthetic elements into learning a task (Scott 1993), the learners are approached via more than one sensory modality and are appealed to a range and balance of intelligences (Puchta & Rinvolutri 2007). In a classroom consisted of students of different language level, it is necessary to approach the learners in a variety of ways by teaching them via multiple means (Griva & Semoglou 2012). In this way, students enhance their motivation, and increase their willingness to participate in the learning process.

On the other hand, multicognitive approach implies the manipulation of various cognitive processes such as, associating, analyzing, synthesizing, comparing, contrasting, memorising etc. In other words, the multicognitive aspect of the approach encourages learners to

- a. demonstrate understanding of facts and ideas by comparing, interpreting, giving descriptions,
- b. solving problems by applying newly acquired knowledge,
- c. making inferences, d) creating new ideas and products within a rich and naturalistic environment (Gardner 1999).

2. The multisensory project of teaching GFL

2.1. Sample

Twenty five students aged 11 - 13 years old (six boys and fourteen girls) participated in the project. All students were born in Bitola and have been learning Greek as a foreign language (GFL) for three years in the private institution of Pelagonia Association in Bitola city - FYROM.

The great majority of the students declared that they have been learning GFL because:

- a. it will be useful in the future (92%),
- b. they like Greek (75%),
- c. it will be useful for the holidays in Greece (67%),
- d. they have parents of Vlach origin (34%),
- e. they are interested in Greek culture (17%) and
- f. they want to work in Greece and Greek shops respectively (8%). Additionally, all students declared they can speak English, half of the students can speak German (58%), and a significant part declared they can speak French (34%).

2.2. Methodology

2.2.1. Student's questionnaire

Before the implementation of the project in the Greek language institution, a questionnaire was distributed to the students, which was designed with the purpose to elicit information on students' needs in Greek language learning. The questionnaire was translated into students' first language, so that they were able to understand better what they were asked to respond.

- a. The first part included 'Likert-type' questions: students were asked to choose from "much, fairly and little" for questions that fall into the area of encountering difficulties in learning GFL (grammar, vocabulary reading comprehension, speaking, etc.). The main goal was to record their weaknesses, so that the students could be helped to overcome any problems and difficulties. Two of the main difficulties reported by the students were related to a) the writing process and b) learning of new vocabulary (see Table 1).

Table 1. Difficulties encountered in learning GFL

Difficulties encountered in learning GFL	<i>Much</i>	<i>Fairly</i>	<i>Little</i>
Listening comprehension	0%	100%	0%
Oral communication	0%	50%	50%
Reading comprehension	8%	67%	25%
Writing texts	17%	75%	8%
Grammar activities	16%	50%	17%
Learning new vocabulary	34%	41%	25%

- b. The second part of the questionnaire was related to the strategies employed by the participants. The students were asked to choose from “much, fairly and little” for questions that fall into the basic area of language learning strategies: cognitive, metacognitive, memory, compensatory, social - affective (Oxford, 1990; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

Table 2. Students' language learning strategies

List of strategies	<i>Always/usually</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Not usually/Never</i>
I use new words in a sentence which I make up so I can remember them	41%	34%	24%
I say or write new words/phrases many times to learn them	34%	41%	24%
I skip unfamiliar words in a reading text	8%	34%	58%
I mime new Greek words to remember them	8%	41%	50%
I make guesses from context to understand unfamiliar Greek words	67%	24%	8%
I review Greek words and grammar	83%	17%	0%
I make gestures when I can't think of a word during a conversation in Greek	34%	58%	8%
I connect the sound of a new word and a picture of the word in my mind to help me remember the word	50%	41%	8%
I ask for help from the teacher or peers	100%	0%	0%
I use a dictionary to look up unknown words	34%	50%	17%
I use rhymes and songs to remember new words	67%	34%	0%
I translate in L1	67%	33%	0%
I notice my mistakes and use that information to help me do better	83%	17%	0%
I look for words in my language that are similar to new words in Greek	34%	58%	8%
If I can't think of a Greek word, I use a synonym (word or phrase)	0%	58%	41%
I try to find out how to be a better learner of Greek	58%	41%	0%
I make up new words from my language (with Greek sounds or ending) if I do not know the right ones in Greek	8%	24%	67%
I first skim a Greek passage (read over the	58%	24%	17%

List of strategies	<i>Always/usually</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Not usually/Never</i>
passage quickly) then go back and read carefully			
I try to find as many ways as I can to use my Greek	8%	58%	34%
I remember a new Greek word by remembering its location on the page, on the board, or by listening to it in a song, rhyme, etc.	76%	24%	0%
I find the meaning of a Greek word by diving it into parts that I understand	34%	58%	8%
I try to talk like native Greek speakers or the teacher	24%	41%	34%
I encourage myself to speak Greek even when I am afraid of making a mistake	76%	24%	0%
I read books or magazines in Greek for practice	34%	50%	17%
I make summaries of information that I hear or read in Greek (either in my mind or in the margins of the text)	68%	17%	14%
I plan my schedule before starting writing a text	34%	41%	24%
I think about my progress in learning Greek	92%	8%	0%
I ask my teacher or a Greek speaker to correct me when I talk	76%	24%	0%

The data related to students' language learning strategies (see table 2) were taken into consideration for the design of the material. Knowledge about the way in which each student learns helped us to design and include a variety of activities, tailored to individual learning strategies, so that all students are encouraged to participate in the learning process.

- c. In the third part, an effort was made to specify the students' preferred ways to learn. It is important to record their preferences for certain learning aspects in order to create an enjoyable learning environment that reflects and covers the interests of all students. It is not surprising to note that the great majority of the students welcomed 'group working' in a multisensory environment, and showed preference for a variety of 'audiovisual materials' (see table 3).

Table 3. Students' preferred ways to learn

Preferred ways to learn	Much	Fairly	Little
Work in groups	93%	7%	0%
Perform dialogues	74%	16%	0%
Have fewer grammar tasks	50%	34%	16%
Use more audiovisual aids	65%	25%	10%
Read texts related to Greek culture	58%	30%	10%
Write a variety of genres	50%	35%	15%

- d. In the last part of the questionnaire, the students were asked to declare the area in which they would like to make improvements (speaking, reading, oral and written communication, etc.). Through students' responses, it was obvious that need development in both receptive and productive skills (see table 4).

Table 4. Students' awareness of improving GFL

Improvement in GFL	Much	Fairly	Little
Communicating with native speakers	100%	0%	0%
Reading comprehension	58%	25%	17%
Speaking	66%	34%	0%
Listening comprehension	66%	34%	0%
Reading fluently and correctly	75%	17%	8%
Writing a variety of texts	75%	17%	8%
Understanding everyday conversation	75%	25%	0%

3. Materials Design

A module of ten units was produced in Greek, which was based on the students' needs assessment results and the modern methods of language teaching, respected the intercultural dimension and reflected the principles of the "Common European Framework of Reference for Languages" (Council of Europe 2001).

The ten theme-based units, which were created around selected topics from everyday life, took the form of a topic-based booklet of 124 pages and an accompanying CD, which included the listening texts 'performed' by native speakers of Greek language. The material was entitled 'traveling and knowing Greece' and encompassed the following units:

- 1st Unit: Introduce myself*
- 2nd Unit: Travel around the world*
- 3rd Unit: Nature - Holidays*
- 4th Unit: My house*
- 5th Unit: My neighborhood*
- 6th Unit: Greek Culture (Music and Cinema)*
- 7th Unit: Greek Food*
- 8th Unit: Greek Festivals and Celebrations*
- 9th Unit: Greek Books and magazines*
- 10th Unit: Introduce my friends from other countries*

All the units follow the same pattern, consisted of four sections: Reading, Listening, Speaking, and Writing:

- a. 'Reading Greek' section aiming at the development of reading and reading comprehension skills,
- b. 'Listening Greek' section aiming at the development of listening and listening comprehension skills,

- c. 'Speaking Greek' section aiming at the development of oral production sub skills and
- d. 'Writing Greek' section aiming at the development of composing various genres based on specific pattern texts.

For the design of the activities we took into consideration:

- a. children's interests, cognitive skills level and prior knowledge.
- b. certain criteria for 'good' language learning tasks, such as drawing objectives from the communicative needs of learners, allowing for different solutions depending on learners' skills, providing opportunities for language practice (Candlin 2009).

Each unit is finished off with a vocabulary revision list and a self-assessment questionnaire. The students had to write the meaning of the words in their L1, so as to create a 'little dictionary'. Also, there is a self-evaluation sheet/form, translated in their mother tongue and filled in by each student at the end of the lesson. Every student had to evaluate himself/herself and rate his/her strengths and weaknesses at the specific unit on a 5- point scale ranging from 'very much' to 'very little'.

3.1. Receptive skills

3.1.1. Reading

In the 'Reading' section, multimodal texts were incorporated, combining different semiotic codes (linguistic, visual, etc.) and interrelating language and imagery (drawing, photography, images, etc.). Special attention was paid so that the content of the texts responds to a wide range of issues related to students' everyday life stimulating their interest. In an attempt to familiarize students with various genres, make them understand the conventions of various genres, and develop critical awareness of the text messages, a variety of genres were included; for example, narrative texts, descriptive arguments, letters, fairy tales, myths, stories, invitations, advertisements, posters, programs, tickets, restaurant lists etc.

Every text is followed by reading comprehension activities with the purpose to check students' understanding of the gist (skimming) and certain text details (scanning), as

well to make them practice the newly acquired vocabulary. These activities are either second-generation ones or activities that enable students to develop their critical thinking and draw conclusions, summarize and express their views.

3.1.2. Listening

The 'Listening' section comprises a variety of authentic listening texts, such as conversations, presentations, instructions, fables, everyday dialogues (e.g. eating in a restaurant, two little friends talking about going to the cinema), performed by Greek speakers. These texts were composed by the researchers and recorded by Greek speakers, who seemed willing to cooperate to produce the final product, and were included in the CD given to each student along with the booklet.

The pictures and photos accompanying the activities of the listening texts proved to be helpful, because the students were able to know in advance certain information on the text and the communication situation (who speaks, why, which the subject is). The listening comprehension activities are mostly of closed type: filling in the gaps, multiple choice exercises, fill in forms, etc, but there are some open-ended, communicative activities, where students should also express their ideas and opinions, by being engaged in comparing, contrasting, making inferences and solving problems. Emphasis was stressed on the fact that the degree of difficulty of the activities be relevant to students' prior knowledge, without being too difficult to discourage them, or too easy to make them get bored.

3.2. Productive skills

3.2.1. Speaking

The 'Speaking' section aims at creating a real-life communication context in the classroom. It comprises a variety of oral communication activities such as games, role play, interviews, information gap, information exchanges, guess who, problem solving, pair work activities, which are classified into:

- a. functional communication (information - gap) activities, such as comparing pictures, discovering missing features in a map or picture, giving instructions,

following directions, or problem-solving.

- b. social interaction activities (Nunan 1991), which encompass dialogues, role plays, and simulations
- c. problem-solving activities, in which students have to find a correct answer to a situation. In this vein, Richards and Rodgers (2001) stated that language learning is promoted through implementing activities that involve authentic communication and meaningful language use.

Role play, pantomime, and games (language games, puzzles, constructions, and physical games) covered a great part of this section, since role play and games are a basic means of encouraging children's expression and creativity, as well as a means of their socializing and developing language skills. They integrate language skills in a natural way and non verbal aspects of communication, and draw upon both cognitive and affective domains (Maley 2005). For this purpose, role-playing games were specifically created to involve students in different contexts, for example, a TV presentation of a cooking recipe from the country of origin, presentation of the weather forecast in their country, a panel discussion about traditions and stories from the two countries. All these activities aimed at generating a need to speak and communicate in real contexts, in which students understand alongside the conventions of various contexts, the importance of style, tone of voice and verbal and non verbal communication signals (Harding-Esch & Riley 2003).

3.2.2. Writing

The 'Writing' section aimed at developing students' writing skills in a variety of genres, given the model-text in the reading section. The students are asked to:

- a. write letters to lovely friends,
- b. write notes,
- c. describe various objects and experiences from everyday life,
- d. write a diary,
- e. write an advertisement,
- f. write a story from their country,
- g. make invitations and holiday cards etc.

4. Procedure

The project, which lasted for four months, was carried out three hours per week. Each unit was taught in a three hour session through three basic stages:

- a. pre stage,
- b. while stage,
- c. post stage.

Revision and recycling was also regularly built in at the end of every three units.

The teaching/learning context was framed by skills (such as listening, speaking, reading, writing, guessing, interpreting, etc.) as well as reinforced social skills (such as turn taking, starting conversation, ending it, etc.) and language functions, such as introducing, describing persons/objects, asking for things, expressing likes and dislikes, obligations etc. Thus, in such an environment an attempt was made to

- a. stimulate and develop students' multiple intelligences and creativity,
- b. improve the four skills,
- c. create a rich linguistic environment in GFL,
- d. raise students' awareness of what is involved in learning GFL, which encourages them to become more active and responsible for their own learning.

In such a context, teaching was learner-centered, where students negotiate, interact, and cooperate with other peers. In a print-rich classroom environment, authentic materials, taken from 'real life' and brought into the classroom (Richards & Rodgers 2001) such as signs, magazines, newspapers, maps, pictures, graph labels, books, paintings were used.

4.1. Prestage

The purpose of this stage was to

- a. activate students' background knowledge,
- b. increase their interest in the topic and thereby motivate them to read the text,
- c. enhance their vocabulary by providing their exposure to certain lexical items,
- d. familiarize them with concepts and language functions,
- e. have an introduction to the topic of the text before they begin to read the text in order for students be able to recall any

knowledge about the topic.

This introduction could help them understand the new material and enhance comprehension.

The unknown vocabulary was presented to students through a computer, flashcards, pictures, maps, photographs etc. Through the strategy of 'activating the prior knowledge', they referred to previous knowledge associated with the text and understood it better and easier at lexical, grammatical or semantic level (Oxford 1990).

4.2. While stage

The main reading stage aimed at linking the prior –knowledge with the new knowledge and constructing the new knowledge through comprehending the text of the unit ('Reading Greek'). The basic aim was to preview the text to enable students to establish their own expectations about what information they would find in the text and the way that information could be organized (Dole et al 1991). The teacher helped students understand the specific content and perceive the grammatical and rhetorical structures of the text. Moreover, he/she helped them use reading strategies (cognitive and metacognitive) for better reading comprehension (see O'Malley & Chamot 1990).

4.3. Post stage

The post stage aimed at recycling and integrating newly acquired knowledge in new contexts and situations. Emphasis was placed on listening, speaking and writing skills. The main purpose of this stage was

- a. to stimulate students' interest in participating into post reading activities and
- b. to encourage them to 'produce' language and communicate without worrying if they were doing right or wrong.

Young children were provided with the opportunity to engage in the pragmatic and functional use of language for communicative purposes by being involved in semi-authentic situations (Brown 2000).

On the one hand, emphasis was placed on making children recycle and consolidate particular phrases and language functions

acquired during the previous stages, as well as on integrating the new information from the text with what the students already know. They were involved in the 'recycling and integrating process' through writing various genres, 'constructions', discussions, role—plays, pantomiming and creative products.

During their participation in various communicative activities, they were able to understand the rules, receive and give information, and be aware of the communicative use and purpose of the target language in a relaxed atmosphere. Role play, games and simulations provided varied opportunities for using language at different contexts. Also, they were entertaining and provided motivation, as these type of activities can "create a pleasurable low risk environment in which children are able to engage in forms of reading and writing" (Cooper & Dever 2001: 59). Moreover, it was stressed that language is not simply a communication code but also a transmitter of culture, traditions, attitudes and values of the society, of the people who speak it. Thus, through the role playing games and simulations, the students were familiarized with elements of the Greek Culture and compared them with elements of their own culture.

5. Estimation of the feasibility of the project

In order to estimate the feasibility of the project and the factors that affect its implementation (Rea-Dickins & Kiely 2011), information was collected from different and complementary tools:

Focus group discussions were conducted with the students at regular intervals throughout the project to measure the degree of their satisfaction and the difficulties encountered. *Journals* were kept by the researchers every week. In the ten journal entries comments were recorded on the materials used, the teaching process and the students' behavior, motivation and stances developed throughout the implementation of the project (Nunan, 1992). The structure of the journals was based to a great extent on the "reflection questions to guide journal entries" provided by Richards and Lockhart (1994: 16-17).

The journal included a list of questions divided into two main strands a) questions

concerning the teaching process and b) questions concerning the learners. The data revealed that the children showed interest in participating in certain communicative activities, mainly role play and pantomime. During the intervention, a friendly environment was created, allowing the students to develop their social and language skills, and to express their creativity. Additionally, students' difficulties that were observed and recorded helped the researchers to redesign certain parts of the intervention. The main difficulties were recorded in writing skills and specifically in orthography, since the Greek phonemes often do not correspond to a single phoneme. Furthermore, another difficulty was recorded in students' recognizing the various genres and responding to the specific conventions of each text-genre.

Short interviews were conducted with the students upon completion of the project, to record their attitudes towards the project and the degree of satisfaction. Students' comments were related to practices, techniques and activities. Also, they reported on whether they were helped in certain areas by the project. Generally, they enjoyed learning through the specific project, since they were provided with stimuli and opportunities for the development of language skills through participating in a game-based context, where they realized that learning an L2/FL can be more than an interesting process.

6. Conclusion

The aim of this paper is to present a project for teaching Greek as a foreign language. For the purpose of the project, ten topic based unit were created, incorporating elements of Greek culture in order for the learners to know and use them alongside with their own culture. During the implementation of the project, an attempt was made to create a pleasant and creative environment, where the students communicated spontaneously in GFL. A multisensory and multidimensional approach was followed though the use of visual material, and stimulating verbal and non verbal communication and music. In such a context, games and constructions were among the most successful activities of the teaching process, since they seemed to stimulate students' motivation and enhance their participation in the learning process. Also,

listening texts recorded by native speakers proved to be attractive to the students and contributed to the practice of their listening skills to a high degree. Concluding, it is worth noting that the whole project was conducted smoothly and helped the students develop holistically their language skills by participating in communicative activities and expand their experiences in basic areas of the Greek culture.

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ESP AT FYROM UNIVERSITIES: STATE –OF-THE-ART

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Abstract

Similarly to affecting the entire educational system, the introduction of the ECTS at FYROM universities had undoubtedly made certain impact upon the ESP as well. Although we recognize changes as being largely expected and wanted, we must admit that there emerge some new aspects that were neither expected nor foreseen and that as such, they require a completely new approach that we need to develop. This paper deals with the state-of –the-art of ESP at university level in the newly arisen circumstances, the advantages and disadvantages that are created by the ECTS requirements and the options or restrictions imposed by them. The author hopes to shed some light upon these new circumstances and share the experience with other professionals in the field.

Keywords: *European credit transfer system, English for specific purposes, Education System, Syllabi*

1. Introduction

The introduction of the ECTS at the University “St. Clement of Ohrid” began with a joint TEMPUS project which aimed at reorganizing and restructuring the existing higher education system. The pilot project consisted of introducing the ECTS at the Faculty of Technical sciences in Bitola, more precisely, at the Department of Transportation Engineering. The other two partner institutions were Ghent University and Politecnico di Torino. Several visits were paid to our university by the partner institutions, strategies and possibilities were discussed and later, workshops were organized. These workshops were devoted to presentations given by experts from partner institutions to familiarize our faculty with some of the basic concepts of ECTS as well as with some of the necessary changes that needed to be made in order to adjust our higher education system to the forthcoming, newly designed conceptualization of the level of education in question. Since it was a question of shifting the entire system from the widely adopted and constantly practiced education traditions to a completely new system of education, it was not difficult to perceive that such a change would require a deep and profound preparation both of faculty and

administration. It was therefore important that faculty and administration equally gain some insights into crucial aspects of this practice. Several visits to partner institutions were organized for them during the project period. The pilot project was introduced at the mentioned department in 2002. Later, other higher education institutions followed this practice and began to work on the introduction of ECTS in their own institutions.

Changes and adjustments had to be made in the following areas:

1. Curricula
2. Syllabi
3. Exams
4. Document administration

We must bear in mind that the traditional higher education system had been practiced in FYROM for longer than half a century and had produced a large number of really highly appreciated and widely recognized highly educated professionals who, not only participated in all areas of our country development and progress, but were always much wanted and easily accepted abroad for all sorts of tasks. Being seen by many concerned in this light, the traditional higher education system had little need to be replaced, amended or restructured. So, the first obstacle could be located exactly in this area: on what grounds could the ECTS be justifiably introduced to an education system that seemed almost flawless?

Of course, another way of understanding was also present and it is to this part of higher education employees that we can today be grateful for the major leap made by FYROM higher education in the early beginning of this decade. FYROM was lucky to have this progressive force that understood the need for our higher education system to become integrated into the European higher education system and have the opportunity to collaborate on this level with many widely recognized and highly appreciated European universities.

2. Influence of the introduction of ECTS on curricula design

In order to be able to introduce the ECTS with all the pertinent features for its real and most profound realization, the first step that had to be undertaken was the redesign of curricula. The traditional curricula were burdened by many

subjects that unnecessarily created part of the study programs thus making them too difficult for the students to master. So, the Department of Transportation Engineering had first to begin with the redesign of curricula. Much dispute arose in connection to this part, since some of the subjects were to be left out. It was not an easy job to decide which subjects were not necessary any longer. Once this was agreed, the next step was to limit the number of subjects per semester, as well as the number of classes per week. It was within these limits that later the curriculum was made. It was also agreed that all subjects would be taught only for one semester. Subjects were divided into compulsory and elective with the elective subjects actually being those that would have the most important part in profiling the desired type of professionals.

It was at this point that policies for taking the exams and evaluation of acquired knowledge were agreed; two mid-term exams for each subject were to be enabled during the semester. Only those students who would fail to pass them, would need to take the whole exam at the end of the semester.

As far as English was concerned, in the traditional curriculum it was taught as an elective subject (the other options being other foreign languages. So, a student could choose among English, French or German. In the late seventies when the Faculty of Technical Sciences was founded, most of the students would, for well known reasons, choose German. In the eighties this interest changed to the favour of English. French was chosen only by those students who came from areas in which only this language was taught in primary and secondary schools). In the new modernized curriculum, English was determined as a compulsory subject, as it was considered as an important tool for the further and broader education of students. However, several years later, the Faculty of the Department of Transportation Engineering made a decision, according to which English was made an elective subject again, but, this time, it could be chosen among a number of other elective subjects (not only foreign languages). This meant and it still means that students can graduate from this department without ever having taken any foreign language, which deprives them of the opportunity to become familiar with the important particularities of a foreign language for specific purposes (be it English, French, or

any other language). In other words, they could graduate from this institution without acquiring the important tool that would enable them to gain deeper professional knowledge without having to wait for the most recent developments in the field to be translated.

Later, English was treated similarly at all the other departments at this institution when they introduced the ECTS. Needless to say, such a situation was particularly unreasonable for the Computer Science Department, since, it goes without saying that English is the universal language of computing. At this department, English was done injustice with the allocation of credits as well. This led to the decreasing of students' interest to take this subject.

In most of the European universities students cannot enter the faculty they want to study at without a proof that they have mastered English at the required level. Students who fail to prove this are obliged to take English courses and pass the required tests. In this way, these universities stress the importance of English in the world of science today. At our university, and as far as I am informed, at all FYROM universities, there is no such a prerequisite. Although it might be assumed that our freshmen have been taught a particular language during their formal, compulsory education, we must admit that these was usually a general English course and that they never took any formal classes in the field of English for specific purposes. The standpoint of laymen is of course astonishing: to them, as they say, "English is English" and the discussion is over. But professionals should know the difference and do whatever they can to contribute towards the establishment of important rules to govern the study of foreign languages for specific purposes.

Very often, in our country, professionals in a particular field (engineers, economists, journalist and alike) are asked to translate a particular issue in a foreign language instead of bothering to hire a professional. This is why, we can sometimes observe amazing "pieces of translation", such as the following:

"Друштво за трговија Еуро Тоолс дооел".....
 "Сите конкуренти својата биографија..."

"Contact center operator" преведено со
 "Контакт центар оператор" ¹ (Дневник,

14.08.2010)

There are unfortunately numerous such examples that can have only one conclusion: there is still a lot to be done in teaching English and all professionals should be engaged in the process of defining the ELT at university level and determining its proper place and function.

3. Influence of the introduction of ECTS on syllabi design

The pilot project mentioned earlier was to make certain influence upon the syllabi design as well. Forms were proposed and established and they were the pattern according to which all syllabi had to be designed, which meant that syllabi for all subjects taught would have the same form. These forms comprised technical data such as: the subject title, its code, the semester when its taught, its type (compulsory or elective), the name of the teacher, required prerequisites, subject content, allocation of time required for its realization (lectures, seminar work, homework, time needed to prepare the exam etc.), the way the exam is prepared and conducted, the number of credits assigned to the subject (which results from the amount of time assigned to a particular subject for all the above mentioned activities), and, certainly, the suggested literature. The traditional syllabi did not conform to a strict form indeed, but they reflected the distinctive features and particularities of each subject separately and allowed for teaching staff to design them with consideration of these features and particularities. The new forms introduced with the ECTS simply deprived the teaching staff of the possibility to reflect in the syllabi design the uniqueness of each subject and, since their length was restricted to one page only and the designed form, all syllabi looked almost the same. They were not given in full detail, but rather, they presented an abbreviated version of the subject content. On the other hand, as we are all well aware of, the ECTS is a system that above all opens to our students numerous possibilities for mobility. The students exchange program requires genuine transcripts and copies of the syllabus for each subject and it is therefore important that colleagues at other universities be precisely informed of the overall activities and content completed and covered for each particular subject.

Advertisements in the Daily Newspaper "Дневник" No. 40508, from 14.08.2010, p. 33

4. Exams

As far as the exam is concerned, it must be stressed that the ECTS was to bring about some essential changes. All subjects, regardless of their nature and the admitted particularities, lasted only for one semester, after which the exam was to be taken. Two mid-term exams were planned for each subject, which were to be held during two mid-term exam weeks (the sixth and fifteenth week of the semester). The good news for the students was that they were allowed to take the second mid-term exam until the next academic year (i.e. for the subjects taught in the winter semester until September the next year, and for those taught in the summer semester until February the next year.) The two successfully completed mid-term exams entitled the student to a successfully completed exam. No oral exams were held.

Whenever trying to adopt some new and modern concepts to a particular system, care should be taken of all the distinctive features of "the soil in which it is to be planted". It's no wonder that certain concepts from foreign countries and societies cannot be simply introduced into our societal system without considering the specific cultural habits and behavior of the peoples in our country. In other words, typical patterns of culture and the way of living of a particular ethnos should neither be neglected nor underestimated. It is a fact that what functions flawlessly in one system does not always yield the same results in another. The point is that holding of written exams only can give rise to positive results even for those students who do not actually speak the language and have little knowledge in this subject. That cheating at exams is present in our education system is no secret; and indeed, many measures are taken to fight this negative phenomenon, but with little or no effect so far. As far as study of foreign languages is concerned, it is very important that the teacher has a chance to make sure that students' success at exams is genuine. The only way to do it is to have an oral exam, immediately following the written one. It was not an easy job to convince some of the Faculty members of this fact at some institutions. Fortunately, other institutions were capable of seeing the difference between teaching a foreign language and other subjects, and they gave in to the attempts to introduce oral exams for the

foreign languages.

Syllabi designed according to ECTS also required that students should give a presentation, an activity which also participates in the formation of the final grade. The first problem here is that students are not thoroughly prepared for this activity during their previous education, let alone to do it in a foreign language. So, most of the presentations at the early stages were in fact only reading assignments until, the problem was recognized and another approach taken. Today, at least for English language classes, some time is devoted to lectures and exercises in giving presentations aiming at facilitating this aspect of English. The result is that presentations are now much more successful and interesting and students are often given the maximum of points allocated to this activity.

As it was said earlier, according to the ECTS syllabi design, students are expected to do homework and teachers are expected to allow some class time for correcting and controlling homework. Since in the traditional higher education system homework was not assigned, it was quite demanding to direct the students to become used to this activity, as doing homework always was and is very likely to remain, associated with earlier stages of education.

This also refers to the attendance to lectures and practical exercises; in the traditional higher education system credit was not given for attendance and being a university student always granted freedom for students to decide whether they wished to attend classes or not.

This news was not easily accepted by students. Since the pilot project, there have been different reactions to it and many different views. Regardless of them, however, these requirements have remained as proposed at the beginning.

No wonder these changes required other changes to be made in the existing conditions, such as lecture rooms, computers and other technical support. For instance, large groups of students have always been a burden for the teacher and students alike when it comes to teaching foreign languages, but since now stress was put on students' attendance, the existing lecture rooms became too small for all students who attended classes. Some faculties could cope with this problem as they had larger and better furnished lecture rooms, but others couldn't. It

was uncomfortable for teachers and students alike to participate in foreign language classes with a number of students three or more times larger than the room could host. Since teaching a foreign language (English in this case) demands good working conditions (even more so for group activities, listening or reading exercises and alike), teaching English in these conditions often seemed as a task that could not be accomplished. On the other hand, the Faculty rarely had understanding for the specific characteristics of English language teaching and additional staff could not be easily hired given the fact that English language was in fact taught as an elective subject. Such teaching conditions on the one hand, required experienced teachers (and given the fact how many new faculties have recently been founded, this large number of experienced English language teachers was not immediately available for this level of education) and, on the other hand, these unusual teaching circumstances gave rise to a greater need for teachers' inventiveness and creativity. Needless to mention, English language teachers had to spend much more time preparing their lectures. No matter how challenging and motivating this may seem, their additional engagement was not motivated by any additional financial compensation.

It was in these circumstances that certain most varied classroom activities were carried out. For example, for the first year students of economics, at the Faculty of Economics in Prilep I prepared a group work for a class of over three hundred students. They were divided into three groups. The first group had to compose a job advertisement; the second group (which was the largest), wrote application letters for the job, and the third group was given the task to read the application letters, invite several candidates to an interview, choose five most successful candidates and explain on what grounds the choice was made. Students later said that the class was not only very interesting, but also very useful. Most of the students found this activity very challenging and they estimated very highly the practical side of this class. They said it seemed as a segment of real life communication.

Another activity conducted with large groups at the same faculty was a presentation given in English by a group of three students which was simultaneously translated into French and German by the students who attended classes in

these languages and also spoke English. This class was recorded and later these translations were discussed with the students and the French and German languages teachers. Students were very enthusiastic about such classes.

It must be admitted that besides these pleasant and successful classes with large groups of students, there were cases when it was altogether difficult to carry out classes in these given circumstances and when help would have been highly appreciated. An experienced teacher quickly becomes aware of bored, unmotivated faces and must immediately have at hand an additional technique to animate the less interested students.

In English language teaching large groups are sooner an obstacle than a motivation and authorities should try to understand it and find a solution for it.

5. Document administration

The introduction of the ECTS in the higher education system brought about another change that, at least at our Faculty, presented somewhat of a burden for the English language teacher. Earlier in this paper I mentioned checking and correcting homework. Another type of additional work for the teacher are the presentations. The teacher has to plan extra time during the class for presentations. It is the teacher who also has to help students decide what topic they are going to present (which has to be relevant and interesting) and suggest possible sources which they can consult. The teacher has to discuss with each student separately the chosen topic and help him with the language prior to the presentation, thus making sure that the student will have the needed self-confidence to give the presentation in English. No student would like to feel uncertain and they all want to avoid any possible sources of embarrassment. Our faculties are now technically well equipped with all the required equipment, so the teacher has to make sure this equipment is in function and undertake all the necessary steps to put it at students' disposal.

The teacher also administers all the written work, including written tests, mid-term exam tests, presentations, homework and all the other documents that are relevant and taken into consideration for the final grade. Lists of points have to be displayed prior to the oral exam and

they are kept for further reference and analysis of the accomplished results.

Unsuccessful students are invited for further discussions and possible additional activities that would enable them to fulfill the required threshold of 51 point.

So, in the light of the ECTS, the English language teacher has obtained additional responsibilities for accomplishing the important and responsible role he has always had.

6. Conclusion

It will take some time, as it usually does, to assess the results of the newly-introduced system of teaching and evaluating which is today known as ECTS.

This paper dealt only with ELT at the university "St.Clement of Ohrid"-Bitola, looking closely only at ELT at two of its higher education institutions; however, what is said here, seems to be applicable to all state universities in Macedonia. Besides for a couple of cases, ELT at higher education institutions is carried out by young and not very experienced English lecturers. On the other hand, besides their lack of experience, they are faced with the very demanding and serious tasks of ELT at university level, large groups of students and shortage of time and technical equipment, to mention only some of the problems. On the other hand, they permanently have to deal with heterogeneous groups of students from aspect of their previous education, background and obtained knowledge. The necessity to have a sound and practical system of assessment of students' level of EL proficiency and apply it prior to students' enrollment at universities, seems very urgent and pressing. Another possibility is to open language centres in which students could obtain EL /FL courses which would enable them to achieve the required EL/FL proficiency.

But, of course, as with any newly-introduced concept, when it comes to ELT there also some advantages of the ECTS. The first, and perhaps the most important gain to the education system is the new, flexible and modern way of observing and understanding the higher education system as a system that is capable of both recognizing and conducting transformations and changes, rather than being a system that is given once for ever as it used to be observed earlier. This gives rise to many possibilities to

analyze and understand the disadvantages and the enthusiasm, on the side of all concerned, to look for changes that would enhance the quality and improve the results of the entire higher education system. This becomes even more feasible with practicing the mobility underlying the entire concept of ECTS. This aspect of the ECTS simply opens numerous possibilities to assess, evaluate and revise both curricula and syllabi with an ultimate goal to obtain an educational system compatible to the society and its needs, but of course, primarily to the students for whose benefit it exists.

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GENRE-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING: AN EXAMPLE BASED ON CORPORA

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Abstract

The genre-based approach is an epiphenomenon of the communicative approach to language teaching. The text becomes the centre of teaching, not just the pretext for teaching grammatical phenomena. Students must come into contact with a great number of text types (which are usually produced by mixing different genres) in order to acquire the necessary literacy that will enable them to fulfill the requirements of school and of their future professional and social life. In this paper, an example of the application of this approach is presented based on the use of language corpora.

Keywords: *Language teaching, genres, text types, corpora*

1. Introduction

The genre-based approach is an epiphenomenon of the communicative approach to language teaching. It focuses on the communicative situation and the way language use must be shaped in order to be more efficient. The need for focusing on the text has emerged as an effect of its consideration as a communicative fact which must conform to the situation as well as to the whole social environment that causes its production.

But language teaching has always been based on texts. The lesson has always begun with a text, usually literary, and the teacher together with the class were looking for the unknown words, the meanings it conveyed, its structure, the grammatical phenomena that were of interest. Grammatical phenomena were usually the main reason why a text was selected to be taught. Those happened in the traditional and the structural method. For the communicative approach, the text is a stimulus for communication: students produce oral or written language with a subject related to that of the examined text.

What more is done with the genre-based approach? The text becomes the centre of teaching, not just the pretext for the teaching of other things.

2. Genres

Let us examine the linguistic base of this approach. The genre-based approach is

grounded on the notion of “genre” as well as the notion of “text type”. I will distinguish four main genres: description, narration, argumentation and instruction¹. Each genre has certain characteristics distinguishing it from the others. The connection of genres with their special structural and grammatical characteristics aims at the creation of the so-called “text grammar” and it is directly related to language teaching, because it is attempted to teach grammatical phenomena in relation to the texts in which they play a functional role. This is reflected on the new language curricula of the primary and secondary schools, that insist on this relation and pursue the transition from the study of the word to the study of the sentence and finally to the study of the text. The significance of genres is also reflected on language school textbooks, which nowadays include all of them and focus on their special features.

Let us now briefly consider the characteristics of each genre:

2.1. Description

Description is static and focuses on place, not on time. The grammatical features of description can easily be found in the following extract of the presentation of an ancient vessel:

«*Η επιβλητική γαλήνη που μαρτυρεί το ζεύγος της Αριάδνης και του Διονύσου, ο οποίος μοιάζει να ανακλαδίζεται ατάραχος στο μέσο της τελετής των πιστών του, ισορροπεί με την πολύ βιαϊότερη κίνηση των **μαινάδων** που χορεύουν προς τιμήν του. Ακόμη, το **κάλλος του θεού, της συζύγου του και των μαινάδων** εξισορροπείται σοφά από τα **προσωπεία των σατύρων**, όπου όμως τα ζωώδη **χαρακτηριστικά** συνυπάρχουν με ένα **είδος έκστασης**»².*

We observe a great use of nouns (in bold) and many adjectives (underlined) that determine the qualities of these nouns. Place is indicated (στο μέσο, όπου) and present tense is used.

Consider now the following literary description:

«*Το **σαλόνι** ήταν ακατάστατο, δεν υπήρχε **πιάνο**, ούτε **κουνιστή πολυθρόνα**, σκοτεινό.*

*Η εσωτερική **σκάλα**, μπογιατισμένη καφετιά, ήταν στρωμένη μ'ένα μακρόστενο **χαλί**, σαν **κουρελού** της Ελλάδας. Ένα **μωρό** έκλαιγε...» (George Sari: Ζωρζ Σαρή, Νινέτ 2003: 190).*

We find again a plethora of nouns (in bold) and adjectives (underlined). Past tense is used here which, in the same way as present tense³, qualifies the subject of the verb, and for this reason it is used in description⁴.

2.2. Narration

In contrast to description which is static, narrative develops through time. This is its principal feature. Here an extract of a history school textbook is presented:

«Η εποχή του Διαφωτισμού

Εξελιξείσθαι στην Ευρώπη κατά τον 17^ο και τον 18^ο αιώνα

Κατά τον 17^ο και 18^ο αιώνα συντελέστηκαν στην Ευρώπη σημαντικές μεταβολές. Πρώτα απ' όλα σημειώθηκε θεαματική αύξηση του πληθυσμού. Παράλληλα, έγιναν μεταβολές στην αγροτική οικονομία..., προκειμένου να καλυφθούν οι ανάγκες του συνεχώς αυξανόμενου πληθυσμού. Αυτό το σημαντικό φαινόμενο ονομάστηκε, από τους ιστορικούς, αγροτική επανάσταση. Ακόμη, αναπτύχθηκε το εμπόριο ανάμεσα στην Ευρώπη, την Αφρική και την Αμερική (τριγωνικό εμπόριο), αλλά και στο εσωτερικό της ευρωπαϊκής ηπείρου, με αποτέλεσμα τη συσσώρευση κεφαλαίων στα χέρια Ευρωπαίων επιχειρηματιών. Η αύξηση της ζήτησης έφερε μεταβολές στη διαδικασία παραγωγής μεταποιημένων προϊόντων, με κυριότερη τη χρήση νέων μηχανών που είχαν μεγάλες δυνατότητες.

Έτσι, από τη μια πλευρά υπήρχαν επιχειρηματίες που διέθεταν κεφάλαια. Από την άλλη πλευρά, υπήρχαν χιλιάδες πρώην αγρότες, οι οποίοι, λόγω των μεταβολών που συνέβαιναν στην αγροτική οικονομία, είχαν μείνει δίχως εργασία και είχαν καταφύγει στις πόλεις αναζητώντας κάποιο εισόδημα. Οι δύο αυτοί παράγοντες οδήγησαν, χάρη και στην καταλυτική παρουσία ισχυρών μηχανών, στη

¹ For a brief presentation of different genre classifications, see Georgakopoulou & Goutsos 1999: 66-68.

² This extract is presented by Mitsikopoulou in her text *Discourse, Text: Description*.

³ In Greek there is only one present tense; there is no distinction between simple present and present continuous.

⁴ See Anscombe, 1992: 45, Sakellariou 1998: 66-68.

δημιουργία μεγάλων εργοστασίων, δηλ. στη γέννηση της βιομηχανίας, την εκβιομηχάνιση».

(Λούβη, Ε. & Δ. Χ. Ξιφαράς. Νεότερη και Σύγχρονη Ιστορία Γ' Γυμνασίου. Αθήνα: ΟΕΔΒ, σ. 10).

From a grammatical point of view, we note the use of simple past tense (αόριστος in Greek), in order to indicate action (συντελέστηκαν, σημειώθηκε, έγιναν, ονομάστηκε, αναπτύχθηκε, οδήγησαν) and of the past continuous (παράτατικός in Greek) in order to indicate the setting of action⁵ (υπήρχαν, διέθεται, συνέβαιναν). As it has been shown in analyses of oral speech mainly, the use of historic present, contrasted to the use of simple past, usually marks a turning point in the development of action (see Wolfson 1982, as referred by Georgakopoulou & Goutsos 1999). Time markers are observed (Κατά τον 17^ο και 18^ο αιώνα, πρώτα απ' όλα, παράλληλα) as well as causal ones (προκειμένου, με αποτέλεσμα, λόγω, χάρη), which indicate the causal relations that exist between facts. Narration can be told in the third person or in the first, if the narrator participates in the facts.

2.3. Argumentation

From a linguistic point of view, argumentation is characterized by the presence of discourse markers that determine the text's structure: *first, second, in the end, consequently*. Among these markers we observe elements such as *however (όμως), but (αλλά), on the other hand (άλλωστε)*, which introduce the counter-argument into the discourse. Furthermore, argumentation is characterized by many verbs that express modality, either epistemic if the argument is based on logic

[it is possible/ probable (μπορεί, είναι πιθανό, ενδέχεται)].

«Η βιωσιμότητα μιας επιχείρησης δεν εξαρτάται μόνον από τις εμπορικές αποφάσεις που παίρνει ο ίδιος ο επιχειρηματίας. Πολλές φορές επηρεάζεται ανεπανόρθωτα από ζημιές που θα μπορούσαν ν' αντιμετωπιστούν αποτελεσματικά με την κατάλληλη ασφαλιστική προστασία.

Οι Γενικές Ασφάλειες Κύπρου, σταθερά προσηλωμένες στην ικανοποίηση των συνεχώς μεταβαλλόμενων αναγκών του Κύπριου επιχειρηματία, προσφέρουν μια μεγάλη ποικιλία ασφαλιστικών σχεδίων για επίλυση των οικονομικών προβλημάτων που μπορεί να δημιουργηθούν από ασφαλισμούς κινδύνους».

(advertisement of the General Insurance of Cyprus)

or deontic if the argument is based on ethic values

[use of the imperative mood, modal verbs meaning *must* (πρέπει), *it is needed* (είναι ανάγκη), *it is necessary* (είναι απαραίτητο) etc.]

«Ασφαλώς, είναι καλές οι ανακοινώσεις και χρήσιμες οι αποφάσεις για την καταπολέμηση της διαφθοράς. Αναγκαία η αναζήτηση νέων μεθόδων και συστημάτων για την πάταξή της. Αλλά, όπως έχει περίτρανα αποδειχθεί από όσα καθημερινά έρχονται στο φώς, οι τρόποι και οι μέθοδοι διαφυγής των κυρώσεων είναι περισσότεροι. Η διαφθορά πηγάζει από τον νου και την καρδιά. Και εκεί πρέπει μακροπρόθεσμα, μαζί με τα άμεσα τεχνικά μέτρα, να κατευθυνθεί η θεραπευτική αγωγή της κοινωνίας μας. Αρχίζοντας από την ορθή αγωγή των παιδιών, των μικρών και των μεγάλων, κάνοντάς τους να αγαπήσουν την ομορφιά της αγνότητας και της τιμότητας. Να μάθουν να αποστρέφονται την απάτη· και να μην καμαρώνουν γι' αυτήν. Να συνειδητοποιήσουν ότι η ειλικρίνεια, η ευθύτητα και η δικαιοσύνη, όλες αυτές οι μορφές της αγνότητας στο ώριμο βίο, δεν είναι αδυναμία αλλά ιδιότητες ευγενικού και αδαμάντινου χαρακτήρα - που τελικά παραμένει ό, τι πιο πολύτιμο για την οικογένεια, την κοινωνία και τον πολιτισμό».

(Extract from the Christmas message of Archbishop Anastasios of Albania

http://borioiprotis.blogspot.gr/2010/12/blog-post_6175.html)

In both examples shown above, it is clear that argumentation is characterized by a great number of nominalizations. Actions indicated by verbs, for ex. καταπολεμώ (τη διαφθορά) *to fight (corruption)*, αναζητώ (νέες μεθόδους) *(to search for new methods)* in the text above are

⁵ For the distinction between action and setting of action in narrative, see Hopper 1979, Wallace 1982, Givón 1987.

transformed into their corresponding nouns *καταπολέμηση (της διαφθοράς) (fight against corruption)*, *αναζήτηση (νέων μεθόδων) (searching for new methods)* and, thus, they acquire the status of observable entities with specific qualities⁶ (*αναγκαία η αναζήτηση νέων μεθόδων*) (the necessary searching for new methods).

2.4. Instructions

The genre of instructions can be connected to the one of argumentation, that aims at addressing the recipient, and be considered together to be a kind of directive discourse. The language of instructions has verbs in (timeless) present or in the imperative and less often in the subjunctive mode, but also discourse markers which indicate the series according to which instructions must be followed. (In the following extract, text numbers function as discourse markers). Usually in these texts, the cause for which instructions are given is also stated, in order for the recipient to be convinced that he must follow them. See for instance the advices no 2 and 3 in the following text which presents advices for the environmentally friendly use of dish washing machines.

**«Ελεύθερα πλυντήρια πιάτων
ΣΥΜΒΟΥΛΕΣ για φιλική χρήση προς το
περιβάλλον**

1. Τα μεγαλύτερα και τα πιο λερωμένα σκεύη, να τα τοποθετείτε στο κάτω μέρος ώστε το νερό να ρέει ελεύθερα ανάμεσά τους και να επιτύχετε καλύτερη πλύση.
2. Επιλέξτε πρόγραμμα χαμηλής θερμοκρασίας, αφού για τη θέρμανση του νερού απαιτείται αρκετή ηλεκτρική ενέργεια. Πλέονοντας στους 40oC μπορείτε να έχετε την ίδια αποτελεσματικότητα στην αντιμετώπιση των λεκέδων.
3. Μην υπερβάλετε στη δόση. Πάρα πολύ απορρυπαντικό δεν κάνει τα πιάτα καθαρότερα. Αντίθετα, η υπερβολική χρήση απορρυπαντικού μπορεί να υποβαθμίσει την ποιότητα υδάτων του εδάφους.
4. Καθαρίστε τακτικά το φίλτρο του πλυντηρίου και φροντίστε να το

τοποθετήσετε πίσω σωστά».

(<http://www.pitsos.gr/Files/Pitsos/Gr/el/Images/pitsos/Old%20for%20New.pdf>)

The significance of genres is usually reflected on language school textbooks, which nowadays include all of them and focus on their special characteristics.

3. Text types

Most texts do not contain pure genres. The various text types (after the notion of genre, the notion of text type is the second basic notion of the genre-based approach) are produced by mixing different genres and may be named descriptive, narrative, argumentative or instructive from the genre which is more dominant in them; i.e. a text may be named narrative not because it does not contain descriptions, but because narration predominates.

Various text types are distinguished between them, because each one follows its conventions. Of course, these conventions are not considered as strict rules, but mostly as models that, depending on the communicative needs, are followed more or less faithfully, to the point that text producers may improvise. There is a plethora of text types: fairy tales, novels, letters, advertisements, scientific or journalistic articles, essays, travel guides, applications, conference proceedings, and many others. In all of them, the readers (or hearers) must be interested in the text producer and consumer, the aim of the communication, the message itself, the medium of transmission. All these elements must be discussed in class in order to determine the type of each studied text. These elements determine also the text register. Three register levels are distinguished: formal, neutral and familiar. The register's level is reflected on the morphology, the vocabulary and the structure of discourse more generally. Formal texts, for instance, are characterized by the use of passive voice, passive participles and subordinate syntax. A typical example of distinguishing different categories into the same text type is formal letters vs. familiar ones.

Another substantial distinction is made between oral and written texts. Written language obeys to different conventions and has different characteristics from oral language. But nor this distinction is absolute, because orality

⁶ See Halliday 2000.

and literacy, i.e. the characteristics of the oral and the written speech, can be placed on a continuum; consider the e-mails or a prepared speech: they share characteristics of both codes.

On the other hand, genre-based language teaching does not mainly concern literary texts, which aim at aesthetic pleasure, appeal to the feelings, and teachers must treat them accordingly. Teaching covers a wide range of texts found outside school, but it must also cover texts of the other school subjects. I refer to history texts, as the one I have shown above, to philosophical texts, but also to other content area texts like mathematical or physics texts that use a particular terminology and obey to certain conventions, that must be acquired by the students.

Students should come into contact with a great number of text types in order to acquire the necessary literacy that will enable them to fulfill the requirements of school and of their future professional and social life.

Students must recognize these text types, determine the purpose for which they were written, be able to produce them themselves, and even transform them and produce hybrid texts. One step further is the development of critical literacy, to which the genre-based approach finally leads. According to the principles of critical literacy, students must observe critically the texts and be able to read the unsaid messages behind the lines. Texts are not taught for grammar's sake; the reverse happens. We must not have in mind grammatical phenomena to give our attention to a text.

4. An example

Let us now see an example of the application of the-genre based approach. I have chosen some extracts from the language school textbook of the third Gymnasium⁷ grade. The chapter starts with the following text taken from the book *Free Spirit (Ελεύθερο Πνεύμα)* by the writer Giorgos Theotokas (Γιώργος Θεοτοκάς). The text refers to the different European nations. The grammatical phenomenon studied is the distinction between the two relative pronouns that exist in the Greek language: *pu* (που) and *opios* (οποίος).

«Η Ευρώπη είναι σαν ένας κήπος που συγκεντρώνει τα πιο διαφορετικά

λουλούδια, τα πιο αταίριαστα χρώματα. Κάθε φορά που περνούμε τα σύνορα μιας ευρωπαϊκής χώρας, αισθανόμαστε πως όλα αλλάζουν τριγύρω μας, όχι μόνο η γλώσσα και οι κοινωνικές συμβάσεις, μα κι ο αέρας που αναπνέουμε, κ'ή ουσία της γης που πατούμε, κι ο χαρακτήρας των ανθρώπων που συναντούμε. Σε κάθε ευρωπαϊκή χώρα αισθανόμαστε αμέσως μια ιδιαίτερη έκφραση, μοναδική και αμίμητη, μια ιδιαίτερη φυσιογνωμία, ζωντανή και αεικίνητη, δημιούργημα της φύσης, των αιώνων και της ιδιοφυΐας ενός λαού».

Γιώργος Θεοτοκάς, *Ελεύθερο Πνεύμα*, editions Εστία 1929

Some other texts on Europe follow and then the exercise:

(p.67) «I am hearing and I am speaking⁸

Reread the first paragraph of the text and underline the sentences having *pu*. Try to locate to which word each one of these sentences refers.

Try to replace all the *pu* with the correct forms of the pronoun *opios*.

Discuss in the class your observations concerning the changes that have been provoked to the text's register. Which of the two versions do you prefer? The one with *pu* or the other with *opios*? Why? Why do you think the writer prefers the version with *pu*?»

This exercise is genre-based, because not only it invites the students to locate *pu* in the text, it also helps them think on the distinction between *pu* and *opios* by replacing them in the text. But I don't think that the students just by replacing *pu* with *opios* in this text would be able to draw conclusions concerning their use, nor to understand why the writer prefers *pu* to *opios*.

In the next page of the school textbook these elements are given:

(p.68) «I am learning that:

The adjectival relative propositions are introduced with the relative pronouns *opios* and *pu*. *Pu* is more often used, especially in the oral speech. *Opios* is used mostly in formal speech».

I think that if the students had in mind more texts where *opios* is used, they could themselves be driven to these conclusions and consolidate

⁷ Gymnasium partly corresponds to High School.

⁸ The translation is mine.

them better. The richest text sources that allow us to search for texts according to one's own criteria are electronic corpora. For the Greek language there are two big electronic corpora: the National Thesaurus of the Greek Language (ΕΘΕΓ) (<http://hnc.ilspl.gr>) of the Institute of Speech Processing which presents entire sentences and the Corpus of Greek Texts (ΣΕΚ) (www.sek.gr) which presents concordances. Since it is more convenient for this presentation to examine full sentences, we will use the first one. The results for the entry *opios* are shown below:

Οι αιώνιοι ρομαντικοί της εφημερίδας χρησιμοποιούν ακόμη τον υπολογιστή ως μικρό έπιπλο πάνω στο οποίο στοιβάζουν αναμνηστικά.

Το πέρασμά του έγινε η αφορμή όχι μόνο για να καταρριφθεί άλλο ένα «οχυρό» των τιμών του αργού πετρελαίου, που ξεπέρασαν τα 70 δολάρια το βαρέλι, αλλά και για να αναδυθεί στο προσκήνιο ένα πρόβλημα γνωστό, μεν, το οποίο όμως μόλις πρόσφατα άρχισε να συζητείται ευρύτερα.

Το άνοιγμα των στρατηγικών αποθεμάτων αργού, το οποίο εξήγγειλε η Ουάσιγκτον στο πλαίσιο της βοήθειας προς τα πληγέντα διυλιστήρια, φαίνεται πως άνοιξε τον «ασκό του Αιόλου».

Όπως παραδέχεται ο πρόεδρος της Εθνικής Ένωσης Πετροχημικών και Διυλιστηρίων (NPRA), Μπομπ Σλότερ, «επί σειράν ετών προσπαθούμε να πείσουμε την κυβέρνηση ότι τα εγχώρια διυλιστήρια είναι στοιχείο εθνικής ασφάλειας, για το οποίο δεν ενδιαφερθήκαμε αρκετά, ούτε όταν η ζήτηση αυξήθηκε».

Πολλούς έχει αιφνιδιάσει η αντοχή της παγκόσμιας οικονομίας στη σημερινή πετρελαϊκή «υστερία» και αρκετοί είναι εκείνοι που εκφράζουν εικασίες για την «ορθή» τιμή, ήτοι τα επίπεδα στα οποία το πιο ζωτικής σημασίας εμπορεύσιμο αγαθό του κόσμου θα σταθεροποιηθεί μεσοπρόθεσμα.

We can see five text extracts. By pushing the number in front of each extract, a larger piece of the text where the extract belongs appears.

Considering the results above as well as others that we could find for *pu*, students

themselves could draw the conclusion that *opios* indicates formality, since it is used in texts where vocabulary is formal [see for ex. the words *καταρριφθεί* (overthrow) and *αναδυθεί* (emerge) in the second extract, *εξήγγειλε* (announce) and *πληγέντα* (grieve) in the third extract, *εγχώρια* (indigenous) in the fourth extract] and syntax is formal as well (see for ex. the extended use of passive voice and the long sentences in all extracts). In a wider sense, returning to Theotokas's text, students will understand that he chooses to use *pu*, because, although he writes an essay, he prefers his register not to be formal; he wishes to be closer to the reader. Theotokas belonged to the literary tradition of the so called 'demoticians', the supporters of *dimotiki*, the low variety in the Greek diglossia that existed then. By choosing not to be formal he remains faithful to this tradition, since the formal register was identified with 'katharevousa', the high variety of the diglossia. It is now clear that the genre-based approach advocates not only the use of the text as a beginning, but also as an end, in order to see how the studied phenomenon functions in the text. This phenomenon can be either grammatical or it may concern the genre of the text or the text type or the text's subject. (In our case the returning to the text was done when students were asked to replace *pu* by *opios* and see the changes that occur). In a parallel manner, it is advisable to use other texts, as the ones provided by the electronic corpora.

5. Conclusion

Certainly the genre-based approach improves the communicative skills of the students, who must come in contact not only with one but with much more 'typical' samples of a text type, in order to become able to produce it. If, for example, the teacher asks them to create a poster, an invitation etc., they must study at least three or four posters or invitations and understand the conventions of these text-types⁹. The same must be done with the other text types. The necessity of analyzing more texts is also dictated by the need to examine the subject treated each time from various points of view.

In closing this paper, I would say that to some extent the genre-based approach resides in

⁹ See Tisset & Léon 1992.

traditional practices (since texts have always been used in language teaching), but, supported by the progress made in Text linguistics, it has developed into a much more substantial practice of studying texts and language more generally. It aims at developing students' literacy and helping them become more efficient language users.

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HOW TO ORGANIZE COMPLEX LEARNING ACTIVITIES WITH STUDENTS IN ORDER TO ENHANCE THEIR PERFORMANCE IN FRENCH

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Abstract

Introduction of learning activities are materialized in different didactical units and their order. The goals aimed through these activities are different. They are closely connected to the linguistic communicative content, learning and teaching. In our paper we will treat the relation or rapport between the selection of such activities with the concept of learning. The role of these activities will be considered within the frame of communicative method of teaching. In the paper a very important part will be covered by a thorough didactical analysis of some activities presented in the book 'Sans frontieres' and 'Cartes sur table' and several operations that will be used for their application. The students' expectations will be taken into consideration and their skills will be stimulated in order to realize the complex character of learning activities. All these will accomplish the realization another crucial demand of the learning process. This will have its impact on the success of pedagogical activity inside the class and out of it.

Keywords: *teaching, learning, performance, French*

1. Introduction

The learning activities are important in order to reach the objectives set by the teachers and students to acquire the foreign language in scholastic institutional conditions.

The interest of teachers of foreign languages is to urge and mobilize all the student's skills which influence their results in the acquisition of foreign language.

The objective set by teachers and students for the learning and teaching of a foreign language is not the learning in itself as knowledge but it is the communication and the interaction in the foreign language. Based on this important objective will have to be adapted all the teaching activities and its content, the appropriate methods should be chosen, and all the actors of the foreign language teaching and learning processes will have to be known.

The teacher of the French language has to include all the activities during the teaching practice. In his work "*Nouvelle introduction a la didactique du francais langue entrangere*" of H. Boyer makes a division and clustering of the

most frequent activities of the teaching and learning process as follows:

- Finding,
- Combination recognizing, and distinguishing various elements in a text
- Search of elements, hypothesis construction and verification
- Creativity and
- Reformulation and translation
- Trancodage oralization
- Memorization and reproduction
- Comparison and classification
- Evaluation and self-correction
- Conceptualization and explanation

Carrying out the complex learning activities with students aims at raising their performance in French language.

2. The organization of didactic activities in "Cartes sur table"

Let's see in short and interpret the conception and the understating that authors give to the learning and teaching activities and the objectives of these activities. This will be analyzed by two different methods of teaching French language for foreigners. The first one is Cartes sur table by R. Richerich & B. Suter which is a manual for adult beginners and Sans Frontiers of Ph.Dominique, J.Girardet, M.Verdelhan.

At the first method the pedagogic activities are directed by the teacher and can be carried out with the whole class, in small groups or individually by the student. The authors divide them into three categories:

- a. Activities of sensitizing a student about a linguistic problem or the learning process.
- b. Activities of discovering by the students which will help them to find solutions for communicative and linguistic problems.
- c. Practical activities by which students use linguistic structures and other techniques of learning or communicating.

If we analyze the discovery activity of the learning unit No 8 page 65 at the Cartes sur table Method, we will notice which are the actions that the authors and the teacher aims to mobilize at the student.

The document presents a drawing of a house on fire with the legend: "*Le poete a dit: "moi, j'emporterais le feu"*". The activities that the student will develop are:

8a. What will you take? (*To be saved by the fire*. Our note). Students will use different verb forms in conditional present tense.

Later, it is given the learning situation: Imagine which objects your teacher will take!

At 8b students are asked to observe the grammatical tables of future and present tense of conditional (le conditionnel present).

And later on, it is asked the question about the morphologic formation of the conditional tense (comment on forme le conditionnel?).

At 8c the exercise puts the student in a different situation, e.g. Belgians had their holidays in France, and they are asked to choose their destination/s by using the conditional and by answering the question: where will you go? *Et vous? Ou iriez-vous?* By looking at the overall activity, we might say that the main issue raised for the students is the correct acquisition of the use of present conditional to express a hypothesis or a supposition. Additional to this assignment is the linguistic request to use the contextual learned lexis and the formulation, and the expression of a short message in French, as well.

The activity has a complex character and the student will learn during its development to use together specific requests for each component, being that the correct use of conditional forms, the construction of an active vocabulary and the one of expressing a personal standpoint with the minimum of the lexis learned.

At the next page, students are introduced to two situations with drawings where different relations between interlocutors are presented. The objective of the authors is to draw the attention of students toward the communicative aspect of the language. The communication can take different forms. At the activity d8 page 67, the assignment given to the students is: look at page 66, what do you see?

Situation 1.....Situation 2.....Situation 3.....

And later it is given the request: read the dialogue.

A: oh Agnes!

B: Catherin! Bonguour ca va?

A: biet et toi?

B: moi ca va.

A: et chez toi?

B: ça pirrait aller mieux. Romain a eu un accident de voiture

A: grave?

B: non heureusement.

The request that follows is: how long will the conversation between the two characters last?

We think that this request urges students to put themselves in the role of the cartoon characters and to continue communication adhering to the given situation and trying to develop it further. So the given situation can serve as a starting point for using free communication about a simple topic entwined with the use of conditional forms about expressing a polite request or an information in a non-categorical way, keeping a distance from what is said.

The situation that follows at the right page (where the schematic around which the organized activity is given) presents a character that refuses to smoke the cigarette offered to her with the reply: *No merci! Je ne fume plus!*

Our character (who is a female) has in front of her some smoking interlocutors who based at their facial expressions are saying something to her. The student is asked to find out which is the message each of them is communicating.

At the following rubric titled: *personal exercises*, the students are asked to carry out a combination of the use of personal objective pronouns that replace respective nouns with the use of the conditional to express a hypothesis. We are dealing with structural exercises which are completed with situations which require from the students to find and use various expressions that exceed the typical sentences.

We will mention an example.

Tu prends le train de six heures?

Je le prendrais bien, mais

Tu viens demain soir?

Je viendrais bien, mais.

The expressions that the student may use to argument his/her disapproval are very spontaneous. They are not directly related to a lexical or grammatical requirement which might directly source from the objectives of this teaching unit. It is clear that this activity exceeds the narrow boundaries of a simple exercise that has only a single request. The combination of the request for the appropriate acquisition of the

forms of conditional, of personal objective pronouns and the communication situation with its various choices make this activity a complex exercise which fulfills some purposes.

In page 69 we notice another interesting activity. After 6 situations presented at the animated film, the activity g8 requires from the student: *Look at the drawings. in this situation what would you say in your mother tongue?* We have to do with an activity which intends to make the students aware of the communication issues. It is up to the teacher to guide and help the students to try to carry out the activity by activating those words and phrases that are part of the already known vocabulary and putting them off from searching for unknown words or phrases with the main objective of unblocking the communication and fulfilling the requests with the known lexical units. The pedagogic of comparison with the mother tongue (which will be the speeches in your mother tongue?) is another successful way used, because it helps the communication by facilitating the achievement of the communicative objectives of this teaching activity.

Another activity presented in pages 74-75, exercises d9 and e9, and the personal exercises are an example of the interaction of the activities and the fact that it is required the mobilization of all the student's skills to perform them. Exercise d9 asks the student: read the text in page 74. *Who writes to whom? Which words are used and to whom?* Whereas the following exercise and the personal exercises have a more practical character. So we can clearly notice that the activity of discovering and finding different communicative elements is connected with the practical exercising of linguistic forms during communication. By the latter, it is meant the use of various forms of objective pronouns with verbs in demonstrative and imperative way and the construction of imperative messages with verbs already known by the student. We will cite some examples:

Enfin, écoute-moi. > oui, je t'écoute.

Je t'attends à huit heures? > d'accord, attends-moi à huit heures.

3. Some characteristics of teaching activities in "Le nouveau sans frontieres"

Let's see now some similar activities presented in the method *Le nouveau sans frontieres*.

In the first level of the method it has drawn our attention an activity of lesson 3, Unit 3. it is exercise 12, p. 127 in student's book, one written exercise of the rubric Activities C. The request of the exercise is: design the investigating report of a police inspector about two animated film characters that consists of a pedagogic document that the authors have presented in order to show the knowledge and the objectives that students have to reach to acquire them.

During the study of this document, students will know and analyze a model of shifting from the direct speech at the report to another kind of speech. We are presenting a part of the model of the report made by the authors at part B of the document shown in Unite 3:

RAPPORT D'ENQUETE

SUR BEATRICE ET FLORENT DUPUIS

Emploi du temps du 01/04

M: Dupuis. Il a passe a journee dans les champs avec son troupeau.

Il est parti vers 6h. Et il est revenu vers 20h.

Personne n'a vu M. Dupuis entre 6h et 20h.

The teacher will study together with the student the characteristics and the differences between these two forms of speech in French. By becoming aware of differences between them:

- At the report there are no question answers;
- We have changes of pronouns from the first person to the third person.
- Lack of unnecessary information that might be given directly by the person asked and sticking to the point that the investigator is interested in.

By knowing these elements, students will try to develop the assignment correctly. We have to do with an information reformulation activity by changing the form but retaining the essence of the content we are interested in. Students have to make a similar report about the other two characters Patrick Ferrand guide and Rene Dupuis student. In order to carry out the request of the activity, students have to primarily identify the required elements of the report.

Later they have to put them in the chronological order by following the formal requests based on the given model in the document studied. Another request might be asked as it is the lexical reformulation of the message. It should not be forgotten the attention to bring in the report the facts and to leave out the subjective elements as the reaction of R. Dupuis "*No je n'ai pas kinappe mon oncle! Vous pouvez regarder dans le placard. Le 25 mars, je suis parti cherz des amis dans les Pyrenees.*"

Another interesting activity for us will be exercise 11 of lesson 56 of teaching unit 4 *La reine des sables* in pg 191. By using the data the authors present to the student, the latter has to build a publicity document for the city of Montpellier in France. The assignment asks students: "*Votre publicite doit attirer les tourists.*"

It is naturally not a simple formal transformation. It has to be stated that the requested shift, that is the realization of this assignment requires primarily the acquisition and the good knowledge of the vocabulary because we can't pretend that students will use the information they do not understand, thereafter students have to know which is the message that the created publicity documents will transmit. We are actually dealing with the achievement of communicative objectives in a simulated situation. The model presented to students is a document prepared by the authors which is shown in part C of Unite 5 with the title *Vers l'avenir*. We are presenting the document:

LA CAMARGUE

Terre d'hier et de demain.

Des paysages ou des chavaux et des taureaux vivent en liberte.

Un pays qui a garde ses traditions.

Une terre qui produit du riz, du ble, de la vigne, des arbres fruitiers...

Une region ou viennet des milliers de tourists.

The text presented to students has complete information for a beginner's level of students. We have to do with 13 sentences which give data about the climate, the past, the education and naval tourism, etc. We are presenting here just a part of it:

Redigez un document publicitaire pour la ville de Montpellier. Utilisez les informations ci-dessous. Montpellier est la capital du Languedoc. C'est une ville de 250000

habitants. Le climat y est doux et ensoleillé pendant une grande partie de l'année. La ville a gardé des vestiges d'un riche passé. ...

Mais Montpellier est aussi célèbre pour son Université, la plus ancienne de France.... Enfin, Montpellier est à 10 kilomètres de la Méditerranée...

It is expected that students carry out an assignment related with the written expression. Students will have to know the differences that exist between these two types of texts. A publicity document has to be short as the model they have already studied at this lesson. It has to be at the same time concise and should present important and necessary data, and be attractive to the public it is addressed to (tourists) as well. The level of creativity the activity requires is different but it is still not limitless for this type of exercise. For such, the exercise is not a simple communicative activity.

The student has to reformulate a given text (the abundant information around the city of Montpellier). In order to do this, the student has to find the most attractive and important information. This assignment requires the student to have a good knowledge of the lexical meaning of the words and the expressions used in the text. For us the activities of learning and text content acquisition are combined with the expression or the written production and can be considered as separate from each other.

Another aspect of the interaction between the different activities of teaching and learning can be the combination of the communicative request with the request of the grammatical acquisition and the correct use of relative sentences (propositions relatives) to characterize a person or a thing. It is the case for the students to imitate the models from the viewpoint of using the relative pronouns for such purpose. Even in this case, the teacher can organize an activity called: Create a publicity document on one of the cities of Albania (Tirana, my birthplace etc.). To accomplish this assignment, the student should be reformulating from the native language to French. This will be done in a lexical level and it is a kind of imitation or compiling a text with several lexical versions. Beyond the formal similarities (we have to do with a written task) we have to emphasize that learning activities are based on content. The idea

that "...interactions can be performed during concrete teaching and learning activities..." is reinforced.

4. Conclusions

As a conclusion, we have to add that different classifications of activities aim at representing the conditions of a teaching and learning situation. In this way, they realize "...the integration of personal matching skills of the student toward the main line of learning that is linguistic production¹

The success or failure of the common work of teachers and learners in the classroom environment is always related with the realisation of the complex character of the teaching activities. This accomplishment will provide better conditions for improving the process of teaching and learning French as a foreign language.

It is important that the teacher should adapt the activities depending on the level and students' expectations, classifying them according to certain standards. He should also be careful to consider the differences that might exist between learning objectives and those that are related with evaluation.

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¹ H. Boyer, M. Butzbach, M. Pandanx, "Nouvelle introduction à la didactique du français langue étrangère". CLE International, pg. 178, Paris, 1990

IMMIGRANT PARENTS' VIEWS ON THEIR CHILDREN'S LINGUISTIC, COGNITIVE AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

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Abstract

The aim of this study was to record Albanian parents' views on their children's L1 (first language) and L2 (second language) development as well as the role of primary school on their children's cognitive and social development. Moreover, an attempt was made to explore parents' attitudes towards their involvement in their children's in-school and out-of-school activities as well as their stance on their collaboration with school community. 40 immigrant parents of Albanian origin living in the wider area of Florina participated in the study. Their views were recorded via semi-structured interviews. The data were analyzed qualitatively based on:

- a. the Miles and Huberman's analysis framework,
- b. the Fairclough's critical discourse analysis.

Keywords: *immigrant parents, bilingualism, attitudes, social development*

1. Introduction

Greece has been an immigrant receiving country since early 90s with a number of immigrant populations coming from Balkan countries, the countries from ex Soviet Union, as well as from Asia and Africa. As a result, the school population has changed including a significant number of immigrant children, especially Albanian origin children who constitute the great majority of foreign-born students in the Greek education (Gotovos & Markou, 2004). As immigrant children are encountered in school contexts, education is concerned with the provision of equal opportunities and access to education quality. A number of variables have an impact on immigrant students' language development and school attainment. Among them, the educational policies followed for immigrant students in reception countries play a fundamental role in the bilingual development of immigrant children (Chen 2006).

The absence of a certain policy that promotes formal L1 teaching for many of the immigrant's languages in the educational systems of many countries resulted into a) subtractive bilingualism or even semibilingualism, b) shaping negative attitudes of immigrants children to their L1, which is

considered as a low status language (Schupbach 2009, Chen 2006), as well as not a useful language for communication in their everyday life (Mansoor 2004). This is especially the case of immigrants who do not plan to get back to their country in the future or are merely interested in developing their children's oral skills in L1 (Schupbach 2009, Baker 2001).

Since in many reception countries there have not been established bilingual educational systems to support biliteracy of immigrant children, parents themselves assume the responsibility for developing their children's L1 skills (Pauwels 2005). Parents appeared to support their children in order to develop both L1 and L2 skills as well as acquire academic skills in both languages (Langager 2010). Moreover, parental involvement plays a central role in children's successful literacy competence and school attainment (Marschall 2006). In a longitudinal study (Kloosterman et al. 2011), a positive relation between parental involvement and children's achievement in mathematics and language was revealed. Children's experiences in the first grades of primary education are of fundamental importance and parents play a key role in determining their children's experiences and their academic attainment (Domina 2005, Jeynes 2007). Also, parental behavior and attitudes are important in affecting children's language choice. Parents can contribute to their children's bilingualism if they are "clear about their own values and preferences, developing models which best support their children through the developmental process" (Fantini 1987: 36).

However, immigrant parents confront some barriers regarding cooperation with school and are subsequently less likely to be involved in school activities, such as lack of L2 proficiency, parental educational level, disjunctures between school culture and home culture, lack of understanding of school organization, limited knowledge on educational issues and other practical constraints (Tinkler 2002). Time availability is also a crucial predictor of involvement; parents who work full-time hours do not spend much time to get involved in their children's school and out of school activities. In addition, parents very often keep distance from school life and the teacher because they feel insecure and inefficient and have a different

point of view about their role in their children education (Kauffman et al. 2001). In some cases, the culturally different populations and mostly immigrants usually differ in the way they understand issues such as school volunteering, parental participation in their children's education, organizing school activities for children or regular meetings with the teacher (Stavans et al. 2009, Symeou 2008).

Although Greece has been an immigrant receiving country since early 90s and has been a multicultural society where people from different backgrounds move to stay, many immigrant children of second generation face the problem of losing their ethnic language and shifting to mainly Greek-speaking. It is a common phenomenon that immigrant children act as agents of majority language intrusion into the family environment (Spolsky, 2004). Thus, second generations are becoming 'victims' of language and culture shift in the process of assimilation.

Considering the above mentioned studies conducted on an international context, the present study was carried out with the purpose to record immigrant parents' views who live in Greece. More precisely, it aimed at:

- Recording immigrant parents' perceptions on their children's literacy development.
- Recording immigrant parents' attitudes to their involvement in their children's education.

2. Purpose and objectives of the study

2.1. Sample

The sample consisted of 40 parents (23 women and 17 men) of Albanian origin with their children attending Greek Primary education. We selected to interview parents who have been living in Greece for 8 to 20 years because of: a) being able to understand the questions posed to them and communicate efficiently in Greek, b) being able to have stabilized a view concerning the Greek reality and having a general picture of the educational system (Table 1).

Table 1: The sample of the study

Sample	
Gender	23 women and 17 men
Age	26 – 49 years old
Country of origin	Albania
Years living in Greece	8 – 20 years
Educational level	Graduated from elementary school, college or university
Occupations	Unemployed, workers, cleaning services, salesmen
Attending Greek language courses	15 parents

2.2. Instrument

The semi-structured interviews, conducted with immigrant parents, comprised 23 open-ended questions that were grouped in the following sections:

- a. parents' views on children's development and use of L2,
- b. parents' views on children's development and use of L1,
- c. parents' perspectives on children's school attainment,
- d. parental cooperation with school (directors, teaching staff) and involvement in children's education.

The interviews were conducted individually, and were tape recorded, transcribed and analysed qualitatively. The verbal data underwent the qualitative procedures of analysis: Data reduction, which involved first and second level coding, resulted in groups of categories/sub-categories (Miles & Huberman, 1994), which were then classified into basic thematic strands. Moreover, critical discourse analysis was used, which constitutes an approach for the social study of language which attempts to link the micro-level of linguistic analysis with the macro-level of social structures and relations of power underpinning texts and talk. Moreover, language is seen as a network of options, from which speakers draw upon, and these linguistic selections are always meaningful. Hence, critical discourse analysis examines lexical and grammatical (e.g. pronouns, syntax) features of texts, considering them to represent social

reality and relations, and eventually to carry specific ideological meanings. For the purposes of the present study, our analysis focused on the choices of interviewees regarding lexis and personal deixis.

3. Results

3.1. Qualitative results

The verbal data, after being coded qualitatively using the techniques by Miles and Huberman (1994), resulted in 72 codes, which were grouped into 12 categories classified into 4 basic themes related to parents' perspectives on:

- a. Children's language development
 - b. Children's school attainment
 - c. School environment and bilingual students
 - d. Racist behavior in school and social environment
- (see Tables 2, 3, 4, 5).

A) Children's language development

■ Development and use of Greek language

As it concerns the development and use of the L2 (Greek language), the parents declared that L2 usage in family is common not only "between brothers and sisters" but also between parents and children". In addition, they stated that their children are used to "out of school reading in Greek". Developing L2 for children, according to parents' statements, comes through "formal teaching at school" or "through formal teaching since infancy". In all cases, they highlighted the "Greek language shifting as L1 for their children because of formal attendance of the Greek education".

■ Development and use of Albanian language

Expressing their "wish for children's maintaining L1 (Albanian language)", most of the parents admitted that even if "L1 acquisition takes place in their family environment", their children insist on communicating in Greek language. Also they stated that "out of school reading of Albanian" is an activity that their children are rarely got engaged into. On the other hand, to what concerns the school environment, even though they believe that "limited immigrant students' population at school restrains the possibility for L1 teaching" they also believe that their "L1 is a tool for

maintaining cultural capital" and should be taken seriously into consideration by the education policy makers.

■ *Factors that hinder L1 development*

Besides of admitting that their "children see and define themselves as Greeks", immigrant parents pointed out the following factors that hinder L1 development: a) L1 acquisition is not a priority because of its low status", b) L1 development consists an "obstacle for school attainment", "L2 acquisition" and "school and social inclusion".

■ *Suggestions for L1 development*

Parental suggestions about their L1 development can be summarized as follows: a) "mastery of L1 through formal schooling" and b) "in private institution run by the country of origin". Moreover, "students' familiarity with mother tongue and culture through intercultural activities at school" can also "activate children's cultural capital" and contribute to the

abolishment of biases and stereotypes.

■ *Learning English as a foreign language*

Learning a foreign language was marked of great significance by the parents with "English to consist a lingua franca" and "a favorite foreign language in primary school". For this reason, almost all parents agreed on introducing English at first primary school grade. It is also noteworthy that they stressed the need for learning English as FL, since it facilitates L1 acquisition mostly because of the familiarity of the two alphabets. Furthermore, "multilingualism is believed to contribute to a lot of language and cognitive advantages" for the children. On the other hand, economical reasons prohibit FL learning in private institutions, something that partially explains the opposition of a few parents to early FL learning in addition to their fear of children's underachievement in L2".

Table 2: Categories and codes related to the thematic strand "Children's language development"

Thematic strand : Children's language development	
Categories	Codes / Meaning definitions
1. Development and use of Greek language	GRL1FTED=Greek language as L1 because of formal attending Greek education GLAQINFT=Greek language acquisition through formal teaching since the infancy GLAQSCHT=First children contact with the Greek language through formal teaching at school L2FAMPCH – L2 usage in family environment between parents and children L2FAMPCH=L2 usage in family environment between brothers and sisters OUTREAL2=Out of school reading in Greek
2. Development and use of Albanian language	PWIMAL1=Parents' wish of children's maintaining L1 L1ACFAEN=L1 acquisition within family environment L1COMFAM=Communication in L1 between children and parents at home (in family environment) OUTREAL1=Out of school reading in Albanian L1CULCAP=L1 as a tool for maintaining cultural capital
3. Factors that hinder L1 development	IMCHIGRE=Children of immigrant families see and define themselves as Greeks L1NOPRLS=Children's L1 acquisition is not a priority because of its low status L1DOSCAT=L1 development as an obstacle to school attainment (achievement) L1DOACL2=L1 development as an obstacle to L2 acquisition

Thematic strand : Children's language development

Categories	Codes / Meaning definitions
	L1DOSINC=L1 development as an obstacle to school and social inclusion
4. Suggestions for L1 development	MAL1SCHO=Mastery of L1 through formal schooling MAL1PRIN=Mastery of L1 in private institutions run by the country of origin L1CULTAC=Students' familiarity with mother tongue and culture through intercultural activities in school ACTCULCA=Activation of cultural capital
5. Learning a foreign language	ENGLINFR=Importance of English as a lingua franca ENFAVPSC=English as a favorite FL in primary school INTRENSC=Agreement on the introduction of English at the first primary school grade OPEARFLL=Opposition to early FL learning due to the fear of underachievement in L2 EFLFACL1=Learning English as a FL facilitates L1 acquisition MULANCAD=Multilingualism contributes to a lot of language and cognitive advantages ECREAFLE=Economical reasons prohibit FL learning

B) School environment and bilingual students

- *School attainment of bilingual children*

"Children's school attainment" is an important issue for all immigrant parents, focusing mainly on the "underachievement in L2 (Greek language)", because they strongly believe that there is a close relation between "competence in L2 and school attainment". As school attainment seems to be of high importance for parents, they also expressed their concern about their children's "attainment in maths and sciences". For this purpose, they proposed the institution of special tutorial classes for immigrant children to develop literacy and mathematics. They also highlighted problems related to school attainment of bilingual students because of certain special difficulties that the school has to consider and treat by using appropriate methods and techniques.

- *Activation of immigrant student's cultural background*

In relation to activating children's cultural capital, parents' answers appeared to be divided into two different axes:

- "activating cultural capital in Greek primary school" and
- "activating it by parents themselves".

Although a part of them declared that activating cultural capital is not a school priority, most of the participants suggested that the development and implementation of intercultural activities in school should be a main initiative of the Greek educational system.

- *Estimation of the educational system*

Concerning the estimation of the educational system, the immigrant parents made a comparison of the two educational systems: Albanian and Greek by highlighting the advantages of the Albanian educational system or pointing out its disadvantages or even complaining about the Greek educational system for not promoting multiculturalism and multilingualism. More precisely, they asked for more physical activities to be included in the school curriculum and stressed the importance of all-day school for facilitating immigrant parents.

- *Teacher's role*

Having well formed attitudes through their own experiences from the Albanian educational system, the parents expressed their ideas about the teacher's role. In particular, the teacher is considered to be responsible for their children's "cognitive development", "formation of

personality", "multicultural awareness" and "bilingual development". Parents expressed their wish to have regular contact and meetings with the teacher as well as to take counselling about

how to contribute to their children's linguistic and cognitive development.

Table 3: Categories and codes related to the thematic strand "School environment and bilingual students"

Thematic strand : School environment and bilingual students	
Categories	Codes / Meaning definitions
6. School attainment of Bilingual children	COL2SCAC=Competence in Greek language is related to school achievement UNDACHL2=Underachievement in L2 BILATSCI=Bilingual students' attainment in maths and sciences IMPSCCHAT=Importance of children's school attainment TUTRCLIM=Necessity for the institution of special tutorial classes for immigrant children SPDIFPRB=Problems related to school attainment of bilingual students because of special difficulties
7. Activation of immigrant students' cultural background	CCACTSCH=Activating the cultural capital at Greek primary schools INTACTSC=Development and implementation of intercultural activities in school CCACTPAR=Activating children's cultural knowledge is a parental issue CCNOTPRI=Activating cultural capital is not a priority
8. Estimation of the educational system	COMP2EDS=Comparison of the two educational systems: Greek and Albanian ADVALBSC=Highlighting the advantages of Albanian educational system DISALBSC=Pinpointing the disadvantages of Albanian educational system IMPALLDS=Stressing the importance of all-day school DIFMULSC= Difficulties in managing multiculturalism and multilingualism in the Greek. Educational system. ATHLEACT=Willingness for more physical activities at schools
9. Teacher's role	TRESCOGLD= Teacher's responsibility for children's cognitive development TRESPERS= Teacher's responsibility for children's formation of their personality TRESMULT= Teacher's responsibility for children's developing multicultural awareness TRESBILD= Teacher's responsibility for children's bilingual development CONPARTE=Necessity of regular contacts between parent and teacher COUNLICO=Counseling parents about children's linguistic and cognitive development

C) School attainment and parents' involvement

- *Parental involvement in children's education*

Concerning parental involvement in children's education, most of the interviewees stated their "willingness to engage in school activities" and stressed the "significance of their own L2 development for providing assistance to their children" in line with their wish to get involved in their children's "reading and writing activities in L1 and L2". Nevertheless, they admitted the fact that their involvement tends to be limited. In the same line, "parental counseling for school subjects" and "counseling for dealing with out of school activities" were highly regarded. In addition, they seemed unable to assume an active role in terms of their "involvement in out of school activities" due to practical constraints such as the language barrier, lack of familiarity with the Greek school system, differences in cultural capital and level of education.

- *Difficulties in parental/school cooperation*

Considering the fact that all of the parents were immigrants in Greece inevitably they had to

face a number of difficulties in fulfilling their parental role in relation to their children's school responsibilities. They confessed that their major problems came about as the result of their "difficulties in involvement due to language barriers" and their "insecurity in relation to their level in L2" especially for those with a limited period of stay in Greece. "Lack of education" was also indicated as a major factor which made it difficult for them to get involved in their children's every day school tasks and "cope with their children's needs" especially "in upper grade activities". Moreover, other factors related to the life of immigrants such as "practical constraints", "heavy work schedule" and "difficulties in cooperation with schools due to lack of understanding school operations" were also put forward (see Table 4).

Table 4: Categories and codes related to the thematic strand "School attainment and parents' involvement"

Thematic strand : School attainment and parents' involvement	
Categories	Codes / Meaning definitions
10. Parental involvement in children's education	WENSCACT=Willingness to engage in school activities INOUTACT=Involvement in out of school activities INRWL1L2=Involvement in reading and writing activities in L1 and L2 PACOUNSC=Parental counseling for school subjects PACOUTSC=Parental counseling for dealing with out of school activities PARGRCAT=Interrelation between parents' Greek language level and children's school attainment L2DEVASS=Significance of L2 development for providing assistance to children
11. Difficulties in parental / school cooperation	DIFUPGRA=Difficulties in involvement with upper grade activities DIFLACED=Difficulties in involvement because of lack of education DIFPRCON=Difficulties in involvement due to practical constraints/heavy work schedule DIFLABAR=Difficulties in involvement due to language barriers DIFCONEE=Difficulties in coping with children's needs

Thematic strand : School attainment and parents' involvement

Categories	Codes / Meaning definitions
	INSLEVL2=Insecurity in relation to their level in L2 DIFSCOPE=Difficulties in cooperation with schools due to lack of understanding school operations

D) Racist behavior in educational and social environment

When asked about the treatment which bilingual students receive within the school context they highlighted racist behavior as a major problem. In particular, they reported racist behavior not only "on behalf of Greek parents" but also "from the school environment" and the "social context" in general. They suggested that the root for racist behavior can be mainly adhered to "the use of L1" which differentiates non-native

students from native ones and strongly supported a move towards "parents' engagement for children's equal treatment within the school context" so as to eliminate such cases.

Table 5: Categories and codes related to the thematic strand "Racism behavior in educational and social environment"

Thematic strand : Racism behavior in educational and social environment	
Categories	Codes / Meaning definitions
12. Expression of racism to immigrant children	RACGRPAR=Racist behavior from Greek parents RACGRSTU=Racist behavior from Greek students RACSCENV=Racist behavior from school environment RACSOCCO=Racist behavior from social context RACLIUSE=Racist behavior due to L1 use PINEQLSC=Parents' engagement for children's equal treatment within the school context NANTIRSC=Necessity of fostering antiracial attitudes in school IMPJIRA=Immigrants' prejudice for racism

3.2. Results from discourse analysis

The qualitative content analysis of the interviewees' responses was complemented by a "critical discourse analysis" (e.g. Fairclough 2003, Van Dijk 1993) of the most important topics prioritized by immigrant parents, such as bilingualism, mother tongue, racism and social acceptance.

Specifically, the critical discourse analysis of immigrant parents' responses indicated that they were very positively disposed towards multilingualism in general and the learning of English as FL in particular. They used positively evaluated lexis to support their views (e.g.

"everyone who knows many languages is *intelligent*", "it is *very useful* to speak English because USA rules the world"), while the choice of the generic second or third singular personal deictic (e.g. "if *you* don't speak English, *you* are nothing") in their discourse made their ideas seem commonsensical and taken-for-granted. However, their responses also echoed well held misconceptions about bilingualism (e.g. Stamou & Dinas 2009), such as the view that code switching is a problematic feature of bilinguals' speech, by often employing negative evaluative lexis (e.g. "to tell you the truth...she speaks both Greek and Albanian, both languages but *unfortunately* she often mixes them up, she

speaks half Albanian, half Greek").

Regarding the learning of Albanian by their children, immigrant parents did not consider to be an obligation of the host country's educational system to cater for the maintenance of L1. Thus, they fully justified the non-offering of courses in Albanian by the Greek school because immigrant students in their region were few (e.g. "would it be right to have a teacher [of Albanian] with just five children? To pay for a teacher?"), and more importantly, because it would put a challenge to Greek people's sentiment (e.g. "to go to a foreign country and ask for rights...we are asking too much"). In contrast, through the selection of the first personal deictic in their talk, they personally took the responsibility for the transmission of Albanian language and culture to next generations (e.g. "if we don't speak Albanian at home, he will forget it", "it depends on parents, what language they speak at home. *I personally speak them Albanian*"), although, via negative evaluative words, they acknowledged how difficult this was and they expressed their fear for probably not being able to achieve it (e.g. "*I'm afraid* he will forget Albanian...in the summer I want to go to Albania so that he will play there with other kids and that he will not forget the language"). In fact, some parents reported their children's inhibition and refusal to speak L1 with their family in public, through negative evaluative lexical items (e.g. "she tells me 'mum, don't speak Albanian, *you are turning me into ridicule*'. I want to tell her something in Albanian so that other people don't understand, when we go for shopping for example, that 'this is expensive'"). Such narrations show the attempt of children not to differ from the majority culture and are indicative of the pressure they receive from school and Greek.

In their descriptions of racist events, immigrant parents designated their children as the main target of such behavior and the school as the context in which these events mostly took place. Interestingly, they often employed direct speech in the narration of racist incidents in order to give emphasis, vividness and dramatization to their reported words (Archakis & Lampropoulou 2006). Interviewees mainly reported incidents concerning the tacit negative connotations attached to the word "Albanian" by Greek students and how bad their children felt

about it, through the selection of negative evaluative words (e.g. "'mum, they [children at school] called me *Albanian*'...and she *got upset*"). It is noteworthy, though, that parents tended to justify such racist behavior by attributing the development of bias against them by Greek people to the criminal behavior of some of their compatriots (and the use of negative evaluative wording), especially in the beginning of their arrival in Greece (e.g. "on the other hand, they [Greeks] have right...because when the borders opened, our people *made harm*...made some *bad things*. They didn't have a job and made robberies"), or to show a compromising stance in order to "find a solution" and "not make a fuss".

4. Discussion- concluding remarks

The findings of the present study indicated immigrant parents' positive views on 'bilingualism', which was considered as an advantage for their children's linguistic and cognitive development. For this reason, most of the parents expressed the opinion that L1 development is necessary and part of their children's bilingualism and biliteracy. Also, the great majority of the participants, being inevitably influenced by the demand for English which is still increasing all over the world, believed that learning English language is the main prerequisite of their children's future. On the contrary, being anxious about their children's developing L1, they expressed the fear that using two languages will result in confusion for their children's mastering L2 (Greek language), and inhibit their school attainment. Hence, they accept the lack of bilingual education in Greece as being a priori justified and as being their own responsibility to cater for L1 maintenance. This view is indicative of the conceptualization of bilingualism as an individual "right" rather than as a "capital", which disengages the host country from the obligation to provide opportunities for the development of the mother tongue of immigrants (Baker 2011).

Concerning parents' involvement in their children's education and their cooperation with school, it was revealed that although immigrant parents expressed their willingness to get involved in school and out of school activities, they perceived a greater number of barriers to

this involvement. Language and unfamiliarity with the Greek educational system were considered as major barrier to communication between school and home. Considering the importance the parents stressed on their children's future and their studies, we conclude that their wish to help their children at home is closely related to the aspect that school achievement of the children is a predictor for their future (Jeynes, 2007, Phillipson & Phillipson 2007). They also declared that they attended Greek language seminars for immigrants for developing skills in L2 in order to become able to help their children with school subjects (Kloosterman et al. 2011, Ray et al. 2009). It is worth mentioning that the majority of the parents declared that they participate in their children activities at home, since they believe that this way they can contribute to their children's school attainment (Tan & Goldberg 2009, Phillipson & Phillipson 2007).

Many parents believe that school can play a crucial role to eliminate prejudice and racism and transform common sense beliefs on multiculturalism, bilingualism and bilingual education (Gerena 2011, Dorner 2010). For this reason, school should work in cooperation with immigrant parents to establish home-school partnerships to meet the different needs and expectations of immigrant parents and their children. Moreover, it is suggested to design and implement well organized regional training seminars for immigrant parents at the beginning of school year in order to assist them to support their children as students of primary education.

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IMPLEMENTATION OF WIKI PROJECTS IN THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM. FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHER IN STATE SECONDARY EDUCATION

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Abstract

The implementation of web 2.0 tools in the foreign language (FL) classroom contributes to contemporary, active and experiential learning. The prominent feature that characterizes web 2.0 applications is the notion of “interactivity”. Rather than simply receiving information, the user is able to create, form and share the digital content with other users. Wikis constitute a prime example of learner generated material that can be integrated in the FL classroom. The present paper aims to explore the different ways in which wikis can be integrated in the teaching/learning process in order to enhance language learning and teaching. In the first place, we provide a short explanation of how a wiki software works. In the second place, emphasis is given to the paradigms of constructivism, cooperative learning, connectivism, action-based learning and task-based learning that are supported by the usage of wikis in the classroom. In addition, the present paper proposes a variety of collaborative on-line wiki projects that can be used to the best interest of both learners and teachers. Finally, the benefits of implementing wiki projects in the FL classroom are analyzed.

Keywords: *foreign language learning/teaching, wiki, constructivism, action-based learning, task-based learning, connectivism*

1. Wiki software presentation

1.1. Wiki installation

Wiki is an online technology that allows to create a collective information website on the internet. FL learners that work on the wiki environment have the opportunity to cooperate in order to publish on-line articles. Designing is fast and simple since the content can be written and edited by everyone that participates in the creative process. The teacher who wishes to integrate a wiki in the learning process can either create an account in a free wiki hosting site such as Dokuwiki, Wikia and Xwiki or he can download a wiki software, such as Mediawiki after having installed the Apache HTTP server on his computer. In this paper, we have chosen to create a school wiki by using the Mediawiki software.

1.2. Wiki functions

When viewing any page on our wiki, we can have access to the sidebar leading us to the Main Page and the Modifications page (see Figure 1 and Figure 2, Appendix). The main page is the first cyber space that we visit every time we log in whereas the modification section enables us to view the recent changes that have been made by the participants.

The Edit page tab (see Figure 3, Appendix) gives us the opportunity to create a new article, delete a previous version of an article and improve the overall content of the wiki. Each new page that is constructed can be linked to the previous ones by using the common hypertext function. The Searchbox allows us to search any of the pages that have already been created while the View History page (see Figure 4, Appendix) contains a list of the page's previous revisions, including the date, time and the username or IP address of the user who contributed in the editing process. In order to avoid the vandalism and the destruction of articles, the site administrator can:

- allow access only to the members of the project;
- revert pages back to a pre-vandalism state;
- block or ban users (or IP addresses) who are destructive and
- delete an inappropriate page.

2. Wiki and learning theories

The theory of constructivism maintains that learners create meaning of the world through a series of individual constructs (Lightbown and Spada 1999, Legros et al. 2002). By acting upon the learning environment, the student acquires new knowledge, constructs his own conceptualizations and masters learning autonomy. Within the paradigm of social constructivism, the Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky (1978), focused on the connections between people and the sociocultural context and maintained that social interaction plays a significant role in the construction of meaning.

The wiki environment offers the context in which the learner constructs his knowledge by relating new information to previous knowledge. By using the View_History page, learners can follow the evolution of each article that has been

published. At the same time, he can compare between the previous versions of the article and the current one so as to detect the grammatical, syntactic or semantic corrections that have been made.

As far as the social aspect of constructivism is concerned, it can be argued that the implementation of wiki projects in the FL classroom develops reciprocity and promotes cooperation among students. The participants create groups and decompose project work into smaller pieces. Our proposal includes the following work division:

- A group of students can act as technical administrative assistants. They will upload files, photos and help other students with the editing process.
- A second group of students can become journalists. They will be the ones to write the articles that are to be published.
- The last group of students can assume the responsibility of correcting the articles before their final publications. It must be stressed that this particular group should not include students that experience major FL difficulties as its main purpose is the error correction.

Connectivism is a learning theory based on the premise that knowledge exists in the world. According to the principal proponents of the theory, Siemens (2005) and Downes (2007), students must participate in activities that will enable them to connect specialized nodes or create links between the information sources. Another prevailing aspect of connectivism is that learning may reside in non-human appliances. As Siemens (2004) states in his site [Elearnspace](#), "Technology is altering (rewiring) our brains. The tools we use define and shape our thinking". Siemens adds that the use of technology promotes individual learning and contributes to knowledge maintenance.

Taking into consideration the previous remarks, it can be deduced that the creation of a wiki complies with the principles of connectivism. The participant uses a non-human appliance, the wiki environment, and learns how to link articles by using the hyperlink function. The creation of nodes between two articles enables the student to detect connections between ideas, concepts and semantic information.

3. Wiki and foreign language teaching

Action based approach in FL learning is an approach that puts agency at the centre of the learning process (Puren 2008, Rosen 2009). According to the approach, learners must act in order to construct their own knowledge and classroom activities must represent real life situations that demand the students' active participation. The Council's of Europe *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR), a comprehensive basis for the creation of language syllabuses and the design of teaching material, exemplifies the principles that characterize the action-based approach. The CEFR (2001) underlines that:

- Language is used to perform communicative acts;
- The communicative act occurs in a context that presupposes specific constraints and conditions;
- Communicative competence includes the following components:
 - a. linguistic (grammatical, syntactic and semantic elements),
 - b. socio-linguistic (social norms) and
 - c. pragmatic (functions in the real world).

The introduction of a wiki project in the FL classroom follows the action-oriented principles as every wiki user acts as an agent who creates his own authentic linguistic material by publishing and editing articles. Furthermore, he participates in a group work that leads to a meaningful outcome. For example, the product of the on-line cooperation between schools from different countries can include the publication of a novel, a comic book or a scrapbook. In this regard, students' work is not a meaningless linguistic exercise but the performance of a communicative act that occurs in a specific socio-linguistic context.

The action-based approach can be related to the anglo-saxon task-based language teaching which focuses on the use of target tasks in the classroom. Nevertheless, it must be stressed that task-based language teaching does not only include real-life tasks but it also refers to classroom based activities such as role playing and hypothetical problem solving (Nunan 1989, Foster 1999, Ellis 2003). According to Skehan (1996, 1998a, 1998b) the implementation of the

task requires three distinct phases:

- 1st phase (pre-task activities). Students are familiarized with the target of the task. These activities may include brain-storming techniques so that the students relate their previous knowledge to the new task.
- 2nd phase (task activities). Students work in groups in order to produce the desirable outcome.
- 3rd phase (post-task activities). With the help of the teacher, students assess the quality of the outcome and discuss any problems that they may have experienced during the second phase.

The creation of a wiki project can be planned within the framework of the three- phased task in the following way:

- 1st phase. Students are introduced to the target of the wiki project and are familiarized with the software functions.
- 2nd phase. Students work in groups, divide the work and assume distinct responsibilities.
- 3rd phase. Students discuss with their teacher and assess the quality of the published material.

4. Wiki projects for the foreign language classroom

Wikis can be introduced in various ways in the FL classroom. The following projects that we have chosen to present are characterized by flexibility and moderate difficulty:

- The teacher creates a wiki space where he publishes the learning material, adds links to internet sites and publishes articles in order to answer to students' questions. Students can have access to this information and, additionally, they can comment on the published articles.
- Students participate in the realization of a school based project. Teachers are recommended to propose interesting projects that refer to students' school life. For example, the action group can create a bilingual dictionary or publish material drawn from various projects (eg cultural or environmental) in which students participate.
- FL teachers that come from different counties can create a virtual "meeting

point” and explore all the advantages of becoming members of an on-line community. They can share ideas, publish pedagogical material and find partners for new collaborative school projects.

- Students participate in inter-school projects between different countries. For example, Etwinning or Comenius programs can be integrated in the wiki platform. Other projects include the creation of a bilingual dictionary, a novel, a scrapbook, a virtual museum or a cultural guide.

5. Benefits

The introduction of the wiki environment in the FL learning process can be beneficial for the promotion of interactive, autonomous and creative learning. More specifically:

- Wiki projects transform the meaningless and structural exercises into communicative and social actions. Students recognize that their outcome has a specific purpose as the wiki project embraces a whole spectrum of activities that can be either linguistic or non-linguistic. For example, students are encouraged to write an article that can be enriched by a photo or an audio link.
- The cognitive and meta-cognitive learning strategies are promoted. In order to clarify the previous terms, it must be stressed that cognitive strategies refer to the strategies used by the learners in order to learn more successfully. They include organization of language material, summarizing meaning and guessing meaning from context. On the other hand, metacognition is defined as “knowing about knowing” or the ability to know when and how to use the appropriate learning strategies. Learners who participate in wiki projects deliberately manipulate language in order to edit, modify or even delete the articles. In this regard, they are expected to use their cognitive strategies so as to produce a successful linguistic outcome. As far as the metacognition is concerned, participants are expected to know how

to work. In this perspective, students learn how to divide the work, plan their tasks and evaluate the final published result.

- Innovation and creativity become an integral part of the learning process. Students feel free to express their own ideas as they are active agents of the creative process. During the task phase, they do not only work on the editing of the linguistic material but they can also download photos, select audio files or create their own videos.
- The publication of the articles provides specific and effective feedback. The teacher can monitor the students’ progress and detect their difficulties since he has unlimited access to the View History and Modifications page tabs. By viewing the modifications of the articles, the teacher obtains information concerning the improvement of the content or the grammatical accuracy.

6. Conclusion

Concluding, we highlight the prevailing aspects of the implementation of a wiki project in FL classroom. Wiki projects exemplify the paradigm of constructivist, socio-constructivist and connectivist learning since the participants are expected to construct their own knowledge by collaborating in a cyber environment. Furthermore, the authentic and meaningful nature of a wiki project complies with the principles of the action-based and task-based approach to FL that promote the integration of real-life tasks in the learning process.

The teacher that uses the wiki platform in the FL classroom is suggested to work in flexible and easy projects such as the creation of a school based program or an inter-school international project. All these tasks can be linked to “traditional” school projects such as the Etwinning or Comenius initiative.

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Appendix

Figure 1: Main page

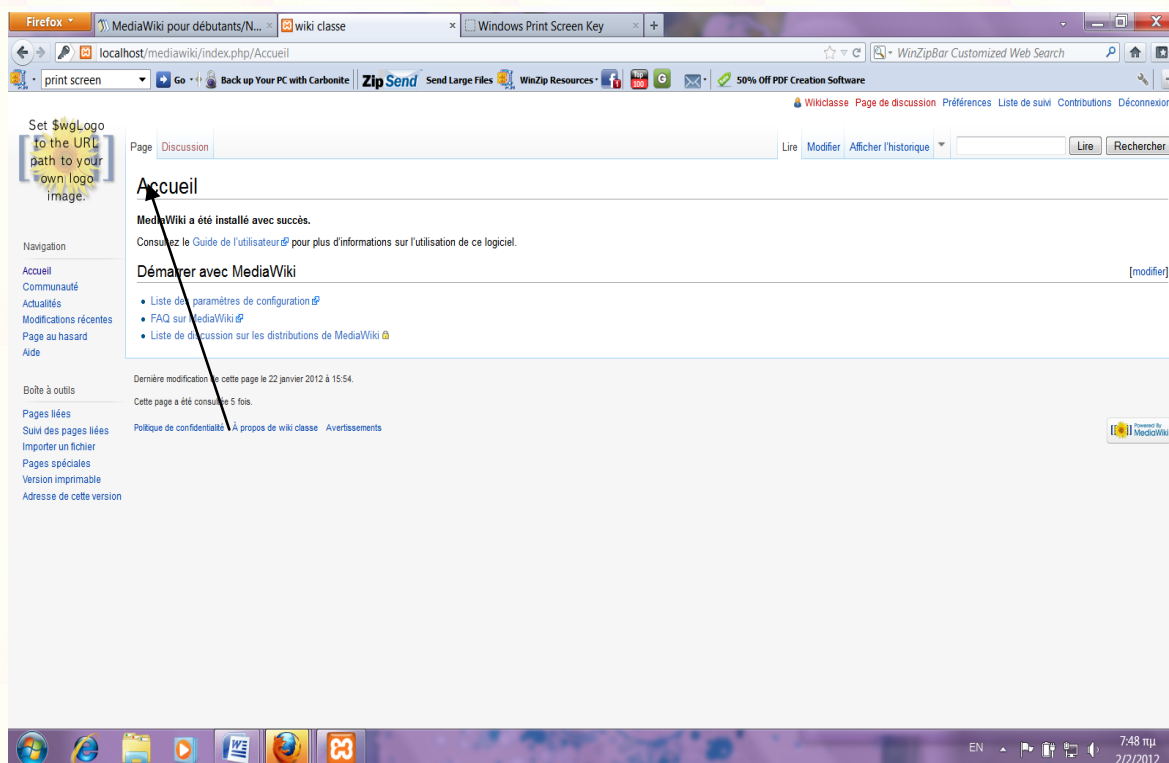


Figure 2: Modifications page

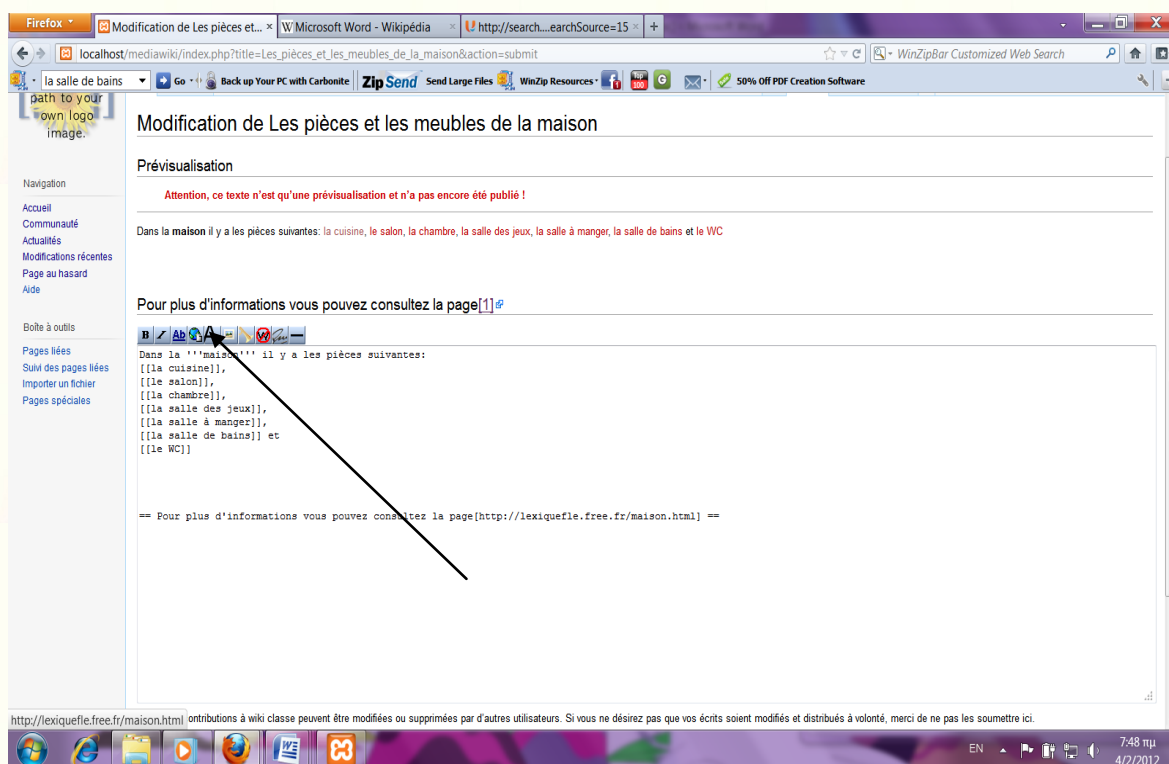


Figure 3: Edit Page

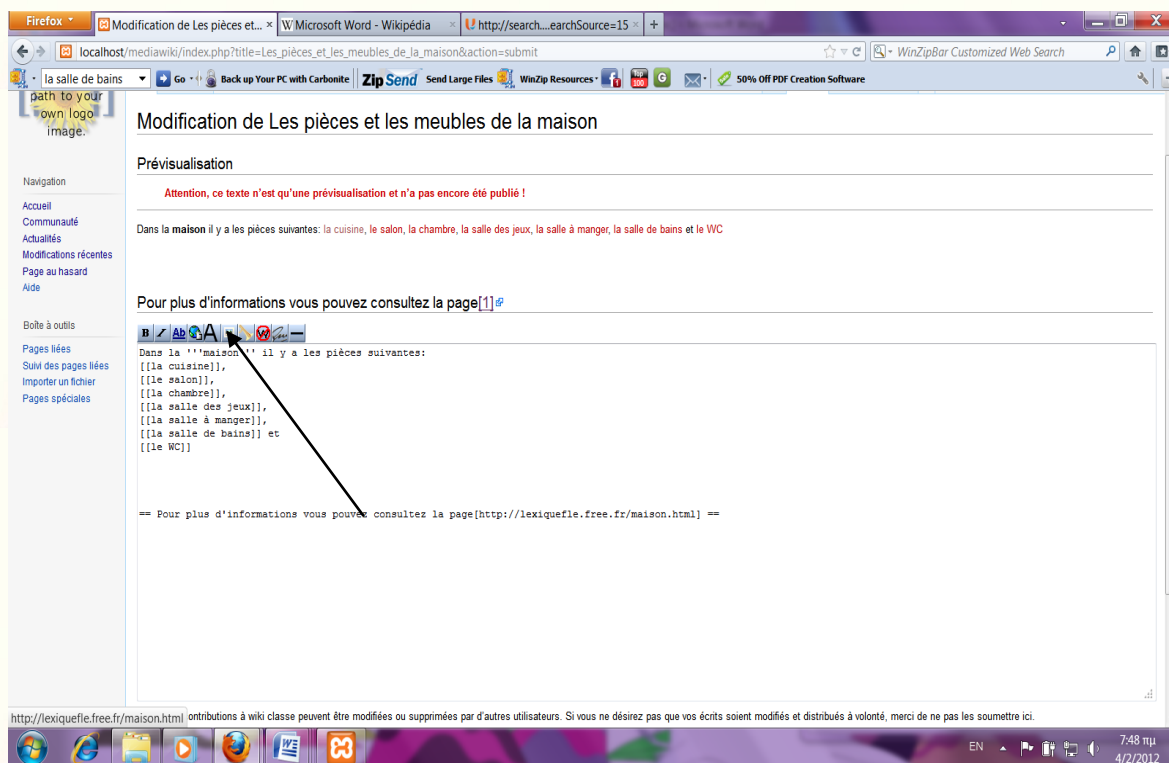
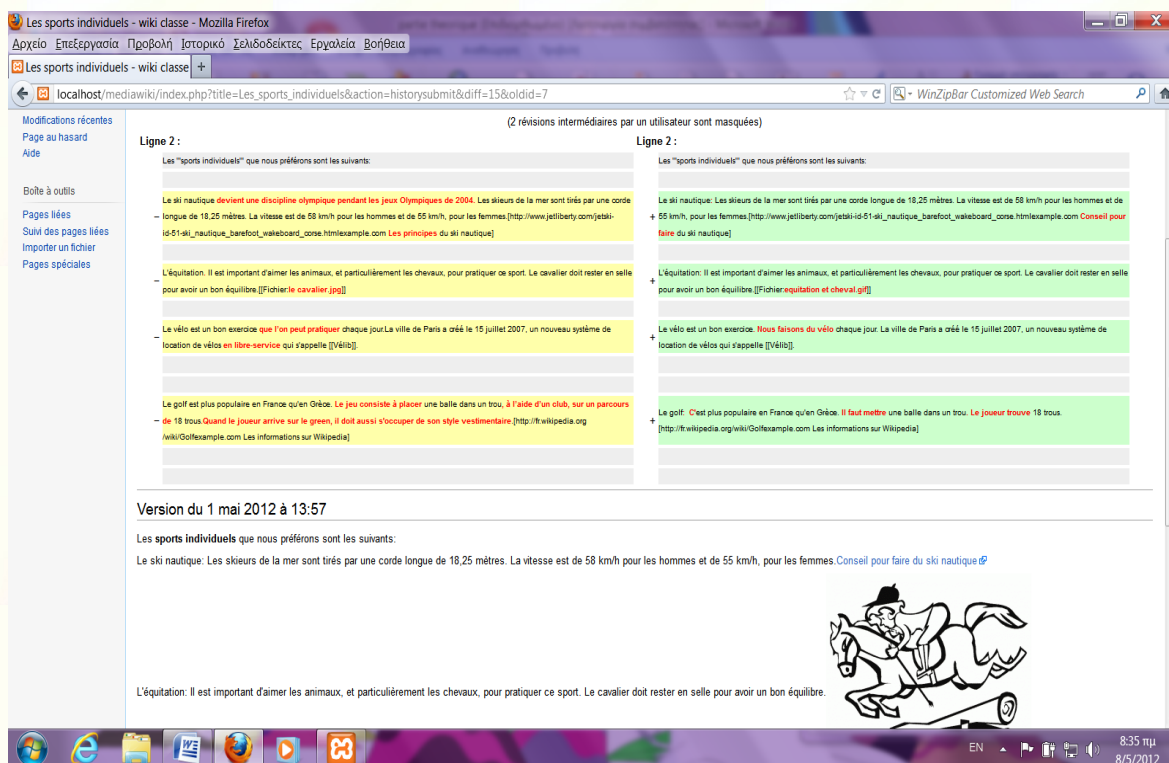


Figure 4: View History page



INTEGRATING TASK-BASED AND CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING IN ESP COURSE DESIGN

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Abstract

The aim of the present study is to describe the effect of combining TBL (Task-Based Learning) and CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) in the development of an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) course designed for students majoring in Accountancy. A multi-method approach which involved both quantitative and qualitative research methods was adopted. In addition, experimental research design which involved pre- and post-testing was employed. The data provided support for the efficacy of the suggested approach to course design and indicated that there is an inherent connection between ESP and TBL and CLIL.

Keywords: *CLIL, TBL, ESP, course design*

1. Introduction

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), a generic umbrella term for bilingual, content-based education¹ has become a well established part of many educational systems across Europe (Wolff 2007) in the course of the last two decades. This came about in result of the wide recognition that the provision of curriculum content in a second (L2) or foreign language (FL) can be advantageous in terms of enhancing both subject knowledge and L2 proficiency (Genesee 1987, Brinton & Snow 1990, Swain 1996, Snow & Brinton 1997, Baker 2001, Marsh Maljers & Hartiala 2001, Coonan 2002, Wilkinson 2004, Coyle 2005, Stohler 2006, Dalton-Puffer 2007).

CLIL is a predominantly European movement, which is considered an important facilitator of European integration (Council of Europe 1995, European Commission 1995, 2003, 2006). The strategic need for internationalization, the growth of student mobility (Crandall & Kaufman 2002, Wächter 2004), and the evolving epistemology of university disciplines in a globalized academic community (Wilkinson & Zegers 2007, 2008) along with enhanced opportunities for employability have dictated the development of a growing number of CLIL courses in tertiary education, a considerable proportion of which are in English (Coleman 2006, Wilkinson 2004).

CLIL, which is defined as “a powerful pedagogic tool which aims to safeguard the subject being taught whilst promoting language as a medium for learning as well as an objective

of the learning process itself" (Coyle in Marsh 2002:37), is an example of a *Content and Language Integrated Learning* (CLIL) and *Content-based instruction* (CBI) can be considered synonymous. The former being used more frequently in Europe while the latter in the United States and Canada. However, in www.content-english.org, more than 40 labels are referred to describe the integration of content-learning with language learning, which nevertheless reflect subtly different approaches to the educational practice at times.

Higher level interdisciplinary integration. It is based on the integration of four main principles: cognition, community, communication and culture (Coyle Hood Marsh 2010) or content, communication, cognition and culture (Coyle 1999). Its focus is laid on promoting the message (topic, content), through the medium of the language while encouraging social interaction among the learners (Vilkanciene 2011). What CLIL suggests is a re-conceptualization of language use and learning through an integrated educational approach which aims to actively involve the learner in using and developing the language *of* learning; the language *for* learning; and language *through* learning. It presents an approach to education through *construction*, rather than *instruction*. (Marsh 2005: 6).

Integrating CLIL in tertiary education may refer more to the type of pedagogy adopted and to its particular characteristics depending on the aim of the programme (Alexander 2006). It is considered that "CLIL should be seen as a continuum of various pedagogical approaches which aim to facilitate learning" (Greere & Räsänen 2008: 5) and consists of the following six steps:

- Non-CLIL: No-concern for language learning, no pedagogical collaboration;
- LSP/ Discipline-based language teaching: Language specialists providing discipline-specific LT to support learning however, without systematic collaboration with the subject specialists;
- Pre-CLIL (language): Pre-sessional teaching of language to support student's learning of the content, with collaboration between the language-subject teachers, and language learning outcomes specified according to content learning needs;

- Pre-CLIL (content): Language learning expected due to exposure, without specified outcomes however, implicit aims and criteria, rare collaboration of subject specialists with language teachers;
- Adjunct-CLIL: Language support coordinated and integrated in subject studies, which takes place simultaneously, and involves joint planning between teachers and specified outcomes for both content and language;
- CLIL: Fully dual approach and full integration of language across subject teaching by subject specialists or team teaching (ibid: 5).

A number of studies have established the inherent relationship between ESP and CLIL (Mahbudi 2000, Huan & Normandia 2007, Fortanet-Gómez & Räsänen 2008, Greere & Räsänen 2008). Moreover, regarding the relation between CLIL and ESP, it can be argued that this dates back to 1997 when the link between ESP/EAP and CBI (Content-based Instruction), for many a predecessor (Soetaert & Bonamie 2008), or a synonym of CLIL (Dalton-Puffer & Smit 2007) was provided; It was indicated that ESP and advanced disciplinary EAP contexts allow for the implementation of advanced level CBI programs (Grabe & Stoller 1997:16). After all, one of the first and most widely accepted definitions of ESP provided by Strevens, (1988), refers to the teaching of English which meets the needs of the learners, and is related to the content of particular disciplines, occupations and activities. In fact, in an ESP context, the learners' primary goal is to be able to perform tasks for academic or professional purposes, which indicates that there is an inherent connection between ESP and CLIL. At this point it should be noted that theoretical assumptions underlying Task Based Learning (TBL), which is based on the development of cognitive theories and situated learning (Willis 1996) also relate it to both ESP and CLIL. Content provides the topics or themes which need to be broken down into tasks in which the learners can engage (Willis 2009) since following Coyle (1999), task design functions as a 'strategy for promoting genuine communication in the FL if learning is to take place. Therefore, tasks should provide opportunities for genuine

communication and rich meaning-focused interaction (Willis 2009). In this respect, TBL calls for the employment of authentic, collaborative, and student-centered tasks while its effectiveness is believed to derive from language usage in meaningful contexts (Willis & Willis 2007). On the same line, it can be suggested that both CLIL and ESP incorporate meaningful authentic language processing (Orna Montesinos 2006).

It should be noted that CLIL encompasses many of the principles of 'good' practice in modern education such as active learning and teaching methods, use of authentic tasks and materials, student-centeredness, focus on project work and task-based learning (Mehisto et al. 2008), which are also common to the ESP and the TBL approach. It reflects the constructivist learning philosophy according to which learning is constructed by the learners rather than offered by the teacher while working in a cooperative climate, which also allows for group work to take place; It also reflects a manifestation of a holistic orientation to education through an integrative approach to learning both subject-specific content knowledge and language skills (Miller 2007).

CLIL is a methodological approach which involves the teaching of a specific content through the foreign language while the ESP and TBL approaches accommodate the students' goal-oriented purposes for using the TL based on sound theoretical foundations which take account of real-life needs. In this respect, there is a shift in terms of the language learning objectives which present the focus of ESP courses to include mastery of the content of the subject discipline along with the target language through purposeful realistic tasks. Such an integrated approach is expected to allow the transformation of the language learners into language users.

2. The study

2.1. The aim and objectives of the study

The present study attempted an exploration of the integration of CLIL and TBL in ESP course design and is part of a larger research project which focused on course design specifications based on detailed needs-analysis procedures as

well as implementation of the experimental syllabus and materials developed along with evaluation procedures upon the completion of the ESP course. In particular, it aimed to investigate the impact of the experimental teaching intervention by measuring the outcomes of the implementation of the experimental syllabus which integrated CLIL and TBL in ESP course design in terms of the students' performance concerning language skills and subject-specific content of their target discipline.

The experimental needs-based syllabus was developed on the basis of data emanated from the initial needs analysis project (Chostelidou 2010) which included multiple sources of informants and research methods (Jasso-Aguilar 1999) in order to ensure the validity of the data collected (Cresswell 2003, Dörnyei 2007). Its ultimate goal was to introduce curriculum renewal and optimise the quality of the ESP course offered. Aiming to cater for the learners' immediate and future needs, that is their academic needs for study purposes within the context of tertiary education and their needs as professional business people the course developed, was in essence an ESAP course which reflected both academic and subject-specific aspects of the target language. More specifically, the ESAP course was task-based, contextually situated, and highly specific in terms of the content of the students' study discipline.

The research objective set was to evaluate the effectiveness of the experimental course design in terms of students' gains in total test scores concerning both skills in the TL and subject-specific content of the target discipline.

2.2 The Participants

The participants involved in the experimental research project were 286 Business English students of tertiary education in Northern Greece streamed into the experimental group (N=147), who were exposed to the experimental syllabus and the control group (N=139), who were presented with the usual teaching approach for an academic semester. Their age range was 20-24 years.

Also, their level of English language proficiency ranged from false beginner (38.7%) to upper intermediate (46%) and advanced (15.3%) for the experimental group as suggested

by their scores in the Oxford Placement Test (OPT); the students in the control group were identified as false beginners (35.4%), upper intermediate (46.9%), and advanced (17.7%) respectively.

2.3. Research methods and tools

In order to measure the impact of the integration of the TBL and CLIL approaches in ESP course design experimental research design was employed including a factorial experiment with two factors: one factor between subjects (group, with two levels, experimental and control) and one factor within subjects with repeated measures (two levels, pre and post).

2.3.1. The ESAP Test

In the attempt to evaluate the effect of the teaching intervention on the students' performance concerning language skills and subject-specific content, testing, a technique commonly adopted as part of course design evaluation was employed (Graves 2001). In particular, an ESAP test instrument, which was specifically developed to reflect the objectives of the course and the syllabus, was used for measures prior and after the teaching intervention and was devised to all students in the experimental and the control group.

The focus of the pre- and post-test was to assess language skills and subject-specific

content through a variety of tasks, all designed with the intention of being fair to the test takers in the particular setting, which according to DeKeyser and Larson-Hall (2005: 102) helps prevent a possible method effect. More specifically, the tasks reflected real-life professional and academic situations, as closely as possible given the constraints and the artificiality of the testing environment. The idea of 'authenticity of task' (Douglas 2000, Bowles 2006) was crucial throughout the test. The starting point for any task was the purpose for which the target group of learners would need to process the task in the real professional or academic world. Similarly, the texts used aimed to provide a real purpose for learning both content and language integrated within a real context (Willis 2009) and provide appropriate subject-specific input.

Table 1: The ESAP Test Format

Skill assessed	Task Number	Timing (approximate)	Weighting
1. Reading	4	About 20 min	20%
2. Vocabulary	3	About 20 min	20%
3. Writing	1	About 30 min	20%
4. Listening	4	About 15 min	20%
5. Speaking	3	About 15 min	20%

In order to establish the reliability of the test, Cronbach α coefficient was estimated and identified as 0.70 for the pre-test and 0.80 for the post- test aggregated for both groups, figures which are regarded acceptable and satisfactory as in general, acceptable reliability indexes range from 0.70 and above (Nunally 1978). Moreover, a high degree of agreement was recorded between the two raters in evaluating the

students' written texts and oral output by means of the IELTS bands. The three correlation-agreement indexes, Pearson's r , Spearman's ρ , Kendal's τ_b , were 0.954, 0.922, 0.871, all exceeding 0.800 and therefore, statistically significant ($p < 0.001$) (Gwet 2008), which suggest a high inter-rater reliability for writing and speaking tasks.

2.3.2. Data analysis

Total scores obtained from the pre- and post-test measures were analyzed for statistical difference by means of ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) and ANCOVA (Analysis of Covariance). The independent variables were the experimental and control group at the pre- and post-intervention. The dependent variables were the subjects' mean scores in pre- and post-tests while OPT scores were treated as a covariate. Means and standard deviations as well as F-ratios were calculated. Comparisons of means were performed using the Least Significant Difference criterion (LSD). The significance level was predetermined at $\alpha=0.05$. All analyses were performed with SPSS v. 15.0.

significant interaction between the experimental and control group ($F(1,284)=68.753, P<0.001$) at the pre- and post-intervention stages as a result of the teaching intervention. In particular, both the experimental and control group achieved statistically significant progress in terms of total test scores (Table 2), which is based on aggregated measures in language skills and subject-specific content sub-tests, as a consequence of the tuition they had received for an academic semester. In fact, both groups attained considerable gains in total post-test over pre-test scores.

3. Findings

3.1. The effect of the teaching intervention on students' performance in terms of total score in the ESAP test

The students' total scores in the test were analyzed for statistical significance by means of ANOVA which indicated that there is statistically

Table 2: Pre- and Post-intervention measures per Group for total test score

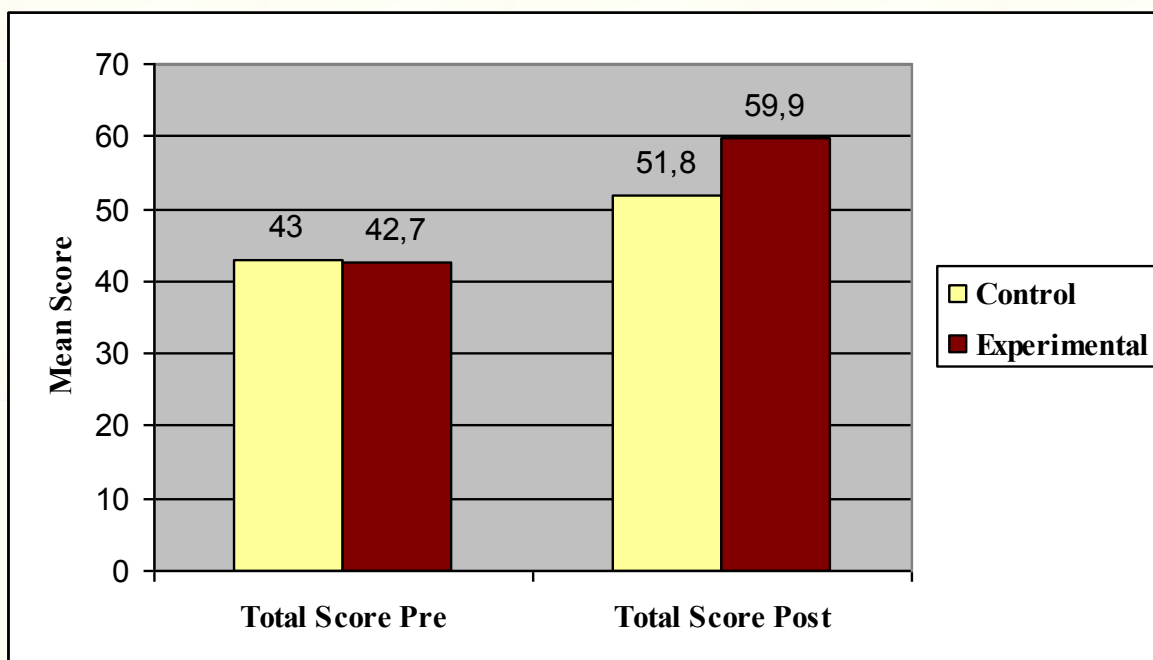
	Groups	Mean	Std Deviation	N
Experimental	Total score Pre	42.7b A	16.0	147
	Total score Post	59.9a A	15.1	147
Control	Total score Pre	43.0b A	14.1	139
	Total score Post	51.8a B	14.4	139

*For each stage, means followed by different lower case letters are statistically significant different, at significance level $\alpha=0.05$, according to the LSD criterion.

**For Pre- Post- comparisons, means followed by different capital letter are statistically significant different, at significance level $\alpha=0.05$, according to the LSD criterion.

In addition, ANOVA showed that there was no statistically significant difference in the performance of the two groups at the pre-intervention measurement as the groups were equivalent in terms of performance in the baseline comparison. However, the post-intervention measurement indicated that the performance of the experimental group is statistically significant differentiated from the performance of their peers in the control group since they managed to attain a significantly higher mean score. Specifically, at the post-

intervention measurement the experimental group attained a mean score of 59.9 out of 110 whereas the mean score of the control group was 51.8. In the baseline the means of both groups were 42.7 and 43.0 respectively. As a result, the experimental group showed more significant gains in post-test scores in comparison to the control group (Figure 3).

Figure 3: Performance in the pre- and post- intervention stages for the experimental and control group

Moreover, the difference in mean scores for the measures from pre- to post-intervention for the experimental and control group was used to calculate the effect size of the teaching intervention which was estimated to $0.676/0.341 = 1.98$ (ratio of partial eta squares) (Lipsey 2001). Thus, the teaching intervention provided to the experimental group can be considered 1.98 times more effective in terms of mean scores than the established intervention provided to the control group.

4. Conclusion

The research data highlighted the success of the experimental teaching intervention as suggested by the learners' enhanced performance and indicated the significance of integrating the CLIL and TBL approaches in ESP course design towards optimizing learning conditions in tertiary education contexts. Emphasizing a dual focus on content and language learning (Mehisto 2008), the integrated approach allowed for creating conditions for naturalistic language learning and, therefore, facilitated the development of the learners' communicative competence (Met 1998, Marsh & Langé 1999, Marsh & Marshland 1999). Moreover, every effort was made to involve the learners in using the target language *for* learning and *through*

learning (Coyle 2000). Also, it efficiently enabled the integration of language and content (Muñoz 2006) and increased motivation and interest in the learning process (Grabe & Stoller 1997, Pavesi *et al* 2001) by encouraging diversified methods of classroom teaching and learning.

It should be noted that the students in the experimental group demonstrated better performance in test scores compared to their peers in the control group, who were taught in an 'ESP methodology', which strongly emphasized lexical items and terms along with receptive and productive skills development. This fact underlines the effectiveness of the experimental integrated approach to syllabus design in providing efficient training in both skills and subject-specific content. Therefore, the experimental syllabus can be clearly regarded as having had an impact on the students' mastery of subject-specific knowledge and skills through the provision of a focused approach which exposed them to a variety of discipline-specific tasks (Silva 2004). These tasks served both their immediate academic needs as students and long-term needs as professionals (Hutchinson & Waters 1987) and reconceptualized the link between the language classroom and the real world (Graves 2008: 417). The experimental course was of highly specific nature (Dudley-Evans & St John 1998) and this way its efficiency

to address the subject-specific needs of the learners' concerning their target discipline is established.

The findings also suggest that in largely monolingual societies, the ESP approach combined with CLIL and TBL presents a more effective means of language learning. By having the learners use the language in a cognitively highly demanding environment they are able to attain better mastery of the target language due to the meaningful nature of the communication which takes place, compared to the more traditional FL/SL teaching contexts (Varkuti 2010). On the same line, the integrated approach proved beneficial in terms of providing extensive exposure to thematically-coherent language in use and a potential for rich input (Willis 2009) adopting Adjunct-CLIL which necessitates cooperation between the language and content teachers and fosters specified outcomes for both content and language set in advance (Greene & Räsänen 2008).

To sum up, the results of the research project suggest that incorporating CLIL and TBL systematically into the ESP course can enhance the effectiveness of the ESP approach with regard to the development of learners' linguistic skills and competencies (Lasagabaster, 2008) in the target language along with subject-specific content. The adopted approach can be regarded as a means of ensuring both specificity and originality by means of an educational proposal which aims at achieving language and subject matter learning simultaneously within any academic discipline (Loranc-Paszyk 2009) indicating the inherent connection between ESP and TBL and CLIL.

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INTERCULTURALITY AND RELIGION IN LITERARY TEXTS. AN APPROACH TO INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION METHODOLOGY

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Abstract

The religious issue is pervasive in every piece of L.Sciascia and G.Ioannou literary works. They criticize, condemn, accept, and experience, they perpetually experience. They show a religious concern, torture, eroticism, in quest of the truth. The church and its representatives, its types and its power are everywhere and deeply concern us. What we are looking for is its real face, that is, the face that will not cause an aversion. L. Sciascia is seeking God in art, in the mysteries of mind, in politics. He surrenders the body somewhere else. G. Ioannou also does the same thing with his body, love, and situations that are equally torturing and monastic. They are writers with special temperaments, with memory and knowledge who stiflingly experienced the systems of that period, from a very tender age. They experienced, recorded, criticized, and condemned with responsibility the religious, social and political formations such as Sunday Schools, the Second World War, the Civil War in Greece and the big migratory wave in Italy respectively. Palermo and Thessaloniki, the Italian South and the Greek North, Greece and Magna Grecia meet in the subways, in the complex places of the Catholic monasteries and in the rationalism of the Western Church, in the orthodox churches and also in the mystical forms of the Byzantine icons. Memory, religion and history are the materials of their art. The research that follows is considered to be a first approach, an analysis of the modern religious reality and of the way in which this reality is filtered in literature, in an intercultural approach, by illuminating some of the aspects of the issue.

Keywords: *Intercultural communication, comparative literature, multicultural management, comparative religion, ethnocentrism*

Main Article

Culture is a philosophy of life, values, norms and rules, and actual behavior, as well as the material and immaterial products from these, which are taken over by the man from the past generations, and which the man wants to bring forward to the next generation, eventually in a different form, and which in one way or another separate individuals belonging to one culture from individuals belonging to other cultures.

Communication is not a mechanical process such that managing communication appropriately will automatically result in the acceptance of the message.

By focusing on this paper - as well as my ongoing research in culture, religion and intercultural communication methodology on the above statement and the presented definition of culture, I, definitely refuse to be characterized as a member of one specific "scientific school", as I consider the study of culture, in general, far too complex to be studied only from the viewpoint of one specific "scientific school", or further more to be based on one specific paradigm.

In this way, theoretically as well as empirically, we have to count a hierarchy of different layers within a certain category of culture. And we never know whether the people involved in a cultural relationship consider one another to be on the same layer in the hierarchy.

The complexity of intercultural relations is also caused by the fact that people are not only to be considered as members, or part, of one category of culture, but of many different cultural categories at the same time. This can be referred to as the coincidence of cultures.

How knowledge, ideas, and values are disseminated among individuals and groups referring to language and communication in the widest sense.

How a common identity is created and preserved referring to ideology.

How the view of the relationship between life and death is manifested referring to religious institutions. The European system of regulating religion has two distinct levels.

The first one provides protection of the beliefs of individuals, held individually or in community with others, and is intended to safeguard fundamental religious rights: freedom of conscience, positive and negative freedom of religion, equality and nondiscrimination in religious matters, right of association for believers, and religious neutrality.

The second provides the rules or arrangements governing faiths, that is, the way in which organized religious groups operate and are structured. The types of relationship between state and Church, religions and, sometimes, philosophical groupings (humanists) differ widely among the states in Europe.

The research that follows is considered to be an approach, an analysis of the modern religious reality and of the way in which this reality is filtered in the literature, in an intercultural approach, by illuminating some of the aspects of the issue.

The religious issue is pervasive in every piece of L.Sciascia and G.Ioannou's literary works. They criticize, condemn, accept, and experience, they perpetually experience. They show a religious concern, torture, eroticism, in quest of the truth. The church and its representatives, its types and its power are everywhere and deeply concern us. What we are looking for is its real face, that is, the face that will not cause an aversion.

L. Sciascia is seeking God in art, in the mysteries of mind, in politics.

He surrenders the body somewhere else.

G. Ioannou also does the same thing with his body, love, and situations that are equally torturing and monastic.

They are writers with special temperaments, with memory and knowledge who stiflingly experienced the systems of that period, from a very tender age. They experienced, recorded, criticized, and condemned with responsibility the religious, social and political formations such as Sunday Schools, the Second World War, the Civil War in Greece and the big migratory wave in Italy respectively.

Palermo and Thessaloniki, the Italian South and the Greek North, Greece and Magna Grecia meet in the subways, in the complex places of the Catholic monasteries and in the rationalism of the Western Church, in the orthodox churches and also in the mystical forms of the Byzantine icons. Memory, religion and history are the materials of their art.

Let's focus on two literary masterpieces G.Ioannou's FOR A DIGNITY/ΓΙΑ ΕΝΑ ΦΙΛΟΤΙΜΟ and L. Sciascia's LE PARROCHIE DI REGALPETRA /ΟΙ ΕΝΟΠΙΕΣ ΤΗΣ ΡΕΓΚΑΛΠΕΤΡΑ:

Ioannou's loneliness is expressed in this literary text with an idea, with a thought that is a product of sensitivity as well as of sensory perception:

"I don't think that it is bad inside the prison. If I am, of course, fortunate to be totally isolated or together with a reserved person, I may be likeable there in prison. These qualifications are not present neither in churches now. They

are neither dark nor eerie any more”.

The writer is thinking, he feels marginalized, he was never initiated into the secrets of any company, but he was always alone in the course of life. Loneliness is like a greedy, undying quest, a passion (in order to get rid of loneliness) that has inside us an enormous power one needs to make too much effort to endure it. Ioannou is immersed in the unconscious of his own soul and gives it an artistic expression:

“Besides, they have raised most of them while they should have stayed for ever small, like the cells of the saints. These cells helped the saints very much”.

So, Ioannou's passion (loneliness) leads him to the quest for the loneliness, to the deliberate marginalization according to which the logic of the eye, the visual flavour and the perception of the situations and of the faces functions, because according to Gourmon, “The logic of the eye and the logic of each one of the other senses are enough to guide the spirit”¹.

“I also believe as far as I'm concerned that only if I close myself in a cell, I will be able to control myself and my world”.

He justifies himself for his confused psychological condition and he tries to find ways of self-expiation, escaping, “but each option of escaping deprives you from the most important thing of all the things that you possess as a man: “To exist”². He will be vindicated in life through the perspective of the monastic life of the Saints. He will find alone the cause of his mental confusion and only then will he be able to be released without stopping being or without feeling, “that you exist, means that you experience consciously the tragic paradox of your inside as well as of the things that are around you”³. According to Karl Gustav Jung: “The personal psychology of an artist may explain many aspects of his work, but not the work itself”. The writer avoids the total disclosure of his emotional world, but his work betrays him:

“Whenever I visited a Saint's cell it was

narrow. This shape is certainly not random. It brings together the spirit and the soul and it makes it at one with God. Besides, inside a narrow cell you feel that you are much more united with the people that you desire rather than when you are with them in the street”

He comes back to the life of the saints. His service in the Sundays Schools, his regular church attendance and also the reading of the texts of the Fathers of the Church shaped his religious faith. As a modern saint the writer himself chose for a companion a great purpose (maybe more than one). But “For this reason a great objective is a duty that you are going to carry alone”. He shoulders the memories, the pictures, the emotions and the burden of his life as well as of the whole city. This town that gave birth to him, these people who are moving along with him and who pass him without noticing him are considered to be the entirety of his great loneliness. He abhors the light and the reality. He prefers life in the dark, the observation and the secret looking behind the lowered rolling shutters. In the research of the human existence, for the sake of the search, the accumulation of the experience of the senses, “the recording of the senses operates with all its strength and “the experiences and the images are presented in their most lively and real form”⁴. He is in need of a shelter that will protect him from the destructive effect and the rejection of an environment without love. Furthermore, this submergence in the ego of the author which happens is like a secret participation in the subconscious, it is the secret of the (artistic) creation:

“In the Sunday schools, of course, we were not allowed to go to the cinemas. We had our haunt where we could spend pleasantly our evenings. Some people were discussing too much that banning, but I easily obeyed, because I didn't have too much time or money to buy tickets”.

Finally the service in the Sunday schools, during the period of the German occupation, apart from the common meal that was offered to the hungry children, it also shaped their consciousness. The children of the poor families,

¹Nasos Vagenas, *The poet and the dancer*, Kedros, 1979, p. 27.

²Chris Giannaras, *Hunger and thirst*, Athens, Grigori, 1981 (1969), p. 33.

³*Ibid*, p. 39.

⁴*Ibid*, p. 83.

like the writer himself, had no other choice, during the period of the occupation. The religious organizations were guiding the young people and they were passing on their messages to the thought of the children since their age was appropriate for the acceptance of any ideological, political and social indoctrination in combination with the simultaneous absence of an alternative proposition of a right and clear orientation, that particular period, however, the organizations in question performed a significant social work.

Ioannou stresses particularly the banning of the cinemas. We refer to a very fragile period where the writer is a teenager which means that he is in a period of a general personal concern that in combination with the historical moment, in the beginning of the Second World War, he gives us a specific picture in the previous passage: Sunday school – banning – cinema (neighbouring – popular cinema). The Sunday schools are considered to be for the author catalysts of the childhood innocence, the anvil of the religious obedience. But in G. Ioannou there is something stronger in relation to the meaning of the prohibition, he is looking for its cause, by going back to time and for this reason it becomes for him more torturing and more inaccessible, “the depth is the passion which shows intensity and transparency of the writing, faith in its internal necessity for a transmission of personal experiences”⁵. In the previous extract “the conventionality” is presented to us (FUNDAMENTAL REASON), by excluding the important truths. What the writer is trying to say is outside the narrative, without this fact meaning that we have the shape “APPEAR TO APPEAR”, that is, the writer’s viewpoint is simply presented just in order to be presented and all this process has a purpose, the truth, the author’s view that is suppressed, it also constitutes his thorough concept.

Ioannou likens the desert to the Mount Athos in order to emphasize his next sentence and also to lay much stress on the specific thought. The sin seems to be heavier and greater in vast places and especially in holy places (Mount Athos) and deserted (the desert). There is a dialogue between the city of Thessaloniki and Mount Athos which started 1500 years ago,

so the existence of Mount Athos is equivalent to the concentration of life and to the reality of life that is present in the city itself:

“The desert looks like Mount Athos: you can sin heavier than anywhere else”.

The open invocation of the writer towards God hides certainly an agony, the human suffering. Ioannou proceeds alone, he feels strongly the loneliness “because for his earthly course God is silent, hidden and not enough. A course with such an insufficient God is a torture. It is a terrible torment of hunger and thirst”⁶. Sartre notes: “This recourse to the divine will introduced in the Christian ethics, even if God was perfect and chained to his perfection, the element of grace and, consequently, some freedom inside the literature”⁷:

“My God, don’t allow me not even to say good morning to such, supposedly, refined subjects

Sciascia confines himself to the particular microcosm of Regalpetra. People believe in various things about the agents and those who keep up the religion on earth, the priests. It is the church which has the political as well as the religious power and the priests who taste the comfort and the luxury and they can exterminate and deprive the weak people of their rights, who stay unprotected, victims of machinations and generally of the Catholic Church structure. Rationalism pervades the whole literary work of Sciascia but it is also considered to be a characteristic feature of the West-European culture since there is the programmatic justification of the aims and of the objectives of the human activity, the reasonably articulated picture of the world in the consciousness of the people:

“The inhabitants of Regalpetra can believe anything that the archpriest, for example, has a harem or that he eats babies, any wild thing”.

“And the archpriest knows how to carry the cloak of torture”.

The writer’s religious consciousness is under

⁵George Delios, *The narrative*, Thessaloniki, 1965, p. 86.

⁶Chris Giannaras, *“Rationality and social practice”*, Athens, Domos, 1982, p. 13.

⁷Jean-Paul Sartre, *“What is literature?”*, Athens, E-70, 1971, p. 140.

the influence of Rationalism and, consequently, of the Enlightenment. Sciascia touches Voltaire in an extract from his "Philosophical letters", behind the actions of the others that are done because of the interest the man is a pawn of his passions. Easy money, easy love and obtaining goods in an unorthodox way:

"If the chaplain of San-Rocco spends one thousand lire to make the church a Combianchi, all people will praise him for his honesty and for his tireless care. If the archpriest spends one million lire by also adding from his own money in order to repair with delicacy and good taste the Cathedral, there will not be even a dog that is willing to recognize, at least, this effort that he made".

He gives us, at the same time, the social dimension of the problem. The religious rationalism in the Catholic Church arranges goals of social practice by designing function units. Their individuals with the existence that is imposed on them from the rationalism of the social system and for this reason the punishment of the self-dethronement, of the flight is preferred as a solution in case a priest commits a crime:

"There is the young priest that the small and ridiculous scandal happens to him and he runs away but there is also the priest that the big scandal happens to him and the correspondents of the newspaper "Unità" come as the hawks, titles, three-columns, photographs. People enjoy themselves when the wind of the scandals blows".

For one more time the rationalistic shape is repeated, the logically articulated picture of the world triumphs in the consciousness of the ordinary people and faith and thought are two completely different things. Sartre notes: "Within the religious ideology, the questioning was possible because the believer attributed his obligations and the rules of his faith to God's will. He established, from that fact, between him and the Supreme a specific and feudal bond of a face towards another face"⁸:

"It is easy for someone to understand the

blaming, it is not of the young priest who felt to the temptation and of the girl who felt the hand of the priest, it is the prelate's blame, of that little man of whom the long life was never interspersed with a dose of suspicion taken from Boccaccio's stories".

Here Sciascia surpasses not only himself but also the literary tradition of Sicily, in the impersonal of the Italian naturalism there is no subjectivity, there is no artificial spontaneity, that is, the characteristic idiom of the writers of realism. The writer's aim is to construct and present faithfully the truth, this self-awareness of the writer towards the situations is accompanied, as it is natural, by a common awareness in relation to the potentialities of the "gifted medium" of the authorial act, which means of the language: Sciascia handles two socio-linguistic codes, the religious (priests, chaplain, parish) and the political (political, family group, politicians, electoral game, candidates, votes, parties). The term "hardly orthodox" indicates as a political term a typical political movement. But even though the extract is reinforced linguistically in a clearer way, with the addition of the verb "moves" which comes from the political code motion of the mass of the people and it overemphasizes the ability and, at the same time, the cunning of the chaplain. The verb "moves" does not have a subject, it borrows the subject of the previous verb, that is, "the chaplain of San-Rocco", which is also the subject of the previous verb "knows how to manoeuvre", which means that he knows his job, that even in this phrase it contains some legitimacy. With the verb "moves", the action of the chaplain is determined more by wanting, possibly, L. Sciascia to stress mostly the corruption of the Catholic Church as a whole, its perpetual cooperation with the politicians and the centres of power as well as its continual struggle with the politicians and the centres of power and also its continual struggle for asserting the political power and the social and ideological coercion that is exercised on the people. The above are becoming more obvious in the extracts that follow:

"The rest of the priests do not approve of this family group and for this reason they are trying to make direct contacts with

⁸Ibid.

the politicians in the electoral game. Each priest has his own candidate, he bets on his own number”.

“... a direct contact between the priest and the politician is made”.

“A chaplain represents a power of three-hundred to four-hundred votes, for a chaplain who knows how to do his job”.

“The chaplain of San-Rocco, who knows how to manoeuvre, moves his seven-hundred votes by using a method which is not too much orthodox in relation to the parties”.

This shows us how the chaplain manages, by using unfair means, to win his votes. Sciascia knows the relation of the church with the Mafia and politics. The ideological oppression and the gagging of consciousness lead women to give their vote (that is their husband's vote) to the party and to the candidate that the chaplain supports. The faith in the chaplain and in the religion works miracles, it elects and guides, it commands and it hesitates, it gives bounty, it subjects and it rejects. The blind trust that the illiterate pious women of the South show in the hero of the book (chaplain) is one more blow in the already broken heart of the writer who sees that the structures and the consciousness cannot change quickly while he is talking about radical change. Sciascia presents the situation without suggesting ways of solving and dealing with the problem; he leaves this to the others, as W. Pedulla also stresses: “Sciascia does not elucidate the fact, he presents it and he does not comment on it”⁹, by showing, perhaps, in this way, his indirect detachment. Here, the following characterization also fits: “That flexibility, that mood for subjection which was a hidden and greedy touch is changed into inactivity, into desperate passivity in front of an inevitable destiny”¹⁰. The culture of the Italian South becomes obvious in the following paragraphs:

“It has a parish that consists of peasants, small landowners and of hourly-paid workers, communists in the majority, but women pay back with their faith their

husband's mistake and the seven-hundred votes fall one after the other due to the unsurpassed faith of the women”.

Morality is separated from religion. The priests, for the sake of interest, oppress their clergy:

“But when he needs money for his church, he becomes more reasonable and precise and they give his money in Palermo”.

Sciascia presents to us the real picture. His words do not prove to be invalid, but it is the false rationality of the modern world which makes the idea of the words seem a mere illusion. The “consciousness” is the key word. “The individuals are identified with what it is imposed on them (Sicily – village – closed society) from the rationalism of the social system” (Catholicism). Literature and generally art can express the thing that we are not able to express because there are social constraints and obstacles¹¹:

In case that the prelate gives the certificate, he makes a plea to the consciousness of the person who is interested – I don't know – he says – if you are not, in reality, a communist, his consciousness knows it. To the peasant it seems ridiculous the relevant to the consciousness, that is, to starve because of hunger and also to be aware of it, is something that cannot be understood in Regalpetra. How much firmer can be, in reality, the Catholic Church and its body? There is a tendency to mockery and causticity in the excerpt, people do not tolerate amendments and changes and each change is being watched with suspicion and scepticism”.

People want the church to be firm, stable and compact. “The tradition historically became a fixed form that within it, life was imprisoned and immobilized. “The more reasonable or rationalized the existence becomes, the more enforced becomes at the same time, that if it is logic for the dominant groups, it is not for the

⁹Walter Pedulla, *La letteratura del benessere*, Roma, Bulzoni, 1973 (1968) p. 318-331.

¹⁰N. Sarro, “Magazine Testing” number 8-9, Ioannina, July-October 1974, p. 215.

¹¹Chris Giannaras, *Ibid*, p. 38.

tame, there is compulsion”¹². The writer presents a picture from the daily work of a worker in the cave of the salt-pit, firstly, in order to create a fairy-like atmosphere and then a religious atmosphere with a dose of ironic detachment. There is a very serious reason that connects this picture with the religion. The caves (the salt-pits) are in the foreground and L. Sciascia is used to giving detailed descriptions of the salt-pits, by showing, in this way, his ability to describe the surrounding area as well as his excellent technical knowledge. The salt-pits are considered to be an important factor of the economic and social reality of Sicily:

“If here (in the caves), there were candles as in the church, we would be as if in a magical room where all the people could dance”.

How does a person's/writer's system of beliefs affect communication? How can we improve intercultural communication by having a basic understanding of different religions or philosophical systems?

The intercultural idea expresses, above all, the one and the only way of existence, the uniting opinion of the world human web, a kind of an equal relationship among the different people that is exactly the opposite of the ethnocentric narcissism. Our national identity is not the reason that leads us to the isolation and esotericism, but our main negotiating element in the dialogue with the “other”, during the process of its mutual – dialogic recognition. However, the gradual exceeding of the limits of the national narcissism (nationalism) may lead to the demand for a precious multicultural identity in which the national diversity will be transformed into a polyphonic body, pluralistic, multi-collective and, in a few words, intercultural.

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¹²Antonio Gramsci, “*Literature and national life*”, Athens, Exandas, 1981, p. 181.

LINGUISTIC METAPHOR AND THE NAMES OF COLOURS

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Abstract

Metaphor is a principal and primary lexical means by which the lexical-semantic group with the meaning colour develops and is enriched with new lexical units. The ability to language recording of the expressed diversity of the world that surrounds man lies in the associative and analogical connection between different concepts and objects with impressively attractive and original colour and language elements that act as carriers of the property colour. The similarity between the concept and its language identifier is at the extent to absoluteness. Our interest will be directed towards discovering such absoluteness among international words that are commonly accepted names of colours.

Keywords: *metaphor, colour, meaning, naming, internationalism*

1. Introduction

Colours are all around us, and their influence on our lives is enormous. Colour is one of the most important information to a person coming from the outside world. Its penetration into human consciousness is always associated with some symbolism that is a reflection of the personal or collective expression. This is due to the fact that people always experience colours very intensely, they are an integral component of everyday life of man and they have attracted his attention since the very beginnings of the development of human civilization. Hence the universality of colours as a general sign that follows their expression as lexical units, as well as being a component of the chromatic terminology in all languages.

Reviewing the colour system and the linguistic representatives, it is easily observed that qualitative adjectives are the main and basic, but not the only component of the system, which covers the semantic dimension of colours. Relative adjectives, adjectives indicating materials, nouns and noun phrases also occupy a significant place in the respective semantic space. Their presence hues this lexical-semantic group with quantitative indefiniteness which occurs due to the unlimited possibilities for nomination of noun phrases and close mutual entanglement of the primary and secondary meanings of many nominal and adjectival lexemes. Namely, due to the man's greater

nuancing of the world around him, there is a continuous stream of new lexemes denoting a colour regardless of referring to lexemes which express their meaning within its basic semantic realization or referring to lexemes that the meaning of *colour* express as secondary, figurative denomination in the process of secondary nomination. Syntagmatic formations such as *the colour of* are especially interesting due to the possibility of their unlimited production and semantic linking according to the colour of any common or uncommon concept that attracts the human eye strikingly and clearly enough to provoke in his consciousness the process of creating a new nominative mark with chromatic value. These noun phrases are calqued names with universal linguistic value. The possibilities of their formation are being limitless, and the concepts causing metaphorical associations with chromatic value come from different languages, they belong to different semantic dimensions, they cover different semantic fields. Such syntagmatic formations according to the colour of a plant, fruit, animal, object etc. being distinguished by their specific colour or nuance of colour tend to become an inevitable, integral component of the spectral system of the colours in all languages. In addition, some of the metaphorical nominations *type of colour* or perhaps, *nuance of colour* will be mentioned, according to individual nominations of the animalistic, botanical and culinary vocabulary that can be found in written texts, as well as in everyday communication: *vanilla-coloured, iris-coloured, apricot-coloured, lavender-coloured, lemon-coloured, tangerine-coloured, olive-coloured, orange-coloured, grass-coloured, tobacco-coloured, cherry-coloured, dove-coloured, camel-coloured, sepia-coloured, wine-coloured, cappuccino-coloured, coffee-coloured, honey-coloured, mustard-coloured, champagne-coloured, caramel-coloured, ivory-coloured* etc. These nominations reveal not only the relationship between the lexical-semantic group having the meaning *colour* and other lexical-semantic groups with different meanings, but the links as well, connecting different names according to one or other semantic components, creating new semantic nominations in the colour system and building different relations of lexical and grammatical aspect.

2. Elaboration

For the lexical-semantic group having the meaning *colour*, the metaphor represents a main and basic lexical means by which it is being developed and enriched with new lexical units, especially a productive semantic model for creating secondary lexical meanings with new linguistic value, a distinctive attribute marking the group itself with indefiniteness according to the number of members constantly attracting to itself new nouns and new adjectives converting them into lexemes with a precise nuance of everything that the human eye perceives. The ability for linguistic denotation of the expressed colour diversity of the world surrounding humans lies in the associative and analogical linking between different notions and objects with strikingly attractive and original colour and linguistic elements acting as holders of the feature colour as well as triggers of the nomination transmission from one notion to another, such as *semes* of lower rank. Metaphorically motivated linking of *semes* of lower rank is based on more or less expressed similarity of real, specific notions in our linguistic consciousness associated analogously and associatively to the separated, marked distinction representing their colour. The similarity between the notion and its linguistic identifier is to the extent of absoluteness, and the realization of the accurate identification value is due to the established relationship with the notion possessing the required colour as the subject of nomination. Thus, the constant inflow of new lexemes having the meaning *nuance of colour* instead of *colour* can be explained through human creativity as the spectral system of primary colours is present in all languages, and each language has its own nomenclature for nomination using domestic lexemes, and internationalisms for nominating primary colours such as *brown* and *orange* are insignificant in terms of the real richness for nominating nuances of colour such as *copper, bronze, beige, tan, lilac, purple, reseda, turquoise, cyclamen, terra cotta, aquamarine, ultramarine* etc. The similarity is so obvious, striking and expressed in a largely enough extent to cause absolute real identification and precise linguistic nomination.

The metaphorical associations according to the element *colour* produce the new nomination *type of colour* or *nuance of colour* in the process

of secondary nomination according to the seme which is usually being present in the seme structure of a particular lexeme denoting another concept - metal, mineral, plant or animal with the underlying semantic content. But the respective seme was powerful enough to produce a new semantic meaning and form entirely new nominative mark, which semantically belongs to another lexical group. Thus the following lexemes for nominating and labeling colours and nuances of colour were being derived:

1. Nouns as names of colour or nuance of colour - are examples of typical adjectivization of one of the meanings in the process of secondary nomination motivated by the metaphorical development of the seme denoting the colour of the basic semantic content.

aquamarine (translucent semi-precious stone having the colour of the sea water);

bordeaux (named after the eponymous town in France where dark-red-coloured wine is produced);

indigo (*Indigofera tinctoria* is a tropical plant whose leaves, soaked in water and left to ferment with sodium hydroxide, give a blue pigment that solidifies by drying into dark-blue-coloured powder);

carmine (small insect, parasite, originating from Asia - *Dactylopius coccus*, whose eggs, dried and treated with acid, produce an intense red colour);

lapis (a dark blue coloured precious stone acquired from the mineral lazurite, formerly known as the lapis lazuli);

mahogany (a reddish brown wood of *Meliaceae* family which is used to produce furniture);

orange (sub-tropical coniferous fruit tree *Citrus aurantium* fruit with spiny branches, thick leaves and large round orange fruits);

reseda (aromatic ornamental plant *Reseda odorata* with upright trunk, spirally arranged leaves and greyish-green flowers gathered in clusters);

sepia (a sea animal *Sepia officinalis* of the order of molluscs having eight short and two long tentacles used to prey, contains a bag inside the body with dark brown liquid discharged to hide from the

enemy);

terracotta (baked clay used to make pottery);

turquoise (semi-precious gemstone having specific bright green-blue colour);

cyclamen (ornamental plant of the primrose family *Cyclamen* with a pleasant scent and flowers with intense colours);

vermilion (a mineral, natural sulphide of the mercury having strong red colour).

2. Adjectives as names of the colour or nuance of colour - are qualitative adjectives or descriptive variants of the adjectives indicating materials and relative adjectives that develop their secondary metaphorical meaning as a result of the secondary semantic motivation and a additional secondary nomination.

azure - having light blue colour, the colour of the azure (sky blueness);

violet - having the colour of a violette (a field flower *Viola odorata* with violet flowers);

lilac - having pale violet colour, the colour of lilacs (according to the flowers of the decorative plant *Syringa vulgaris*);

olive - having the colour of the olive (according to the fruit of the tree *Olea europaea*);

bronze - being like bronze (alloy of shiny reddish-brown-coloured copper);

emerald - having the colour of emerald (green-coloured precious stone);

lapis - having dark blue colour, the colour of lapis (dark-blue-coloured gemstone);

porphyritic - having reddish-purple colour, the colour of the porphyry (reddish-purple-coloured rock);

ruby - having the colour of ruby (red-coloured gemstone);

turquoise - having the colour of turquoise (semi-precious stone with a specific bright green-blue colour);

chocolate - being of a dark-brown colour, the colour of chocolate (a mixture of cocoa, butter, sugar and other additives).

3 Conclusion

The explanations stated above have a status of marked dictionary definitions and represent a comparison according to the similarity in colour with clearly separated particular notion of reality, that is, with exactly defined prototype having a so-called local colour defined as a general colouration of the notion in the nature, and the colour being a dominant and recognizable feature. That means that, for example, the local colour of the flower leaves *reseda*, *lilac* and *cyclamen*, or the local colour of the gemstones *ruby*, *turquoise*, *emerald*, *lapis* represent prototypes used to define the colours they denote, but at the same time they appear as names denominating the colour itself. Thus, using the theory of the prototype and the linguistic metaphor, the presence of the increasingly higher number of nuances of one primary or local colour is explained as a general colouration in nature and the human need for clear and precise linguistic nomination of all the nuances that man encounters or creates by himself.

Considering the fact that colours are experienced as real, specific parts of the nonlinguistic reality that can be easily structured into clear linguistic fragments, as they represent strikingly and visually acceptable terms, it can be concluded that: the spectrum of colours has a variety of lexemes for nominating colours and nuances of colour and characterizes with the presence of a perfect accuracy in the nomination of notions according to the local colour of a particular prototype separated from reality and a recognizable dominant seme in the role of a language identifier of the nominated colour or nuance. This is due to the metaphorically expressed similarity between the notion and its linguistic value being on the boundary of absoluteness, it is so obvious, striking and expressed sufficiently to cause absolute real identification and precise linguistic nomination.

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LITERACY ACROSS THE CURRICULUM FOR THE BILINGUAL STUDENTS IN PRIMARY EDUCATION TODAY

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Abstract

Intercultural bilingual education (IBE) or bilingual intercultural education (BIE) is an intercultural and bilingual model of education designed for contexts with two (or more) cultures and languages in contact, in the typical case a dominant and an underprivileged culture. The IBE could be applied in almost any country in the world; however, it is discussed and also applied above all in Latin America, where it has been offered to indigenous people as an alternative to monolingual Hispanic education due to the efforts of indigenous movements. In recent years, it has become an important, more or less successful instrument of governmental language planning in several Latin American countries, as has been described for the case of Quechua in Peru. Will the early learning of a second language delay a child's language development? Research has shown that bilingual children do, indeed, lag behind their monolingual peers in acquiring language, and that bilingual children display language patterns similar to monolingual language-impaired children. In particular, research that compared monolingual children with language impairment and typical second-language learners demonstrated that these two groups made similar kinds of errors in their expressive language and grammatical morphology. Over time, bilingual children learn the differing rules governing each language. When bilingual children use cues such as word order to process and produce both languages, they come to learn how cues work within and between two languages, thereby creating a system of cues that differ from monolinguals. In short, bilingual children follow a different course of language development than monolingual children.

Keywords: *bilingual, duallanguage learner, curriculum plan, immigrant students, intercultural education*

1. Introduction

As the dynamics of today's world forces individuals to cross frontiers, thousands of children find themselves in schools where they must acquire such fundamental skills as reading in a language they do not speak at home. A common observation is that bilingual immigrant children perform worse in their new (or

additional) language than their monolingual peers in reading acquisition (August and Hakuta, 1997; Slavin and Cheung, 2003). In light of this overall pattern of lower reading performance in young bilinguals, educators struggle to understand which of their bilingual students are normally developing bilingual readers and which have more fundamental language, reading, or possibly learning disabilities. To date, bilingual reading research has primarily focused on the development of a bilingual child's reading skills, *per se* (Oller and Eilers, 2002; Lopez and Tashakkori, 2002). Studies conducted on the differences in the language abilities of bilingual and monolingual children are numerous. The present article examines these studies with the aim of developing an understanding of the processes involved to offer practical advice in reference to bilingualism and biliteracies. As educational language researchers and teacher educators, we need to look at developmental and learning processes, as well as the accompanying research on bilingualism and biliteracies.

There is a need for us to incorporate this knowledge into the everyday lives of bilingual children and the parents with whom we are in contact. We are often faced with difficulties that arise in children for whom the bilingual experience has not been successful, both in terms of language acquisition and biliteracy. The present paper outlines the pitfalls that need to be avoided in certain children if they are to be successful at language learning and in acquiring different and differing literacies. Do bilingual children have an advantage over monolingual children?

Early and recent research on bilingualism reveals very few shortcomings regarding the bilingual experience. Early research, such as the landmark study performed by Peel and Lambert, and replicated by Lambert and Tucker, points to cognitive advantages in bilingual children. Other research with bilingual children suggests that there may be a cognitive difference regarding development in either analysis of representation or control of attention, or possibly both, between children who became bilingual in early childhood compared with monolinguals.

Subsequent research has indicated that bilingual children are better than monolingual children at judging the grammaticality of sentences that contained distracting semantic anomalies. Bilingual children are also better than

monolingual children at understanding that the meaning of the printed word does not change if it is moved to accompany a different picture (use of pictures to accomplish literacy across the curriculum).

2. Bilingualism today

In many communities around the world, competence in two, or more, languages is an issue of considerable personal, socio-cultural, economic, and political significance. For some, the issues surrounding bilingualism are viewed as "problems" to be overcome; for others, they are viewed as "challenges" that, once mastered, benefit the individual, the community, and even the nation in which they live. The need to know two or more languages is not new. Historical documents indicate that individuals and whole communities around the world have been compelled to learn other languages for centuries and they have done so for a variety of reasons -- language contact, colonization, trade, education through a colonial language (e.g., Latin, Greek), and intermarriage (Lewis, 1977). Notwithstanding historical patterns, changes in the modern world are presenting new incentives for learning additional languages.

There is growing globalization of business and commerce. During the last 10-15 years we have witnessed unprecedented internationalization of industry and white collar businesses -- for example, in the automotive industry, head offices are located in one country (e.g., Japan), manufacture of automobiles takes place in another country (e.g., Brazil), and clients are in a third country (e.g., Canada). Even in North America, a relatively homogeneous linguistic community and trade zone, we are challenged to learn other languages to remain competitive -- for example, in response to the Spanish-speaking markets in Mexico and the French speaking market in Quebec. While globalization of the market place often provokes images of English domination, it also increases the demand to do business in local or regional languages (Walraff, 2000).

A revolution in electronic communications has also created a need for proficiency in multiple languages. The Internet makes global communication available and easy, whether it is for personal, professional, commercial, or other reasons. On the one hand, this has created a

particular need for proficiency in English as a lingua franca on the internet. On the other hand, as with economic globalization, global communication via the internet has also created the possibility of much greater communication in regional languages. Indeed, domination of the internet by English is giving way to a much stronger presence of regional and local languages as e-commerce takes hold and begins to commit resources to communicating with local and regional markets. In fact, there are presently more internet sites in languages other than English than English (Global Reach, 2000).

Voluntary immigration of people from country to country is taking place on an unprecedented scale – we have already mentioned economic reasons for this; but, there are also political, educational, cultural, and strictly personal reasons for this.

At the same time, we are moving into a socio-political era when linguistic domination by “big” languages of “little” languages is becoming more difficult. In particular, indigenous people in a number of regions of the world are organizing to preserve and promote their languages at the same time as they acquire other important national and regional languages -- for example, Basque in the Basque Country; Mohawk in Canada; and Hawaiian in the U.S.

Schools have an important role to play in providing the bi- and multilingual skills that are becoming increasingly necessary in the modern world. The educational programs that have been developed to provide such language competence are varied. This paper focuses on one; namely bilingual education. For purposes of this paper, bilingual education is defined with respect to three features: linguistic goals, pedagogical approaches, and levels of schooling. More specifically, bilingual education is defined as education that aims to promote bilingual (or multilingual) competence by using both (or all) languages as media of instruction for significant portions of the academic curriculum. While programs that fit this description exist at the tertiary or post-secondary level (e.g., Burger, Wesche, & Migneron, 1997), this paper limits itself to programs at the elementary and secondary levels (for students from approximately 5 to 17 years of age).

Integrating language and academic instruction is the hallmark of bilingual education (see Genesee, 1987, and Met, 1998, for more

detailed explications of this approach). As Met (1998) points out, there currently exist a variety of L2 instructional approaches that integrate language and content instruction and these can be characterized as falling along a continuum from language-driven to content-driven. In language-driven approaches, content is used simply as a vehicle for teaching target language structures and skills. The primary goal of these programs is language learning. For example, non-academic content, such as holidays or imaginary situations (such as life in a family or visiting the supermarket) is often used in foreign language classrooms to support language teaching and learning. At the other end of the continuum are approaches where the content and language are equally important so that mastery of academic objectives is considered as important as the development of proficiency in the target language.

2.1. Multilingual Education

Multilingual forms of education have been implemented in communities where more than two languages are used or useful. For example, Scandinavian countries often teach three or more languages in school so that students are able to communicate in other Scandinavian languages and in a world language, such as German or English. Parents in the Basque Country see trilingual education as important in order to foster competence in (a) Basque, the indigenous language, which is at-risk, (b) Spanish, the language of broader communication in Spain, and (c) English, a language of economic and scientific communication worldwide (Cenoz, 1998). There is a number of ways in which a third language can be added to the school curriculum (see Cenoz & Genesee, 1998, for examples). In some cases, trilingual education consists of instruction in academic subjects through two languages along with instruction in a third language as a separate subject -- for example, for daily 30 to 60 minute sessions. In these cases, the third language is not used to teach academic subjects. In the Basque Country, for example, Spanish and Basque are taught as subjects and are also used for academic instruction during the elementary grades; English, the third language, is taught as a subject beginning in kindergarten, when the students are 4 years of age (Cenoz, 1998; see Egger & Lardschneider-McLean, 2001, for an example from Italy). English is not used to

teach academic subjects at the elementary school level in Basque schools, although there are plans to teach academic subjects through the medium of English at the secondary level. In other cases, all three languages may be used as media of academic instruction, as in prototypical bilingual education programs. For example, in a trilingual program in Montreal, English-speaking students are taught different academic subjects through the medium of French and Hebrew in kindergarten to grade 4; English is introduced as a third language in grade 4 and is used to teach both English language arts and some academic subjects (Genesee, 1998). The *European Schools* in Luxembourg are trilingual in French, German and Luxembourgish (Hoffman, 1998; Housen, 2002). Luxembourgish is both taught as a subject and used as a medium of academic instruction from the pre-school years onward. German is introduced as a subject in grade 1 and later used as a medium of academic instruction. Similarly, French is introduced initially as a subject in grade 2 and subsequently used as a medium of instruction.

There is considerable programmatic and pedagogical variation among multilingual programs as might be expected from the distinct and complex socio – cultural – political circumstances of the communities in which they are situated. A review such as this cannot begin to do justice to the actual complexities of such programs (see Cenoz & Genesee, 1998, for more detailed descriptions of trilingual programs).

Trilingual education raises a number of interesting and important issues -- some are the same as those that have been addressed in the preceding review of bilingual education: How effective are they? Are they effective for students with diverse learner characteristics? Other issues that are particular to trilingual education arise: What is the developmental relationship among the languages?

Does the sequencing of languages for literacy or academic instruction matter? What are the limits to acquisition of three languages when there is no or little support for the non-native languages outside school?

Unfortunately, there is scant empirical evidence to answer these questions and the extant evidence is highly variable in nature. Programs for which reports have been published appear to be working satisfactorily. Evidence of effectiveness of the Basque and Canadian

trilingual programs comes from assessments of student performance on standardized and school-based tests and includes comparisons with the performance of students in non-trilingual schools in the same communities.

Reports of the effectiveness of the European Schools are based on participants' impressions and on the success that program graduates have in gaining admission to tertiary level education (see Cenoz, 1998; Genesee, 1998; and Hoffmann, 1998, and Housen, 2002, for more details). None of the published cases report evidence of interference or impediments to language development as a result of exposure to three languages during the course of elementary education, the level of schooling for such programs. To the contrary, Cenoz and Valencia (1994) provide some evidence that bilingualism favors the acquisition of a third language (see also Bild & Swain, 1989; Swain, Lapkin, Rowen, & Hart, 1991, for specific studies and Cenoz & Genesee, 1998, and Cenoz, Hufeisen & Jessner, 2001, for reviews). The same caveats that apply to the interpretation of evaluations of bilingual education apply here; namely, there is a bias to report successful programs and self-selection factors are operating. The evidence to date concerning trilingual education is encouraging; but we currently lack detailed understanding of the effectiveness of these programs. Clearly, we could benefit from additional research attention to these programs.

2.2. Language Typology

Bilingual education has come to encompass a variety of languages, including languages that are typologically different. Such programs are: Mohawk-English, Hawaiian-English, and Japanese-English; others are Hebrew-French-English (Genesee & Lambert, 1983), Chinese-English (Johnson, 1997), Estonian-Russian (Asser, Kolk & Küppar, 2001), and Swedish-Finnish (Björklund, 1997). In addition to typological linguistic differences, some of these language combinations entail different types of orthographies -- as is the case for Japanese-English and Chinese-English, which entail logographic and alphabetic scripts, respectively, and Hebrew-French-English and Estonian-Russian which entail different alphabetic scripts. Intuitively and pedagogically-speaking, typological similarity has important acquisitional and pedagogical implications. The closer the

typology and scripts of the two languages, the more transfer is likely to occur (Cenoz, 1998) and, thus, the more acquisition of the two languages will be facilitated. Typological distance might be expected to influence not only the acquisition of literacy skills but also the development of oral communication skills.

Fortunately, evaluations of all of the above programs have been carried out and can be reviewed here. With respect to programs with typologically different languages but the same types of orthography, there is no evidence that typological differences influence student outcomes significantly. More specifically, evaluations of students in: Hebrew-French-English immersion in Montreal (Genesee & Lambert, 1983), Hawaiian-English immersion in Hawaii (Slaughter, 1997), Mohawk-English immersion in Montreal (Jacobs & Cross, 2001), Estonian- Russian immersion in Estonia (Asser, Kolk & Küppar, 2001), and Swedish-Finnish immersion in Finland (Björklund, 1997) indicate that the overall pattern of outcomes is the same as in programs with typologically similar languages, such as French-English or Spanish-English, as was summarized earlier. In other words, immersion students demonstrate the same L1 development and academic achievement and, at the same time, acquire advanced levels of functional proficiency in the L2 (and L3 in the case of the Hebrew-French-English program).

However, research in these programs provides no information about the students' level of achievement in the written forms of the target languages. The challenges posed by orthographic differences may extend beyond acquisition of reading and writing to implicate academic achievement since students with limited literacy skills may also be limited in their ability to assimilate academic skills and knowledge in the higher grades when written language becomes increasingly important as a vehicle for academic development. This is true even in L1 programs, but is likely to be exacerbated in programs that teach in languages such as Japanese whose written forms require extensive practice. Met (personal communication) suggests that whereas distinct academic content can be taught in each language in immersion programs that use cognate languages, it may be necessary in programs that use languages with distinct

orthographies to teach those aspects of the academic curriculum that call for advanced literacy skills in the L1 and limit academic instruction in the L2 to content that is not literacy-dependent. There is a need for more research concerning academic achievement and how content can best be taught in immersion programs that use orthographically distinct languages.

3. More Studies but the same situation

What happens when a child with language impairment is called upon to develop two languages?

One study compared bilingual French/English children with language impairment with monolingual children with language impairment and found no difference for aspects of grammatical morphology examined in both languages. In other words, the language-impaired child could develop second language skills, but both languages were affected by the impairment. These researchers concluded that language impairment may not be an impediment to learning two languages. A study by Salameh et al compared the progress of bilingual Swedish/Arabic children with and without language impairment and found that the two groups developed grammatical structures in a similar way, although the pace of development in bilingual children with language impairment was slower.

What effect does bilingualism have on the development of phonological awareness, and does that have an impact on reading development? Similar to Lindsey et al, the authors understand phonological awareness to be a set of linguistic and metalinguistic skills involving sensitivity to the sound structure of spoken words. Phonological awareness is not the only variable in ensuring that children are successful in literacy. Cross linguistic studies in second language acquisition involving Chinese/English and French/English indicate that phonological awareness is a general, and not a language-specific, contributor to reading acquisition.

In other words, if children do well in phonological awareness in one language, then they will also do well in the other language. What are some of the challenges regarding the acquisition of biliteracies?

Research that the authors are presently conducting targets children for whom the French immersion experience in school has been a disaster. Many of these children have been later identified as having a language processing problem, central auditory processing deficiency and/or poor short-term auditory memories coupled with a working memory problem (retrieval). The challenge here is not bilingualism. Bilingual children raised in two languages exhibiting these problems are extremely successful in their oral languages for the most part. However, traditional literacy (defined as reading and writing) can be a problem for these children. All children require support in reading and writing. Bilingual children require support in both their first and second languages. Bilingual children with a language-processing deficit and/or memory retrieval problems require additional support in both languages when it comes to biliteracy.

Biliteracy, defined traditionally as reading and writing in two languages, could be disastrous for these children. In simplest terms, bilingual education is a special effort to help immigrant children learn English so that they can do regular schoolwork with their English-speaking classmates and receive an equal educational opportunity. But what it is in the letter and the spirit of the law is not what it has become in practice. Some experts decided early on that children should be taught for a time in their native languages, so that they would continue to learn other subjects while learning English. It was expected that the transition would take a child three years. Jim Cummins, a bilingual-education theorist and a professor of education at the University of Toronto, contributed two hypotheses. His "developmental interdependence" hypothesis suggests that learning to read in one's native language facilitates reading in a second language. His "threshold" hypothesis suggests that children's achievement in the second language depends on the level of their mastery of their native language and that the most-positive cognitive effects occur when both languages are highly developed. Cummins's hypotheses were interpreted to mean that a solid foundation in native-language literacy and subject-matter learning would best prepare students for learning in English. In practice these notions work against the goals of bilingual education—

English-language mastery and academic achievement in English in mainstream classrooms. Bilingual education has heightened awareness of the needs of immigrant, migrant, and refugee children. The public accepts that these children are entitled to special help; we know that the economic well-being of our society depends on maintaining a literate population with the academic competence for higher education and skilled jobs. Bilingual education has brought in extra funding to hire and train paraprofessionals, often the parents of bilingual children, as classroom aides. Career programs in several school districts, among them an excellent one in Seattle that was in operation through early 1996, pay college tuition for paraprofessionals so that they may qualify as teachers, thus attracting more teachers from immigrant communities to the schools.

4. Bilingual students in Greece

It was not until 1996 that Greece took its first serious institutional steps towards addressing the issues relating to multicultural classrooms, through a law that we will refer to as 'Law 2413/96'. The reason why, was the great number of ethnic immigrants coming to Greece as a host country mainly from countries of the Balkans (Albania, FYROM) the north and sub-Saharan African continent (Ethiopia, Morocco, Libya, Nigeria) and from many East Asian countries (Pakistan, Afghanistan).

These people, coming from many and totally different countries, have the need to establish of an "Office of Intercultural Education" within the Ministry of Education, and the aforementioned law, entitled "Greek Education abroad, Intercultural Education and other provisions" represented the first official recognition by Greek authorities that diverse communities had specific educational needs.

The Law consists of eleven chapters, of which only one refers to the Intercultural Education in Greece. In this chapter there is a general reference to the aim of Intercultural Education, its content and its organizational structure. More specifically, the legislators propose the establishment of "intercultural schools". These are to be a new type of school to be attended by mostly repatriated Greeks and foreign immigrants. The main concrete attempts to address diversity needs relate to the creation,

in 1999, of “Tutorial Classes” or “Reception Classes”, as referred to in Table 4. “Tutorial Classes” provide a couple of hours of after school tuition for minority children. Though the amount of tuition that students receive varies per school, in practice the amount of time spent in such classes (often in small groups) can vary between 3 and 10 hours per week. Students in ‘Reception Classes’ receive 5 to 10 hours of instruction per group. The amount of hours will depend on how many years the student has attended school, how many years of remedial instruction s/he has followed and to what extent he/she is Linguistically competent. Absolute beginners receive 10 hours of instruction per week.

During the rest of the school day they attend mainstream classes and they are expected to acquire the language through classroom immersion, which is tailored to the linguistic level of Greek students. Further legislation, put forward by Greek Ministry of Education in 1996, in collaboration with Greek Universities and financed by the European Union, supports three large educational programs. These relate to three specific groups of students:

- Muslim Children
- Repatriated and Foreign Students (also children of foreign diplomats working in Greece)
- Gypsy Children (ROMA).

The real results come only from the Muslim children, as it was the only program well financed and worked in Greece.

Research in Greece is showing that the arrival of migrant children in Greek schools is accompanied by adjustment difficulties in school, at least when they first arrive (Georgas & Papastilianou, 1993; Hatzichristou, 1995; Paleologou, 1999, 2000). In general, it has been found that children who enter a new environment or one different from their family environment experience difficulties both with respect to achievement and psychosocial behavior (Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1983; Cowen & Hightower, 1986, 1989; Ladd et al., 1987, 1990, 1996). This is especially the case for children who migrate from another country (Ladd & Price, 1987; Hatzichristou & Hopf, 1992, 1993; Kochenderfer & Ladd, 1996; Paleologou, 1999, 2000). It has also been found that the self-esteem of foreign students is quite low (Leondari & Kyridis, 1996). Though some of these problems

can be attributed to language issues, many are related to other issues, such as: (Paleologou & Evangelou, 2003).

- One cause of student ‘failure’ is the pressure they receive to assimilate. There are few if any measures that encourage the maintenance of one’s ethnic identity (Paleologou & Evangelou, 2003);
- many textbooks in Greece are ethnocentric (Damanakis, 1997, Paleologou, 2000, 2001);
- Counseling and psychological support services in schools are insufficient. They need to be extended to help all students overcome their emotional and social difficulties (Paleologou, 2000);
- Reception and tutorial classes can be improved, by including Intercultural Education principles. Teachers need to learn how to manage diversity and use appropriate teaching methodologies in the classroom (Gundara, 1994, Paleologou, 2001).

Although recent legislation provides for the teaching of Greek as a second or foreign language to immigrant students, in practice this only occurs in specific pilot schools within the framework of larger experiments in the area of Intercultural Education programs (Paleologou & Evangelou, 2003). Research has shown that teachers experience a certain amount of anxiety and feelings of ‘inadequacy’ when working in tutorial or reception classes, also because there are too few bilingual textbooks that are non-racist or prejudiced in their content. There is clearly a great need for teacher training with intercultural dimensions. Such training should include teaching methodology, as well as psychopedagogical techniques, that help teachers work more effectively in multicultural classrooms and deal more appropriately with their immigrant students’ difficulties and problems (Paleologou, 2000, 2001). Many authors have emphasized the importance of teacher training to combat racism and practice educational policies that promote social justice in schools (Zeichner, 1997, Gundara, 1994).

The teachers’ general lack of awareness of bilingual issues became further apparent as they did not bring up in their classes any issues related to the other languages and cultures that

were represented by their bilingual students. Where inadequacies in the use of Greek were found, they were, mostly, attributed to the lack of parental support in their homework and the lack of bilingual student participation in class activities. Through discussions with teachers, it became apparent that they did not believe that the use of L1 at home would have any positive impact on the development of L2 for bilingual children, which is directly opposite to the documented necessity for educators to build on the children's home languages in order for them to have better chances to develop both linguistically and cognitively (Cummins, 2000).

On the contrary, they would claim that they often advise migrant parents to use Greek at home, in order to promote their children's competence in the language of schooling. Moreover, researchers noted that when spare class time did exist, most teachers would spend it on more reading aloud. Teachers, on the other hand, are encouraged to acknowledge the importance of bringing their students' other languages to the school classroom, in order to enable the latter to build on their existing linguistic resources, as well as to assist them in developing more self-respect as children from migrant backgrounds of low social status. We presume that if teachers, becoming more bilingually aware, adapt, to some extent, the content of their teaching to the needs of their bilingual students and their communities, through activities, discussions and practices that draw upon migrant communities, migrant parents may become more involved with their children's homework, as their own experiences will become more meaningful for both the teachers and the whole of the class.

At this stage, the children's book on bilingualism has been welcome by a good number of primary school teachers, who has started using it in their classes, and we are looking for more teachers who are willing to use the book and involve their students in the proposed activities, in order for us to have the necessary feedback from the school community. Once it becomes accepted as a useful tool by teachers and parents in multilingual schools, especially, but definitely not only, in the context of Greek primary schools, other books, suitable for older students, with more demanding activities, may be produced, in order to assist teachers in creating positive multilingual and

multicultural school settings.

5. Do we need a Bilingual Intercultural Program?

If we examine the bilingual policies of our country in its schools, and assess them according to the criteria put forward by Fishman (1976), we must conclude that bilingual education is basically absent at the moment. We do see the implementation of limited bilingual programs in a few experimental reception and tutorial classes (for example in Menidi in Athens). In these classes, repatriated students from the former Soviet Union receive instruction in their mother tongue through experimental books created by the Centre for Intercultural Education at the University of Athens. However, when they attend mainstream classes they are only taught in Greek. Transitional bilingualism programs (Fishman, 1976) are not to be found at all in Greece. These are programs in which mother tongue teaching is used in the first classes of primary school. Gradually, mother tongue teaching decreases and is replaced by the official language of the host country.

On the whole we can conclude that repatriated and foreign students do not appear to have the same opportunities as their indigenous classmates (Paleologou & Evangelou, 2003), even if we move beyond language issues. Immigrant students, especially those who enter the Greek educational system at a later age, face unequal opportunities in their studies, since their educational and cultural capital is completely ignored or considered to be inferior. Educational exclusion of immigrant students is a possible consequence, which can lead to social exclusion later if not dealt with. (Paleologou & Evangelou, 2003).

As mentioned before, Intercultural Education principles offer a guiding light to address the problems we cite above. The basic principles of an Intercultural approach include: awareness and respect for cultural variation, solidarity with 'others' and the elimination of nationalistic ways of thinking. However, institutional changes are required to translate intercultural principles into classroom practice. This applies especially to the principle of multicultural awareness and the elimination of the nationalistic ways of thinking. Such principles can be taught effectively within the framework of humanistic education.

The application of a Bilingual Intercultural Education “model” in Greek schools, with appropriate bilingual textbook teaching methodologies, is a matter of urgent concern. Such models will be especially effective if they integrate cooperative learning into their methodology. Cooperative learning methods have been shown to decrease the gap between immigrant student achievement and that of indigenous students. (Batelaan & Van Hoof, 1996) They also put human rights, equal opportunity and social justice into practice the role of ICT in modern multicultural classes should also not be ignored. The development and use of appropriate educational software that can be used to teach Greek as a second or foreign language is of great importance. The educational value of ICT for modern school classes cannot be underestimated, also where its contribution to Intercultural Education is concerned.

Now that Greece has officially adopted Intercultural Education, what does this imply for classroom practice and the attainment of educational objectives? The answer is obvious given our research and that of others: until now, until this point Greece treats foreign students as monolingual. It ignores their linguistic background and it teaches them with books that are intended for Greek children in Germany or the United States.

In widening our scope from Greece to a larger geographical area we must be very cautious to avoid falling into the trap of euro-centrism, thereby building walls around what is considered ‘European’. Such a tendency can bias the way we view non- Europeans and threaten our global identity. We must stress the positive steps taken in recent years by the Greek Ministry of Education to address the changing student body, especially since this is a new phenomenon. It is to be hoped that the few educational programs that support mother tongue learning and the development of corresponding instructional material will increase considerably in the near future. It is important that bilingual programs continue after the completion of primary education. Intercultural Education constitutes the most appropriate model for educating immigrant students, and this should be supported throughout the entire period of a child’s linguistic growth, thus beyond adolescence (Paleologou & Evangelou, 2003).

In conclusion, the effective implementation

of Intercultural Education requires first and foremost adequate and concrete educational programs. Otherwise lofty discussions will not be translated into reality. A key factor will be to successfully cultivate a school ethos that supports the implementation of effective Intercultural Education practices throughout the entire school community. Greece has a long way to go, but it is on the right path.

6. Conclusion

While this paper indicates that much has been learned about bilingual education for majority language students, there is much more that we need to learn. Here are some research questions that need attention:

1. What pedagogical approaches are most effective in promoting acquisition of the L2? In particular, are there particular instructional strategies that enhance students’ mastery of the formal features of the L2 (or L3) while maintaining their fluency in the language? What forms of corrective feedback produce significant, long-term gains in student competence?
2. Are there students for whom bilingual education is not effective? In particular, are bilingual programs suitable for students with severe cognitive, perceptuo-motor, or affective disorders?
3. What intervention strategies are effective for students who are at-risk in immersion programs? Should services for immersion students with special needs be provided in the target language or can they be provided with good effect in the student’s L1 without switching the student to the L1 program?
4. What effect does classroom composition (defined in terms of the distribution of students with average, above average and below average academic ability) have on instruction and learning, especially L2 learning?
5. Are there specific instructional strategies that are particularly effective for teaching typologically distinct languages? In a related vein, how can literacy best be taught in languages with orthographically distinct writing systems? Is simultaneous or successive introduction of literacy instruction in two

- languages with different typologies and/or orthographies preferable?
6. How does the teacher's level of target language proficiency influence instruction and learning?
 7. Is there a role for bilingual usage -- that is, the use of both languages in the same lessons, in bilingual education? In other words, should the languages always be kept separate and, if not, how can they be used co-extensively to promote language learning? Notwithstanding gaps in our understanding, research has yielded considerable insights about bilingual education.

The following generalizations are compatible with the findings that have been reviewed here:

1. Bilingual education for majority language students is effective in promoting functional proficiency in a second, and even third, language at no cost to the participating students' native language development or academic achievement.
2. There is often a positive correlation between amount of exposure to the L2 in bilingual programs and level of L2 proficiency, but not always.
3. Bilingual programs that provide appropriate and continuous instruction can be effective with younger or older students; in other words, advanced levels of functional L2 proficiency can be acquired by students who begin bilingual education in the primary grades and by those who begin in higher grades.
4. Bilingual education is effective for majority language students with a variety of learner characteristics, even those that put them at-risk for poor performance in school.
5. Pedagogy and, in particular, the way the L2 is used and taught is important. More specifically, it appears that L2 acquisition is enhanced when students are given extended opportunities to use the language interactively. It also appears that while functional use of the target languages is generally effective at promoting L2 proficiency, instructional strategies that systematically raise awareness of and create opportunities for students to learn specific linguistic

forms that serve their communicative needs and goals can extend L2 learning.

6. Bilingual education in languages with distinct typologies and orthographic conventions can be effective in achieving a school's linguistic and academic objectives, although there may be limits on how far both languages can be used for academic instruction.

These generalizations cannot be taken as universal, invariant truths that pertain to any and all bilingual education programs--present and future. They indicate what can happen when bilingual education is implemented effectively. In any case, the extant findings are reassuring for those interested in bilingual education for majority language students.

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MAPPING ELEMENTARY SCHOOL STUDENTS' PREFERENCES FOR MASSCULTURAL LITERACY PRACTICES¹

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Abstract

The aim of the present study is to explore students' preferences in literacy practices related to mass cultural texts. It focuses on Greek elementary school students of the 5th and 6th grade (11-12 year-olds) in an effort to map their favorite mass cultural genres and to explore whether social parameters such as gender, ethnic and social background, and school performance influence such preferences. The data of the study were collected via questionnaires from 5 public elementary schools in the prefecture of Achaia, Greece. The findings of the study indicate that students show a clear preference for mass cultural texts which involve moving images, oral and written discourse, and music, while they enjoy less those which involve only written discourse and still images. Their preferences may be (but are not always) correlated with their gender, ethnic and social background, and school records. Hence, textbooks and language teaching in general could benefit from the exploitation of multimodal mass cultural texts to cultivate students' literacy skills and involvement in language courses.

Keywords: *students' preferences, literacy practices, mass cultural texts, elementary school students, multimodality*

1. Introduction

During the past few decades, literacy has become the center of attention in language pedagogy. Literacy involves the ability to process oral, written, and multimodal texts in an effective and critical way in a variety of contexts (Barton 1994: 192-194, Baynham 1995). Multimodal texts in particular combine different semiotic modes (language, still or moving images, music) to produce meaning in contemporary multilingual and multicultural contexts (Kress & van Leeuwen 1996, 1998, 2001, Kress 2003, 2010, van Leeuwen 2005).

Literacy is investigated as a social practice and involves, among other genres, mass cultural texts (Barton 1994: 58-60, Baynham 1995, Marsh 2004, Marsh et al. 2005). Such texts are an integral part of students' everyday life, and hence a significant part of their everyday literacy practices. In this context, sociolinguistic research on students' literacy practices and the focus of

¹ The present study was conducted in the context of the Operational Program "Education and Lifelong Learning" and has been co-funded by the EU (European Social Fund) and by national resources. In particular, it was conducted in the framework of the Greek research program Thalís (2011-2015), entitled: "Linguistic variation and language ideologies in mass cultural texts: Design, development and assessment of learning material for critical language awareness" (Greek Ministry of Education, Funding ID: MIS 375599).

school curricula on students' out-of-school experiences have both underlined the importance of exploiting mass cultural texts in language teaching.² Genres such as magazine articles, TV shows, pop songs, etc. have already started to be included in school textbooks aiming at cultivating students' linguistic skills (Alvert et al. 1999, Stevens 2001, Morrell 2002).

The aim of the present study is to explore students' preferences in literacy practices related to mass cultural texts. More specifically, we concentrate on Greek elementary school students of the 5th and 6th grade (11-12 year-olds) in an effort to map their favorite mass cultural genres. Our study will try to provide some answers to the following questions:

1. Which are the most popular literacy practices related to mass cultural texts among students?
2. Do students' preferences interact with social parameters such as gender, ethnic and social background, and school performance?
3. Among the diverse semiotic modes used in most mass cultural texts, which ones appear to be enhancing students' involvement with such texts?

The findings of the present study could help us further develop and improve the material used for language teaching in elementary schools, thus rendering it more effective and attractive to students.

To this end, in section (2) we provide an overview of the sociolinguistic literature on students' literacy practices related to mass cultural texts. Section (3) describes the methodology of the study, while section (4) includes the presentation and discussion of its findings. The final section (5) summarizes the study and offers some tentative proposals for further research.

2. Researching mass cultural texts as literacy practices

Mass cultural texts as literacy practices have only

recently been investigated and most studies tend to focus on students' digital and online practices. Fewer studies explore such preferences in music (e.g. pop songs), TV programs, or printed material (e.g. books, newspapers, magazines). In the present section, we intend to present some main findings pertaining to students' preferences for such literacy practices, as well as to the influence of social parameters (gender, ethnic and social background, performance in language courses) on such preferences.

First of all, music and songs seem to form a significant part of children's everyday lives since preschool age (Rideout et al. 2003, Marsh et al. 2005). Children also exhibit a strong preference for multimodal media environments, where they tend to concentrate on the visual aspects of digital texts rather than on the linguistic ones (Facer et al. 2003, Koutsogiannis 2007). In addition, despite the widespread use of the internet nowadays, the time students spend in watching TV has not decreased (Snyder et al. 2008). In Greece in particular, Koutsogiannis (2011: 355) claims that adolescents spend an important part of their leisure time surfing the net and watching TV rather than reading printed material which is not related to their school activities.

Gender appears to play a crucial role in determining students' mass cultural literacy practices. Girls are more interested than boys not only in listening to songs, but also in watching TV (Livingstone & Bovill 1999, Ofcom 2008, Snyder et al. 2008, Trainor et al. 2010). However, such findings are not without controversy: Livingstone & Bovill (1999) and Ofcom (2011: 32) argue elsewhere that gender is not related to the time spent in watching TV. As to online literacy practices, the so-called *gender digital divide* (or *gender gap*) is often mentioned: boys show a more pronounced preference for accessing and surfing the net than girls (Holloway & Valentine 2003: 68).³ Studies coming from Greece confirm such findings by showing that boys (and men) use computers more often than girls (and women; see Lafatzis 2005, Koutsogiannis 2007, 2011: 166, Public Issue 2007).

² The term literacy practices is more often than not employed in ethnographic approaches to literacy, where researchers have the opportunity to closely observe and document speakers' behavior. In the present context, we have placed emphasis on how the informants themselves perceive their practices related to mass cultural texts, hence the present collection of the data was accomplished via questionnaires (Jannis Androutsopoulos, personal communication; see also Marsh 2004, Marsh et al. 2005).

³ See also Shashaani (1993), Reinen-Janssen & Plomp (1997), Livingstone & Bovill (2001), Cooper & Weaver (2003), Facer et al. (2003), Cooper (2006: 321), Ofcom (2006: 34), Anderson et al. (2008), Meelissen & Drent (2008), Dobson & Willinsky (2009), Ünüsoy et al. (2010).

When it comes to reading mass cultural printed material, boys seem to be reading only because they “have to”, while girls seem to be reading for pleasure (Stanat et al. 2000, EU high level group of experts on literacy 2012: 64; see also Livingstone & Bovill 1999).⁴ Moreover, Smith & Wilhelm (2002) suggest that girls value reading skills more than boys, hence they consider reading activities more significant than boys do. This is compatible with Millard’s (1997) claim that, especially in middle-class schools in Great Britain, boys avoid reading mass cultural printed texts in their effort to construct a masculine identity, thus implying that such reading constitutes a “feminine” activity.

Only a limited number of studies investigate the correlation between students’ ethnic background and their mass cultural literacy practices, and most of them focus on students’ online practices. Livingstone & Bober (2005) argue that there are no statistically significant differences between majority and minority students in accessing the web. In Greece, however, the percentage of adolescents coming from minority groups and having access to the net is significantly lower than the one of majority adolescents – a fact which is expected to have an effect on their online mass cultural literacy practices (Koutsogiannis 2007, 2011: 168).

Students’ social background does not seem to influence their TV viewing practices (Livingstone & Bovill 1999, Ofcom 2011: 33), but it does influence their online ones: students coming from privileged social groups have more easy and frequent access to the web than those coming from unprivileged ones (Livingstone 2006, Ofcom 2008). In a similar vein, Holloway & Valentine (2003: 24) observe that students whose parents are manual workers use computers less than those whose parents are not manual workers. In addition, in privileged social groups, if parents use new technologies themselves, they tend to better support their children in computer- and web-related activities (Buckingham 2004). The influence of students’ social background on their literacy practices is confirmed in the Greek context (Koutsogiannis 2007).

As to students’ school records and their

interaction with mass cultural literacy practices, a research conducted by OECD (2011) indicates that students who tend to read printed mass cultural texts on a daily basis have better performances at school compared to those who do not. In a same vein, Koutsogiannis (2011: 330) suggests that the better students perform at school, the more their literacy practices involve computers and the internet.

To sum up, listening to songs and watching TV appears to be an integral part of students’ everyday literacy practices. Boys prefer online literacy practices more than girls, who show a clear preference for printed mass cultural texts. In Greece in particular, majority students have access to the web (and hence to the relevant literacy practices) more often than minority ones do. Finally, students’ school performance seems to correlate with literacy practices involving printed and online mass cultural texts.

3. Methodology

3.1. Sample selection

The data examined were collected using stratified random sampling techniques, from students with different social backgrounds. Their social background was established by the area where their school is located and the educational profile of their parents; these two parameters seem to correlate (see table 1). The research was conducted in 5 public elementary schools in the prefecture of Achaia and 165 students of the 5th and the 6th grade participated (11-12 year-olds). These five schools can be stratified on a three-point scale, i.e. low (1 school), middle (2 schools) and high (2 schools) social background (see also table 7), while parents’ education is shown in the ten-point mean average.⁵

⁴ Stanat et al. (2000) summarize the main findings of a study conducted in 2000 by PISA (Program for International Student Assessment), where adolescents from 31 countries (including Greece) participated.

⁵ Both Father’s and Mother’s education were categorized in a ten-point scale, where 1 = no education, 2 = primary education, 3 = started but not finished compulsory secondary education, 4 = compulsory secondary education, 5 = started but not finished non-compulsory secondary education, 6 = completed non-compulsory secondary education, 7 = started but not completed higher education, 8 = completed technological higher education, 9 = completed undergraduate studies, 10 = completed postgraduate studies or a Ph.D.

Table 1: Parental education per schools' social background (ten-point scale mean average)

School's social background	Father's education			Mother's education		
	N	mean average	standard deviation	N	mean average	standard deviation
Low	19	3,37	1,770	19	4,21	1,960
Middle	31	5,42	2,125	30	6,00	1,965
Middle	26	5,69	2,204	26	6,50	1,923
High	36	7,56	2,103	36	7,17	1,889
High	28	7,82	2,000	28	8,14	2,049

Table 2: Distribution of students of Greek and Albanian descent by gender and school performance

School performance	Greek descent				Albanian descent				Total	
	Boys		Girls		Boys		Girls			
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
High	43	27.39	43	27.39	1	0.64	1	0.64	88	56.05
Medium	27	17.2	17	10.83	6	3.82	3	1.91	53	33.76
Low	9	5.73	4	2.55	1	0.64	2	1.27	16	10.19
Total	79	50.32	64	40.76	8	5.1	6	3.82	157	100

Students of Greek origin form the majority (86.65%) of the sample. The data presented here for the minority students involve only those of Albanian descent, who seem to form a coherent group with common sociocultural traits. Albanian immigrants in general are the largest immigrant group in Greece during the past few decades (63.2% of the legal immigrants in Greece; Emke-Poulopoulou 2007). Students of Albanian origin are 8.92% of the total sample and, at the same time, they form the largest minority group therein (77.8%).¹ The distribution of students of Greek and Albanian origin by gender and school performance is shown in Table 2.

3.2. The tools for data collection

Two questionnaires were designed for the collection of the data, one for the students and one for their parents (cf. Marsh 2004, Marsh et

al. 2005).² Students' questionnaire was 13 pages long and comprised both open and closed questions. The close questions included (some of which are presented in this study) measured students' preferences for mass cultural literacy practices via a ten-grade scale. Parents' questionnaire was one page long and aimed at eliciting information on the family's social and educational background via closed and open questions.

3.3. The research process

The research was conducted from the end of April 2012 until the end of May 2012. The questionnaires were filled in by the students themselves while at school and in the presence of their teacher and the researcher. Teachers

¹ On the whole, there are 18 immigrant students in our sample: 14 of Albanian descent, 1 of Ukrainian, 1 of Bulgarian, 1 of Romanian, and 1 student who has not answered the relevant question in the questionnaire. Roma students belong to a separate category, since in Greece they form an endogenous minority, but differ from the Greek majority and other minority groups from a sociocultural point of view. There are only 4 Roma students in our sample. In our view, this number of students is too small to provide reliable information on their mass cultural literacy practices.

² For the compilation of the questionnaires, we took into consideration the one that was used for the mapping of *pre-school* students' literacy practices within the framework of the same research project (see note 1) as well as Koutsogiannis's (2011) one. For collecting data on students' ethnic origin, we consulted the questionnaire used for the Sub-action 5.1 "Exploration of the need for supporting repatriate and foreign students' heritage languages" of the research program "Education for foreign and repatriate students" of the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki (2007-2013; Program coordinator: Anna Anastasiadi-Symenonidi, Sub-action coordinator: Aggeliki Kiliari). For collecting data on parents' education, we consulted the questionnaire designed by Fterniati (2001).

were asked to provide information on each student's performance in language courses as well as on their ethnic background, because the pilot study had shown that students did not always provide accurate information on such topics.

4. Results and discussion

For the statistical analysis of the data, SPSS 20.0 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) was used. In what follows, we present only a limited part of the data collected due to space constraints.

Table 3: Students' preferences for mass cultural literacy practices³

How much do you enjoy the following activities?	mean average	standard deviation
Listening to songs	8.65	2.090
Watching TV programs	7.71	2.215
Surfing the net	7.63	2.782
Reading printed material	6.81	2.541

Table 3 reveals that, among the activities involving mass cultural texts, students mostly enjoy listening to songs. Their second choice is watching programs on TV, their third surfing the net, and last comes reading printed material. Students show a clear preference for mass cultural texts combining moving images, music, and language (oral and/or written discourse), although such texts are semiotically complex and may be more demanding in their decoding. The fact that printed texts involve only written discourse and still images may provide an account for their final position on students' preference list. These findings are in line with previous studies (see Facer et al. 2003, Koutsogiannis 2011, and the relevant references in section 2).

³ The data presented in Table 3 comes from a question where students had to mark on a scale from 1 "not at all" to 10 "very much" how much they enjoy the following activities: 1. Reading printed material (e.g. books, magazines, newspapers), 2. Watching TV programs, 3. Listening to songs, 4. Surfing the net.

Table 4: Students' preferences for online mass cultural literacy practices⁴

How much do you enjoy the following online activities:	mean average	standard deviation
Listening to songs	8.87	1.913
Watching music videoclips	8.15	2.599
Watching videoclips	8.14	2.419
Playing games with other people	8.09	2.545
Playing games alone	7.65	2.826
Visiting various websites	6.74	3.127
Looking for material to help you with your homework	6.04	3.138
Visiting social networking websites (e.g. Facebook, Twitter)	5.53	3.804

Table 4 explores in more detail students' preferences for online literacy practices and reveals that students predominantly enjoy listening to songs (which is also their most popular mass cultural practice; see Table 3) and watching music videoclips online. In other words, the web provides them with easy access to visualized versions of their favorite songs. It also seems important for students to have the opportunity to enjoy their favorite music and lyrics (e.g. oral discourse) combined with moving images. They also enjoy watching other (non music) videoclips, playing games, and visiting various websites.

⁴ The data presented in Table 4 comes from a question where students had to mark on a scale from 1 "not at all" to 10 "very much" how much they enjoy the following online activities: 1. Playing games alone, 2. Playing games with other people, 3. Listening to songs, 4. Watching music videoclips, 5. Watching videoclips, 6. Downloading ringtones and songs for your mobile, 7. Looking up words in dictionaries, 8. Looking for material to help you with your homework, 9. Visiting chatrooms, 10. Visiting social networking websites (e.g. Facebook, Twitter), 10. Visiting various websites, 11. Reading blogs, 12. Reading online newspapers, 13. Participating in online surveys, 14. Expressing your opinion online on various topics, 15. Surfing without a specific purpose, 16. Using the internet for a different activity. Specify.

Table 5: Students' preferences for mass cultural literacy practices in relation to their gender, according to Independent Samples T-Tests statistical analysis¹

How much do you enjoy the following activities:	Gender						statistical significance
	Girls			Boys			
	N	mean average	st. dev.	N	mean average	st. dev.	
Listening to songs	74	9.22	1,23	85	8.16	2,38	0.001
Watching TV programs	74	7.64	1,95	87	7.78	2,33	0.817
Surfing the net	72	7.11	2,97	83	8.08	2,41	0.029
Reading printed material	74	7.41	2,32	86	6.29	2,53	0.005

¹ For this and the following tables, numerical values with bold characters indicate that the differences between the independent variables are statistically significant.

In Table 5 (for the data presented here, see note 8), it is shown that, although both genders enjoy listening to songs online (see Table 3 and 4), girls enjoy this literacy practice more than boys and the difference between them is statistically significant. Furthermore, both genders enjoy watching TV programs, but to a different degree. Nevertheless, the difference between them is not statistically significant. Hence, the present findings do not confirm earlier research suggesting that girls prefer watching TV more than boys (see the relevant references in section 2).

When, however, it comes to online literacy practices, boys show a statistically significant higher preference for them than girls. This finding is in line with several studies supporting the existence of a digital gap between genders, with boys using computers and accessing the net more than girls (see the relevant references in section 2). Reading mass cultural printed texts

combining written discourse and still images is clearly more preferred by girls than by boys. This difference could be related to the fact that girls tend to be more interested in cultivating their reading skills and more enthusiastic readers than boys. Boys' tendency to avoid reading printed material could be related to their effort to construct what they see as a "masculine" identity, while considering such activities "feminine" (see Millard 1997, Smith & Wilhelm 2002 in section 2).

In sum, girls enjoy listening to songs and reading printed texts more than boys, who prefer online mass cultural texts more than girls. Watching TV programs is much enjoyed by both genders. These findings confirm previous research on relevant issues (see Livingstone & Bovill 2009, Holloway & Valentine 2003 and references on gender differences in section 2).

Table 6: Students' preference for mass cultural literacy practices in relation to their ethnic background, according to Independent Samples T-Tests statistical analysis

How much do you enjoy the following activities:	Ethnic background						statistical significance
	Greek descent			Albanian descent			
	N	mean average	st. dev.	N	mean average	st. dev.	
Listening to songs	142	8.74	1,23	13	8.23	2,38	0.385
Watching TV programs	143	7.85	1,95	14	6.86	2,33	0.298
Surfing the net	139	7.88	2,97	13	5.85	2,41	0.138
Reading printed material	143	7.00	2,32	14	4.86	2,53	0.014

Table 6 shows that students enjoy listening to songs and watching TV programs regardless of their ethnic background (for the data presented here, see note 8). In other words, they enjoy literacy practices involving moving images, oral discourse, and music. Online mass cultural texts are less preferred by students of Albanian origin – however, this difference is not statistically significant. Statistically significant is the difference between students of Greek and Albanian origin in relation to printed mass

cultural texts, as students of Albanian origin enjoy less the reading of printed material.

In sum, both ethnic groups equally enjoy listening to songs, watching TV programs and surfing the net, while majority students enjoy reading printed material more than minority ones. Such findings are compatible with Koutsogiannis' ones (2007, 2011), but incompatible with the ones by Livingstone & Bober (2005).

Table 7: Students' preference for mass cultural literacy practices in relation to the social milieu of the area where their school is located, according to Correlation Analysis¹

How much do you enjoy the following activities:	Social milieu ² of the area where the school is located	
	Pearson correlation	statistical significance
Listening to songs	-0.109	0.178
Watching TV programs	-0.192	0.004
Surfing the net	0.190	0.019
Reading printed material	-0.046	0.665

¹ Correlation Analysis has been selected as both the dependent and the independent variables are scalar.

² As we showed earlier in Table 1, the social background of the five schools in our research has been stratified on a three-point scale, i.e. low, middle and high social background.

In Table 7, it is suggested that students show a strong preference for listening to songs regardless of their social background. The same holds for their preference for reading printed material. On the contrary, their online literacy practices and TV watching ones are influenced by their social background. In particular, students from privileged social groups exhibit the highest preference for online literacy practices, while those from unprivileged ones the lowest preference, as the positive sign of the numerical value of Pearson's correlation shows. This may result from the fact that upper, higher-income social groups may be able to afford a computer and an internet connection at home. On the other hand, the negative sign of Pearson's numerical value in relation to the practice of watching TV programs indicates that students coming from unprivileged social groups watch significantly more TV than those from privileged social groups.

To sum up, in relation to their social background, students from more privileged groups seem to enjoy online mass cultural texts more than students from less privileged groups.

On the other hand, students from less privileged groups, seem to enjoy watching TV programs more than their colleagues from more privileged social groups. Hence, earlier findings are confirmed by the present study (see Livingstone & Bivill 1999, Holloway & Valentine 2003, and the relevant references in section 2).

Table 8: Students' preferences for mass cultural literacy practices in relation to their school performance in language courses, according to Correlation Analysis

How much do you enjoy the following activities:	School performance	
	Pearson correlation	statistical significance
Listening to songs	0.055	0.497
Watching TV programs	0.083	0.304
Surfing the net	0.076	0.349
Reading printed material	0.311	0.000

Finally, Table 8 (for the data presented here, see note 8) reveals that students' preferences for mass cultural texts are not related to their performance in language courses, with the exception of the practice of reading printed material. More specifically, as the positive sign of Pearson's correlation numerical value shows, the more students prefer reading printed mass cultural texts, the better they perform in language courses – and this finding is statistically significant. It could be suggested that students who are more familiar with printed mass cultural literacy practices are more likely to do better in their language courses, since such activities often belong to schooled literacy practices. On the contrary, songs, TV programs, and surfing the net, which are most enjoyed by all students, influence their performance in language courses less, since they are not part of schooled literacy (see Koutsogiannis 2011, OECD 2011 in section 2).

5. Concluding remarks

The present study suggests that Greek elementary school students of the 5th and 6th grade prefer listening to songs, watching TV programs, and surfing the net much more than reading printed mass cultural texts. Their preferences are gender-related: girls enjoy listening to songs and reading printed material more than boys who are fonder of online mass cultural literacy practices. Such differences are not, however, attested in their TV literacy practices.

Among the mass cultural literacy practices examined here, reading printed material is influenced by students' ethnic background: majority students prefer such practices more than minority ones. Students' social background

also appears to be significant for students' online literacy practices: upper-class students enjoy them more than lower-class ones. Furthermore, there seems to be a strong correlation between reading printed material and students' performance in language courses: the more students enjoy this practice, the better their performance is – and vice versa. The interaction between students' performance in language courses and their mass cultural literacy practices needs to be investigated in more detail, but such an investigation goes beyond the limits of the present study.

What is more, the findings presented in Tables 3-8 indicate that students show a pronounced preference for mass cultural texts which involve specific semiotic modes, namely moving images, oral discourse, and music, while they enjoy less those which involve only written discourse and still images.

Given that there seems to be a mismatch between students' out-of-school literacy practices and those included in schooled literacy (see the home-school mismatch hypothesis in Luke 2004), students' preferences in mass cultural texts could be exploited for compiling new teaching material or for supplementing already existing textbooks. Textbooks and language teaching in general would thus be able to better address students' needs and adjust to their actual interests and everyday experiences.

New teaching material could not necessarily be in a printed format (e.g. traditional school textbooks), since this format could not include genres combining oral discourse, music, and moving images. As a result, teachers in collaboration with students would have the opportunity to work on material brought to class by the students themselves, such as their favorite TV shows, pop songs, videoclips, and

other mass cultural texts. By becoming the focus of language teaching, multimodality could foster students' involvement in language courses. It should not be forgotten, however, that some students (e.g. girls, immigrants, or lower-class students) may not be familiar with online literacy practices to the same extent as the rest of the class. Hence, schooled literacy could help them improve their respective literacy skills.

Finally, teachers' training on such issues is the *sine qua non* for an effective and successful change in school materials and teaching methodology. Their contribution to improving students' literacy skills, whether related to mass cultural texts or not, is most significant.

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MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION IN SCHOOLS: PRINCIPLES AND GENERAL IMPLICATIONS FOR LANGUAGE TEACHING

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Abstract

In this review I shall present the main social principles and general language teaching implications of multicultural school education. Language socialization is a dynamic process of interaction during life, as people participate in modern societies, define and redefine themselves according to their new roles and either agree or resist to roles assigned to by others. Education and learning resides in real human expectations, hopes, and outlooks, and in the expression of emotions through individual and collective ways of studying. According to the critical pedagogy of Paulo Freire, every student carries his/her home language and culture in class. During teaching, pupils are encouraged to use their first language, so that they will not be alienated from their own cultural contexts. The educator searches, discusses and learns together with the students. Aiming at cultivating social relations in class, teachers may organize activities, such as team-work projects interchanging knowledge and experiences, and they may offer chances for round-table dialogue between school and students' families. These initiatives help develop stability and safety, necessary ingredients for success in second/foreign language teaching. Delving into the study of language, teachers and students may explore the social and political meaning of literacy, which derives from the social division of labour and the inequalities, such as gender, racial, ethnic, etc., so that a useful discussion about linguistic classism, racism and sexism could start. Teachers encourage immigrant children's participation, if they communicate more openly, set questions to pupils about themselves and their life, understand them, do not embarrass them, do not ignore them, or they do not allow others ignore their students.

Keywords: *multicultural education, second/foreign language teaching, conscientisation*

1. Critical theories on multicultural language teaching

Critical language teaching in multicultural environments is rooted in philosophical-political approaches and relative liberation movements:

- a. Frankfurt School, which calls for scrutiny, discursive practice and praxis (Norton &

Toohey 2004),

- b. Paulo Freire, who calls for redirection of students' "observations towards previously inconspicuous phenomena" (Lee 2006), for participation and conscientization, which means "struggle for self-awareness", so people can "transform their personal experience of the world [...] to form decisions" (Diaz-Greenberg & Foxx 2005), for "externalization, naming, and questioning the world, to accompany action that resists the psychological and physical violence and material disempowerment that many language students have experienced", the "marginalized learners" (Norton & Toohey 2004),
- c. Henry Giroux, Peter McLaren, Roger I. Simon, who call for social visions of pedagogical practices derived from myriad economic and political inequities, dominating, hierarchical and patriarchal practices (Norton & Toohey 2004).

Gorski¹'s article could be characterized as the most significant and critical of all mentioned here. He states that promoting equity and justice is not enough if individuals, especially teachers, view multiculturalism as a refreshing experience in schools and ostensibly agree with it but really reflect "a compassionate conservative² consciousness than an allegiance to equity", if they "support existing stereotypes and hierarchies", if they "fail to challenge the status quo"/ "to understand dynamics of power and privilege"/ "to encourage complex and critical thinking about equity", if they do not criticize corporate capitalism³, imperialism, colonization, racism, mono⁴-cultural/ ethnic/ racial/ linguistic/ religious societies, if they cannot connect school inequities with inequities from larger society and eradicate them (Gorski 2006).

¹ It is worth mentioning that Paul C. Gorski is assistant professor in the Graduate School of Education at Hamline University and an active consultant, leading workshops for educators on equity and social justice, proving multiculturalism in action.

² See also the same idea cited in Ingram 2002.

³ Polyglossia is currently eligible for the market competence (Wardle 2008).

⁴ See also the same idea cited in Ingram 2002.

2. Principles for language teaching in multicultural education

Language deficiency is viewed "as a measure of assimilation", which practically means reduction of immigrant's earnings, occupational opportunities and social mobility⁵ (Kossoudji 1988. Rivera-Batiz 1992. Dustmann & Fabbri 2003). "For immigrants the new language is not only a means of survival, but an important step in reconstructing identities", which "helps one to be aware of one's rights and duties and exercise them, to be involved in society and to participate actively in it. The new language and culture can enrich one's identity and make it more complex" (Bron 2003). On the other hand, this risk of incorporation, when immigrants make sacrifices, e.g. getting married in rural areas of the host country for survival purposes⁶, "adopting the values of the host society", learning the new language, and "giving up [...] native lifestyles" (Scully 2002), together with marginalization and exclusion from the majority, denies both full citizens' rights and ethnic identities.

In Greece, adult immigrants show a keen interest in learning Greek, but in fact they show reduced interest in enrolling and attending such classes due to a) low level of many immigrants' educational background⁷, b) hard, long-lasting, unscheduled, temporary, individual, underpaid work of low status, which means limited time⁸ for them, c) their anyway illegal status and their entrenchment in their community for safety reasons, d) their marginalization from local residents⁹, which means absence of interaction and collective expression of worker's rights, e) difficult examinations up to 2004, as only 1% of the candidates succeeded in obtaining the B level certificate and the examiners had not been taking account of immigrants' "age, previous educational background or common mother tongue" (Mattheoudakis 2005).

⁵ All these prove host country's dominance of language.

⁶ where domestic violence is more frequent

⁷ in combination with Greek language difficulties

⁸ in combination with absence of serious benefits from this certification, e.g. direct and ample subsidization (although government stated that it had subsidized participants at the first stage of the program, 2001-2003 (Mattheoudakis 2005)), which also would open gates for more than one job positions for every immigrant to choose, degree that permits free residence and citizenship etc.

⁹ in combination with many immigrants' decision to travel to another destination if possible, thinking of Greece as a transitional country

Therefore, multicultural language teaching should meet principles and values like these:

- Deconstruction of stereotypes and single-group identity (Wardle 2008).
- Democracy and plurality of ideas (Sudartini 2009, 2011).
- Multicultural awareness and sensitivity, respect of sociocultural and linguistic diversity (Sudartini 2009, 2011), appreciation and information about other cultures (Chou 2007).
- Issues of privileges, oppression, prejudice (Chou 2007), apartheid, sexism (Bieger 1995-1996), antiracist orientation (Norton & Toohey 2004, Chou 2007), "exploring the effects of racism and poverty on the lives of ordinary individuals" (Bieger 1995-1996).
- Universalist idea of education, free from ethnocentrism and imperialism (Sudartini 2009, 2011).
- "Critical thinking through discussion of mainstream ideology" (Chou 2007), critiques of power, issues of oppression, subordination and privileges (Norton & Toohey 2004).
- Social equality, equity, "direct action for social and global justice" (Colarusso 2010. See also Norton & Toohey 2004).
- Optimism (Norton & Toohey 2004).
- "Language learning as doing, knowing and becoming" (Allen 2006).
- "Participation in the host community" (Allen 2006).
- "Social consciousness and global connectedness" (Colarusso 2010), global interaction (Ingram 2002).
- Understanding of history, creation of the future (Norton & Toohey 2004).

3. Practices for language teaching in multicultural education

Particular provision should be kept in multicultural education for all, as "immigrants are more likely to be high school dropouts than are native-born persons" (White & Kaufman 1997), inequality of languages and cultures is part of the reality (Todd 2008) and cynical political exploitation of xenophobia is present in societies (Ingram 2002). Correspondent practices in multicultural language teaching should

include:

- Social services that help immigrants settle down and integrate in society, without losing contact with the language and culture of their homeland (Boye-Møller 1973).
- Facilitating foreign students' social, linguistic and academic integration to school's mainstream, which prevents from social and academic isolation (Allen 2006).
- Positive intergroup attitudes and behavior (Sudartini 2011).
- Students' familiarization with various ethnicities, sub-cultures and patterns of behavior, and equal treatment (Wieczorek & Mitreğa 2009), sharing thoughts and experiences (Diaz-Greenberg & Foxx 2005).
- Tolerance through empathy (Maslova 2012).
- Language use for work, effective communication, sense of daily life, explanation of cultures, understanding of community affairs (Boye-Møller 1973, Sudartini 2009, 2011), which means language teaching as a living experience and culture, not "as a set of rules and like something 'over there'" (Diaz-Greenberg & Foxx 2005).
- Authentic sources (Diaz-Greenberg & Foxx 2005).
- Care for searching materials, critical on the cultural biases (Sudartini 2009, 2011).
- Enriching the value of diversity by using multicultural literature (Lee 2006. See also Bieger 1995-1996, Diaz-Greenberg & Foxx 2005), "democratic, moral and liberating potential of learning through literature and cultural conversation" (Colarusso 2010) and history (Bieger 1995-1996).
- Comics as an attractive and playful learning mode (Norton & Toohey 2004).
- Material: newspapers and journals, customs, biographies, homemade dolls, diaries and narrations (Bieger 1995-1996).
- Activities: discussion, writing, movie script, illustrations, costumes or props for a play, singing, dancing, theatre,

dramatizing, role play, laughing, linguistic games and crosswords, choral reading, storytelling, folktales, myths, legends of different culture, multicultural festival (Yang 2006. See also Bieger 1995-1996) help students have "insight into dreams, customs and philosophy of life of a group" (Bieger 1995-1996).

- Language that "navigates technology humanly" (Colarusso 2010), internet and e-mail that "connect with the broader world perspective" (Diaz-Greenberg & Foxx 2005).
- Facing problems in language acquisition, such as narrow-minded attitudes towards unfamiliar people, cultural antagonism, ethnic discrimination (Rivera-Batiz 1992), and language barriers that reflect socioeconomic status and local history of immigrants (Kretsedemas 2005).
- "Quality education for all students" (Chou 2007).
- "Programs targeted toward building social capital for all students" (White & Kaufman 1997).
- Values, skills and knowledge for active citizenship (Sudartini 2009) and for the global community (Sudartini 2011).
- Teacher preparation programs for appreciation of diversity, for a pluralistic society (Chou 2007), "teachers (pre-service and career teachers) have to possess the desire to teach all of their students to the best of their abilities, whether they be multicultural or not" (Nichols & Dong 2011).
- Understanding of students' needs (Sudartini 2009), sensitivity of their economic and social background (Sudartini 2011).
- High expectations and standards for minority children (Chou 2007).
- Equal educational opportunities (Sudartini 2011).
- Academic language cultivation, as it "serves as a gatekeeper in postsecondary education" (Norton & Toohey 2004).
- Education for professional improvement, not just "filling the gaps, doing unskilled jobs" (Mattheoudakis 2005).

4. The example of the "Haunts of Immigrants" (Stekia Metanaston)

In the non-formal teaching of Greek as a foreign language at the "Haunts of Immigrants"¹⁰, knowledge is oriented to a) mutual linguistic enrichment between the first and the second language and to encouragement for interpretation, b) the working and social needs of adult immigrant women, domestic workers, as long as to awareness of necessity for collective demand of their rights, far from neo-liberal learning of conservative values, skills and discipline for the future work exploitation. These female students gain self-esteem, realize that 'knowledge is available everywhere around', conceptualize language socialization as a dynamic process of interaction during whole life, as people participate in new societies, define and redefine themselves, according to their new roles, and either agree with, or doubt determinations and role relations formed by others.

In this framework, topics from all innovative educational activities could be exploited for the texts offered to these students: news, local history, folk culture, art festivals, natural environment, health and consumption programs, active citizenship. In particular, these middle-aged domestic workers are interested in issues like shopping of food and domestic items, recipes, human body anatomy, news from the media. Thus, for a group of students who are beginners in writing section, the educator could

- a. prepare equipment either illustrated for word completion or including brief authentic texts, like the bacteria in human body, sociopolitical comics, recommended measures for the environment by intellectuals, brief news about immigrants' revolts globally and claims, the plot of a movie/theatric performance/book, poems¹¹, and

¹⁰ with the initial enthusiasm for antiracist and internationalist solidarity of the non-privileged, not with the afterwards sect/party spirit of self-interest, which means production of followers/hamals/grantors and variform autarchy

¹¹ The poem below could be used in Greek language teaching. Multicultural adult students listen and fill the gaps:

«Είχα ένα αγόρι» - 2'43''

Vocals and composer: Arleta

Lyrics: Paulina Pamboudi

- b. ask questions that students would answer, searching through the text.

This method combines a communicative and critical-emancipatory approach to language teaching, as it is based in principles, such as: the view of language as political, social, cultural reality, authentic communicative learning material chosen by the educator, students' participation and practice in various collaborative activities according to their interests and capabilities, absence of language exercises extracted from whole texts, vivid and living speech, no detachment from everyday reality, mutual teaching and discussion in groups for text production and correction, pedagogic freedom without the danger of rejection.

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Είχα ένα αγόρι, ένα άγριο _____, (2)
 ένα _____ που έγινε αναφιλητό. (2)
 Τώρα _____ λιотρόπια
 τα _____ του που τόσο είχα _____,
 τώρα τα _____ του
 γίνανε δυο σταλαγματιές _____ δροσιά. (2)
 Την τρίτη _____ δεν αναστήθηκε (2),
 είκοσι μέρες κοιμάται κάτω από τη _____. (2)
 Τώρα μια _____
 σημάδεψε τη θέση της _____ του,
 τώρα είν' η _____ του
 ένα σπουργίτι που _____ για το νοτιά. (2)

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MULTILINGUALISM AND LANGUAGE LEARNING: THE CASE OF GREEK-ALBANIAN CHILDREN LEARNING ENGLISH AS A THIRD LANGUAGE

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Abstract

The importance of multilingualism has been acknowledged in the past years and nowadays more and more research is being conducted on the acquisition and learning of a third language (L3). This is mainly because of the vast mobility of populations between countries and mixed marriages (Barnes 2005). Since multilinguals are far more compared to monolinguals in the world (Tucker 1998) it is just as important to investigate the way bilinguals use their languages while still in the process of learning their third language. The research presented aims to investigate those factors which may affect the production of speech while children, from an immigrant background, narrate in their third language, in this case English. Greek or Albanian is either their first or second language. The children's vocabulary interaction is being analyzed, aiming to locate possible language dominance issues, the influence of L1 or L2 in the production of L3 and the source language of cross-linguistic influence.

Keywords: *bilinguals, learners of English as an L3, vocabulary interaction, language dominance*

1. Introduction

The importance of multilingualism has been acknowledged in the past years and nowadays more and more research is being conducted on the acquisition and learning of a third language (L3). This is mainly because of the vast mobility of populations between countries and mixed marriages (Barnes 2005). Since multilinguals are far more compared to monolinguals in the world (Tucker 1998) it is just as important to investigate the way bilinguals use their languages while still in the process of learning their third language.

A child's ability to communicate in a number of languages represents a complex and multifaceted phenomenon not only because it involves the naturalistic acquisition of more than one grammatical system, but also because language learning and use do not occur in a vacuum. This project deals with a specific type of multilingualism, namely trilingualism, where development of L1 and L2 has progressed while L3 is still ongoing through learning in a school context.

Multilingualism, including trilingualism, has been viewed in different ways; some earlier

sources, such as Bloomfield (1933), accepted as true multilinguals only people that they master all of their languages like native speakers. Nowadays, the more widely accepted view of trilingualism considers as multilingual speakers those who have obtained some level on each of their languages on a gradient scale; from passive/receptive understanding capabilities to the so-called idealized balanced multilingual. From this point of view, effective communication in each of the multilingual speaker's languages determines functional multilingualism, independently of the age- appropriate accepted monolingual patterns (e.g. Cruz Ferreira, 2006; Tokuhama-Espinoza, 2001, 2003).

Therefore, this definition, accepts different forms of trilingualism; trilingualism can adequately apply to the case of adults learning two foreign languages naturalistically or in a school context simultaneously or successively, *early childhood bilinguals who attempt mastery of a third language as older children or adults*, as well as children who grow up exposed to three languages from birth or from a very early age. However, the former definition is rather restrictive and can only apply to those children who have managed a native – like proficiency of all of their languages. This type of mastery though is quite rare and almost idealistic. The present research focuses on children who have acquired their L1 and L2 and are currently learning their L3. Specifically, this research surveys the language interaction of children who come from an Albanian background and they were born and raised in Greece. They have learnt Albanian from their family, Greek from their family and their social and school environment and they are currently learning English at school.

As Jessner & Cenoz (2007: 155) have pointed out, when we use the term L1 and L2 to refer to the relationship of these languages in a bilingual system, L1 is taken as not only the first chronologically learnt language but also as the dominant one. L1 is this way given all of the qualities of the mother tongue. This way, "it is implicitly assumed that the level of proficiency in L2 must necessarily be lower than in L1". However, when a speaker acquires a third language the chronological order of the languages learnt does not always correspond to the frequency of use or the levels of competence in the trilingual's languages. Language

proficiency usually changes over time and skills can vary and alter within time according to sociolinguistic contexts (Hufeisen, 1998, 169-170). Therefore, in this research, L3 English is used to define the third consecutive language that these children came in contact with so far.

The interest in learning English as a third language has attracted attention in the recent years since in the European Union it is the main language of communication among its citizens. In 2001 Eurostat found that 90 percent of pupils in secondary schools in the European Union learn English (Pilos, 2001), and according to "The Key Data on Teaching Languages at School in Europe" (2012) it is confirmed that English is by far the most taught foreign language in nearly all European countries. In this sense, English is in many cases a second and not a foreign language and it is in contact with other languages since many European countries are bilingual or multilingual. English is also learnt as a third language in many cases in the European context. For instance, the case of immigrants from non-European countries who learn the official language of the country they have settled in and they also study English at school. Research into trilingualism also looks at bilingual children's acquisition of the third language through schooling. Studies of this kind have been carried out with linguistic minority children in the United States (e.g., Klein, 1997; Thomas, 1988), Canada (Bild & Swain, 1989; Genesee, 1998), Belgium (Jaspaert & Lemmens, 1990), and the Basque Country (Cenoz, 1998; Cenoz & Lindsay, 1996; Valencia & Cenoz, 1992) among others.

Moreover, Hoffmann and Stavans (2007) point out that most of the research on trilingualism focuses on individuals who acquire or learn a third language in a school context (Cenoz & Genesee, 1998; Cenoz, Hufeisen, & Jessner, 2001) or immigrant minorities who learn a third language in social contexts (Baetens-Beardsmore, 1993). Also, the majority of these studies look into the development of a third language consecutively to the development of one or two other languages, just like our study presented below.

The aim of the present study was to investigate the vocabulary interaction of the three languages of bilingual primary school children who are learning their L3 English in a school context. Specifically, this study aimed to

explore cross-linguistic influence as far as code switching and code mixing is concerned, as well as the source language or default supplier of cross-linguistic influence (either Greek or Albanian, whether L1 or L2) while speaking their L3 English.

2. Methodology

2.1. Participants

Fifty bilingual children, whose L1 and L2 were either Greek or Albanian and who were learning their L3, English, were interviewed as part of the methodology for a PhD research. Our subjects fall into a particular category of trilinguals, namely children who acquired their two systems almost simultaneously, that is, children who had contact with two linguistic systems from birth and developed them as first language and then they learnt their third language at school.

All of the children came from an immigrant background and were selected according to their bilingualism and their level in their L3, English. More particularly, participants were all “A1 level” learners of English that their L1 and L2 were either Greek or Albanian. In order to define the participants’ level in English (L3) they were asked to narrate a picture story. According to their produced “text” their level in English was then estimated as “A1” according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages.

Out of the 50 children who took part in this research only 6 of them were found to use all of their three languages while narrating the picture story. According to Hoffman (2001: 16) “our understanding of trilingual competence would benefit from more trilingual data (i.e. data evidencing the presence of all three linguistic systems in the same utterance) or, if this is genuinely not obtainable, more data from trilinguals which might point towards an explanation of why most non-monolingual speech of trilinguals seems to be influenced bi-directionally rather than tri-directionally”. Therefore, this project will present the findings of the narrations of these 6 children who used both of their L1 and L2 (either Albanian or Greek) while narrating the picture story in their L3, English.

During the evaluation of their level in English

it was found that there were two groups according to their A1 Level; therefore they were separated in “A1 higher level” and “A1 lower level”. Specifically, 1 child was an A1 Higher level speaker of English and 5 children were lower level speakers of English.

The participants’ age ranged between 10 and 12 years old. Their three languages were Albanian either as an L1 or an L2, Greek either as an L1 or an L2, and English as an L3. This group consisted of 5 girls and 1 boy. All of them were children of Albanian immigrants and they were born in Greece. First of all, we collected data regarding our learners through questionnaires. The aim of this questionnaire was to elicit demographic data about the participants (age, sex, class they attended), as well as information on their three languages (which one were their L1 and their L2 and the years they had been using their languages, how many years they had been learning their L3).

2.2. Instruments

We followed Cenoz’s (2001) method which aimed to investigate trilingual children’s speech production and specifically cross-linguistic influence. Cenoz provided the bilingual participants with wordless picture stories. She asked the children to narrate the two stories in their L3 (English) that they were learning at school. We too used the same wordless story book with Cenoz: “The boy, the dog and the frog” by Mercer Mayer. This is a commonly used series of story books for language studies. Before the children started narrating they were told that they could use whichever language they wanted *while narrating in their L3*. Specifically, they were told: “*the languages you speak are all yours, you can use them if you feel you need to*”. All interviews were audiotaped and transcribed and all cases of cross-linguistic influence were identified. We also used a bilingual interpreter (Greek, Albanian) to help us with the Albanian transfer lapses.

Our aim was to identify the language (L1 or L2) that the participants would use every time they needed help *while narrating in their L3*, as well as the code switching and code mixing instances.

Code switching and code mixing, were initially defined by Haugen (1956) and later by

Gumperz (1982) as the alternate use of two languages and have been the subject of language contact research for over five decades. Although there are scholars who use code switching and code mixing interchangeably in our study we will use them as follows. Largely, the basic definition of code mixing refers to the mixing of various linguistic units (morphemes, words, modifiers, phrases, clauses and sentences) primarily from two participating grammatical systems *within a sentence*. In other words, code mixing is intrasentential and is constrained by grammatical principles and may be motivated by social psychological motivations. Code switching refers to the mixing of various linguistic units (words, phrases, clauses and sentences) primarily from two participating grammatical systems *across sentence boundaries* within a speech event. In other words, code switching is intersentential and may be subject to some discourse principles. It is motivated by social and psychological motivations.

3. Results and discussion

According to the questionnaire the children filled in, 2 of the 6 children had as their L1 Albanian and 4 of them had as their L1 Greek. Since all of the participants were born and raised in Greece their families used at home both of these languages during their everyday communication. Their parents have been in Greece from 10 to 20 years so they had a fairly good command of Greek. This might also explain the fact that the rest 44 children that took part in this PhD research did not use Albanian at all every time they needed help while narrating the picture story in their L3, English.

The “texts” that these particular 6 children produced were analyzed and the instances that they code mixed and code switched were identified. Another issue that was surveyed was the language dominance one, by trying to trace the language system among the three ones involved which surfaced more than the others.

3.1. Language biography of the participants

Out of the 6 children of this project there was 1 boy and 5 girls. All of the girls were evaluated as “higher A1 level” English language speakers, whereas the boy was a lower one. This finding

can not claim anything in particular about the connection of sex and proficiency of the speaker since the number of this group of participants is really small. Therefore, this matter will not be further discussed. Two of the children had as their L1 Albanian and four of them had as their L1 Greek. All of the six children speak both Albanian and Greek at home. Greek is used every day, whether it is their L1 or L2. Only two children use Albanian every day, one child uses it often and three of the children use it rarely. The children whose L2 is Albanian use it only at home. The children whose L2 is Greek use at home, at school and with their friends.

3.2. Language use and language dominance findings

The produced “texts” of the six children who used all three languages were between 19 and 25 utterances, and the average number of utterances was 22. Accordingly, the children’s “texts” were between 186 and 264 words, with an average of 213 words.

Out of the 130 total utterances, 37 were in English, 25 utterances were in Albanian and 64 of them were code mixed. Out of these 64 code mixed utterances, 48 of them were English – Greek ones, 32 of them were English – Albanian ones, and 16 utterances were in all of the three languages. As previously mentioned, it is rare to come across with speakers who produce more utterances that are code mixed in three languages. Therefore, our finding is consistent with the so far research.

As far as the words produced is concerned, out of the 1275 total words that the six children uttered 633 of them were in English (the target language), 522 of them were in Greek and 120 of them were in Albanian. According to these findings, children produced a rather high number of Greek which is the language that they have stated that they use every day. However, two of the six children had stated that they used both Albanian and Greek every day. These children in question used more their L2, whether it was Albanian or Greek. This finding is in line with studies of third language acquisition and L3 use that have shown that L2 in a trilingual system takes up a specific role; L3 learners or users do not rely on their L1 as one would expect, but mainly on their L2, which serves as the “bridge language”. Tremblay (2006) indicated that L2

exposure may influence the learners' ability to exploit their knowledge of L2 in order to escape from their lexical deficits in L3, whereas L2 proficiency plays a major role in the frequency with which the L2 intrudes during L3 production (in Jessner 2008). Our group of children had more exposure in Greek, since it is the official language of Greece as well as the language of every day communication. As far as the proficiency is concerned, all of the children had a native-like level in Greek, since they were born and raised in Greece. Greek in comparison with Albanian is more advanced, so this explains their tendency to use less Albanian during their narrations every time they had to turn to their other two languages while speaking English (their L3). Their lexical deficits were mainly overcome by using Greek, whether it was their L1 or their L2.

4. Conclusion

The increasing interest on trilingualism and by extension on multilingualism is walking side by side with our era. People immigrate, communicate with other cultures, there are cases that countries have more than one official language and in general we need to speak additional languages apart from our mother tongue in order to be able to adapt to every aspect of our lives. Moreover, the European Union has proposed the "Mother tongue plus one" guideline suggesting that European citizens should learn apart from their mother tongue, one neighbour country's language and another lingua franca. Future research on trilingualism/multilingualism will give more data on the way languages interact and how a speaker subconsciously chooses how he code switches any time he needs to. We hope that when this PhD research is presented we will succeed in contributing also some insights into trilingual speech production, including its related issues of language choice, language dominance and directionality of switches.

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NULL SUBJECTS IN ADVANCED L2 ENGLISH: THE REGULARIZATION OF AN APPARENT IRREGULARITY

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Abstract

This paper examines the proposal that syntactic features not instantiated in L1 are unavailable to L2 learners, while semantic ones are available and used in a compensatory way (Tsimpli & Dimitrakopoulou 2007). On this assumption, the (over)use of null subjects in L2 English will be not random, but constrained by any relevant semantic features, as the study of Prentza & Tsimpli (in press) on advanced L2 grammars has suggested. Null subject availability distinguishes between Greek and English and follows from a difference in syntactic features. The semantic feature targeted here is *referentiality* of the subject, i.e. whether this is referential or expletive. Aiming to test the performance of *very advanced* learners, a judgement task was administered to 37 advanced and 12 very advanced learners, as well as to 25 English natives. The results showed that the very advanced group accepted significantly more null subjects than the controls. Crucially, omission was significantly higher when the subjects were expletive than referential. Thus, in very advanced grammars as well i) syntactic features are inaccessible leading to target-deviant performance ii) the semantic feature of Referentiality is accessible and has a compensatory role regulating L2 null subject use and eliminating real optionality from the system.

Keywords: *second language acquisition, null subjects, uninterpretable features, interpretable features, referentiality*

1. Theoretical Background

Greek being a null-subject language (NSL) with rich subject-verb agreement (Rizzi 1982, 1986) features both null (*pro*) and overt referential subjects in matrix and subordinate clauses¹, as example (1) shows. Regarding expletive subjects though, Greek instantiates only null forms (see example 2). English on the other hand is a non-null-subject language (NNSL) and has obligatorily overt referential and expletive subjects:

¹ The distribution and interpretation of null and overt pronominal subjects in subordinate clauses is regulated by the discourse related [topic-shift] feature (Dimitriadis 1996, Cardinaletti & Starke 2001, Carminati 2002, Tsimpli et al. 2003, 2004). The examination of this issue is beyond the scopes of the present paper.

1. John/He/pro ipe oti he/pro tha telefonisi
John/he/pro said.3SG that he/pro will call.SG
*(John/he) said that
*(he) will call
John said that he will call
2. John/He/pro ipe oti proexpl tha vreksi
John/he/pro said.3SG that proexpl will rain.SG
*(John/he) said that
*(it) will call
John said that it will rain

Within minimalism this difference follows from a divergence as regards syntactic, i.e. uninterpretable features (Chomsky 1995). In Greek, subject-verb agreement is realized through a morphologically rich paradigm (i.e. παίζ-ω, παίζ-εις, παίζ-ει, παίζ-ουμε, παίζ-ετε, παίζ-ουν) and thus the uninterpretable *phi*- (person and number) features of T(ense) are valued by nominal agreement on V(erb). Hence, the canonical subject position (SpecTP) need not be occupied by an overt subject (Barbosa 1995, 2000, 2009, Alexiadou & Anagnostopoulou 1998, Platzack 2004, Roussou & Tsimpli 2006). Conversely, in English, which lacks a corresponding richness, this possibility is unavailable. In this case, the *phi*-features of T are valued by Move/Merge of an overt referential or expletive subject in the canonical subject position.

A much debated issue in second language acquisition (SLA) is why adult L2 learners, even very advanced ones, exhibit inconsistent linguistic behaviour which differentiates them from the native speakers of a language. Recently, this question has been addressed with reference to what the role of syntactic (i.e. uninterpretable) and semantic (i.e. interpretable²) features is in this 'optionality' (Sorace 2000, 2005). This paper will examine the proposal put forward by Tsimpli and Dimitrakopoulou (2007) according to which syntactic features not instantiated in L1 are unavailable to L2 learners, while semantic ones are available and used in a compensatory way (the *Interpretability Hypothesis*). According to this hypothesis, since L2 syntactic features are inaccessible in SLA, learners will resort to the

relevant L1 syntactic options. However, interpretable features will be assigned to the problematic L2 items in order to regularize their distribution eliminating in this way real optionality from the system (Tsimpli & Mastropavlou 2007). Notice crucially, that interpretable features may be improve L2 systems but cannot save interlanguage grammars from ungrammaticality. Additionally, through this process, L2 systems may be essentially defective with respect to syntactic feature composition, but, nevertheless, constitute possible human grammars since they are still constrained by universal linguistic principles.

Besides the (un)availability of the L2 syntactic features related to the overt manifestation of the English subject, this work will consider the interpretable feature of subject Referentiality, i.e. whether the subject bears a referential/person feature and is thus a personal pronoun or a DP subject or whether it lacks one and is an expletive subject like the English 'it' and 'there'. The L2 literature reports that referential and expletive subjects exhibit a distinct acquisitional route. L1 speakers of a NSL learning a NNSL accepted/produced more ungrammatical null referential than expletive subjects (Phinney 1987, Tsimpli & Roussou 1991). A recent study by Prentza & Tsimpli (in press) showed that the interpretable feature of referentiality played a crucial role in the acceptance/production of null subjects in L2 English not only in intermediate but also in advanced stages of proficiency: although developmental trend was evinced with the advanced group faring better than the intermediate, more proficient learners allowed significantly more null expletive than null referential subjects in L2 English, unlike the NS group. Unlike previous L2 research, Prentza & Tsimpli's study attempted to present an account for the asymmetry between referential and expletive subjects in L2 within the framework of minimalism and with reference to the distinction between interpretable and uninterpretable features. The experiment presented here aims to test whether these results of Prentza & Tsimpli will be replicated when a group of very advanced Greek learners is included in the L2 group.

² For the purposes of this paper feature (un)interpretability refers to whether this feature is (un)interpretable at the level of Logical Form (LF). Phonetic Form (PF) (un)interpretability will not be considered.

2. The experiment

2.1. Participants and materials

The participants of the study were 37 advanced (ADV) and 12 very advanced (VA) Greek learners of English³, as well as a control group of 25 English natives. Both experimental groups were exposed to English in a classroom setting, the ADV group for an average of 7.5 years (range: 6-9 years) and the VA group for an average of 8.8 years (range: 7-12 years). Their age span was from 18-27.

Data was obtained by means of a Grammaticality Judgement Task. This tested the acceptability of ungrammatical null subject structures in English matrix clauses and evaluated judgments on grammatical overt subject structures. The task consisted of 40 items 20 of which were grammatical and 20 ungrammatical. In both types, half of the null/overt subjects were referential, while the other half were expletive. The test also included filler items of comparable number. Sentences (3-4) offer examples of the test items:

3. *In London pro rains a lot all the time.....(pro = expletive)
There are a lot of apples on the kitchen table
4. *pro Have been working in the bank for ten years (pro = referential)
This time tomorrow I will be flying to Athens.

Participants had to indicate their judgments using a five-point Likert type scale from -2 to +2 as follows: -2 would be given to an ungrammatical sentence, +2 to a grammatical sentence and 0 if they thought that a sentence had equal chances of being grammatical or ungrammatical. Participants were also given two more choices encoding ungrammaticality and grammaticality respectively: -1 and +1: they were instructed that they ought to use these choices when they were not as certain about the

(un)grammaticality of a sentence as they were when they used the -2 and +2 choices. During data inputting the -2 to +2 was matched to a positive scale ranging from 1 to 5. The advantage of this is that for both the grammatical and the ungrammatical items of the task the scale categories encoded the same choices regarding both accuracy and certainty in judgment from the speaker's perspective. So, on the 1-5 scale, for both sets of items, the higher the score, the better the response. The task was timed and, after extensive piloting, the gap from one sentence to another was set to 5 seconds.

2.2. Statistical Analysis

A random effects factorial GLM (ANOVA) approach was used to assess factors with a significant effect on the responses, after controlling for possible outliers. This approach contributed to accounting for repeated responses, while errors were tested for independence and normality. After defining main effects of all variables (e.g. Group, Referentiality and Grammaticality) on the Response, interactions between them were tested. Tukey HSD post-hoc tests were conducted to assess significant effects of all parameters, i.e. to test for between and within-group differences, where necessary. Any p -value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant in the final model. Due to the difference in the number of participants between the VA, the ADV, as well as the NS group, and given that the focus of this experiment is on the contrast between VA L2 and NS performance (see section 1), 12 English controls were randomly selected from the NS group and their performance was contrasted with that of the VA Greek learners. For clarity reasons, the group of the 12 English natives will be referred to as NS2 group, while the original 25-participant group will be the NS1 group.

2.3. Results

2.3.1. ADV vs. NS1

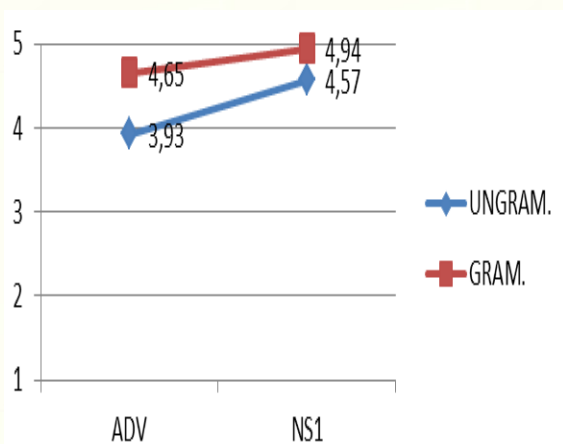
Multiple 2 x 2 x 2 analyses were performed on the results in order to examine the three variables involved: Group (ADV/NS1), Grammaticality (Ungrammatical/Grammatical), and Referentiality (+REF/-REF). The analysis yielded a highly significant main effect of Group ($F_{2,480} = 156.07$, $p < 0.001$), Grammaticality ($F_{1,480}$

³ Notice that our most proficient learners are referred to as very advanced, since they, as all L2 learners, were tested by the Oxford Quick Placement Test (2001), a test which cannot categorize learners as near-natives. We decided to use this screening test, since it was administered to first-year students in the School of English, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, who formed a considerable part of our L2 groups.

= 280.08, $p < 0.001$), and Referentiality ($F_{1,480} = 26.58$, $p < 0.001$). Regarding two-way interactions, Group \times Grammaticality and Group \times Referentiality interacted significantly indicating that both variables induced distinct effects on participant groups ($F_{2,480} = 17.37$, $p < 0.001$, $F_{2,480} = 6.46$, $p < 0.05$ respectively).

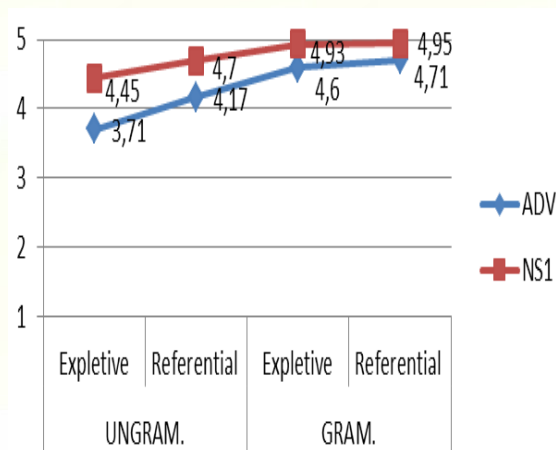
Figure 1: illustrates the interaction between Group (ADV vs. NS1) and Grammaticality

Figure 1: Accuracy in null & overt items (ADV vs. NS1)



Within-group comparisons, conducted through Tukey HSD tests, revealed that ADV learners were significantly more accurate in judging grammatical than ungrammatical items ($p < 0.001$). A similar finding was attested in native speaker data, yet with a p value that was marginally significant ($p = 0.043$). The grammaticality effect attested in NS data could be explained as follows: English controls may have rejected less readily null pleonastic than null referential items, since in spoken English pleonastic subject drop in verb-initial contexts is frequent (Haegeman & Ihsane 1999; Weir 2008). Turning next to between-group comparisons, these showed that the ADV group allowed for significantly more ungrammatical null subjects than the NS. Conversely, in the grammatical set no differences were detected between the ADV learners and English controls ($p > 0.05$). Next, the overall scores of Figure 1 were broken down by the variable of Referentiality and are presented on Figure 2:

Figure 2: Accuracy in null & overt items by Referentiality (ADV vs. NS1)

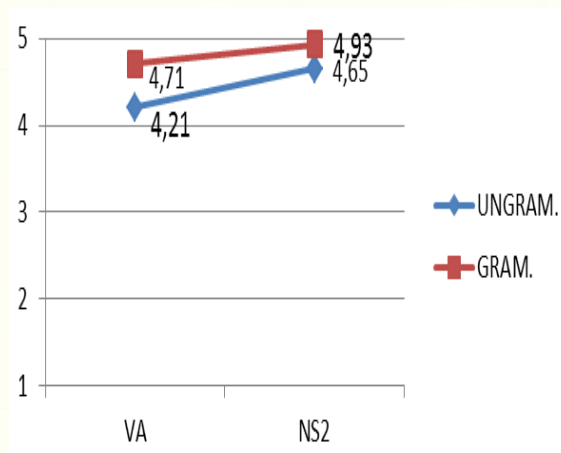


Within-group comparisons revealed that ADV learners accepted significantly more ungrammatical null expletive items than ungrammatical null referential items ($p < 0.001$). English controls on the other hand were equally accurate in rejecting ungrammatical null referential and expletive subjects ($p > 0.05$). In the grammatical set, the ADV group was found to accept overt expletive and referential subjects at comparable rates ($p > 0.05$). No differences between the referential and the expletive items were found in the NS data as well ($p > 0.05$). Moving next to between-group comparisons, post-hoc tests showed that in the ungrammatical set the ADV were significantly less successful than the NS in both referentiality conditions ($ps < 0.001$), but no similar differences were found in the grammatical set ($ps > 0.05$).

2.3.2. VA vs. NS2

Multiple $2 \times 2 \times 2$ analyses showed a main effect of Group, Grammaticality and Referentiality ($F_{1,280} = 6.45$, $p < 0.001$, $F_{1,280} = 18.717$, $p < 0.001$, $F_{1,280} = 3.23$, $p < 0.001$), as well as a significant interaction between Group and Grammaticality and Group and Referentiality ($F_{1,280} = 1.9$, $p < 0.05$ and $F_{1,280} = 1.2$, $p < 0.05$ respectively). Figure 3 presents the interaction between Group (VA & NS2) and Grammaticality:

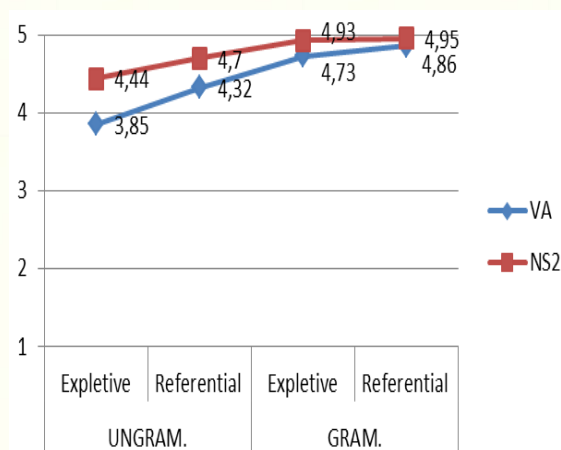
Figure 3: Accuracy in null & overt items (VA vs. NS2)



Starting with between-group comparisons, it was found that the VA group, like the ADV group, overall accepted significantly more ungrammatical null subjects than the English controls ($p < 0.001$). Conversely, as regards grammatical items, the two groups were equally accurate ($p > 0.05$). Within-group comparisons on above scores showed a grammaticality effect for the VA group ($p < 0.001$), but not for the NS group ($p > 0.05$) where grammatical and ungrammatical items were judged with the same accuracy. The lack of a grammaticality effect in the results of the NS2 group as opposed to the NS1 group may be related to the fact that the mean scores of the former in the ungrammatical set are improved compared to the mean scores of the latter.

Again, as in the ADV vs. NS1 data set, the overall rates were broken down by the variable of referentiality and are presented on Figure 4:

Figure 4: Accuracy in null& overt items by Referentiality (VA vs. NS2)



Within-group comparisons showed that the

VA group, like the ADV group, accepted significantly more null expletive than null referential items ($p < 0.05$). In the grammatical set, they were equally accurate in accepting overt referential and overt expletive items ($p > 0.05$). English natives on the other hand, rejected equally readily ungrammatical items, irrespective of the referentiality status of the dropped subject ($p > 0.05$). The same performance was attested in the grammatical set ($p > 0.05$). Moreover, between-group comparisons indicated that Greek VA fared significantly less successfully than the control group in the ungrammatical items in both Referentiality conditions (expletive items: $p < 0.001$, referential items: $p < 0.05$). In the grammatical set however, they were as accurate as the English controls ($p > 0.05$).

3. Discussion

This experiment targeted null referential and expletive subject acceptability in the L2 grammars of very advanced Greek learners of English. The aim was put to test the *Interpretability Hypothesis* and its predictions for adult SLA, namely that syntactic features are inaccessible to adult L2 learners, while interpretable features are available and have a compensatory role. Additionally, this experiment set out to investigate whether the results of Prentza and Tsimpli's study (in press) on Greek advanced L2 learners would be replicated when very advanced learners were included in the L2 group.

The obtained results can be summarized in the following points: i) as regards overall null subject acceptability, very advanced learners performed like the advanced group allowing significantly more ungrammatical null subjects than the native controls and ii) as regards the distinction between referential and expletive subjects, the very advanced group performed like the advanced group accepting null expletive subjects significantly more than null referential ones. Conversely, subject referentiality did not affect accuracy rates in the control data.

Starting the discussion with the overall accuracy rates, these showed that not only the advanced but, crucially, the very advanced learners as well are clearly distinguishable from the native controls in accepting null subject structures, which although grammatical in L1

Greek are ungrammatical in L2 English. The obligatory overt manifestation of the English as opposed to the Greek subject reflects a syntactic difference between the languages, i.e. a divergence in uninterpretable syntactic features. The fact that advanced and very advanced Greek learners resort to an L1 syntactic option lends support to the claim that the uninterpretable features which are associated with the properties of the English subject are not available to the Greek learners, along the lines of the *Interpretability Hypothesis*. The unavailability of formal features in adult L2 acquisition renders interlanguage grammars defective with respect to L2 formal feature composition, the result being that L2 acquirers cannot switch off the relevant L1 properties deviating thus from the English norm at advanced, and, as this experiment has suggested, even at very advanced levels of proficiency.

Turning next to the distinction between referential and expletive subjects, the *Interpretability Hypothesis* predicts that learners will be more accurate in the former than in the latter the reason being that referential subjects unlike expletive ones bear an interpretable person or referentiality feature. The interpretable feature of referentiality is by hypothesis available to L2 learners and can be used to accommodate the L2 input and regularize non-native performance: the overuse of null subjects in the L2 grammar of Greek learners will be constrained by the assignment of referentiality the result being that fewer null referential subjects will be accepted in L2. The findings of our experiment show that like the advanced learners of Prentza and Tsimpli's study, the very advanced group, used the feature of referentiality to approximate the L2 norm and regulate null subject overuse in L2. A similar use of the referentiality was not attested in native control data, since it constitutes a SLA compensation strategy which is associated with the non-native like grammatical representation of L2 learners as regards subjects, given the unavailability of the uninterpretable features involved. Notice however that despite the alleviating role of referentiality on L2 performance, learners continue to accept significantly more null subjects, not only expletive, but also referential ones. This is associated with the assumption that the application of interpretable features may lead to

improved L2 performance but cannot save interlanguage systems from ungrammaticality when L1 and L2 differ syntactically. This pattern, namely improved performance due to the compensatory application of interpretable features in the L2 input, but, at the same time, inaccuracy compared to native controls, is consistent with what the *Interpretability Hypothesis* predicts for L2 grammars.

Concluding, results from the experiment presented here lend additional support to the L2 literature which identifies uninterpretable, i.e. formal syntactic features, as the source of the optionality attested in SLA. Moreover, it disassociates this optionality from interpretable features which appear available to the L2 learner and have a compensatory role. Finally, it was shown that due to the assignment of interpretable features in null subject structures, L2 performance is constrained, since omission is regulated by the referentiality of the subject. Under this analysis, the optionality evinced in L2 performance does not seem real but only apparent since it reflects a constrained process with clear limitations (i.e. uninterpretable features) and well defined options (i.e. interpretable features).

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PLACEMENT TEST FOR RUSSIAN AS A MOTHER TONGUE: DESIGN AND APPLICATION*

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Abstract

This paper presents a placement test constructed for foreigner and repatriated students who study in Greek elementary schools (4th-6th grades) and Gymnasiums (1st & 2nd grades) and have Russian as a mother tongue. We describe the pedagogical and linguistic philosophy that underline its design and report on the results of its first application to 140 students in the academic year 2011-2012.

Keywords: *placement test, Russian, mother tongue, competence, level, bilingualism*

1. Introduction

The overall objective of Action 5 "Reinforcement of the mother tongue" of the program "Education of foreigner and repatriated students" (www.diapolis.gr, NSRF 2007-2013) is to preserve and reinforce the Russian language spoken by the students in three Elementary schools (4th-6th grade) and two Gymnasiums (1st-2nd grade) in the area of Thessaloniki. In order to assess the students' linguistic knowledge, a specially designed oral and written placement test was constructed (Hughes, 2003). More specifically, the test was intended for students who speak Russian but their linguistic competence needs reinforcement due to the dominating role of the ambient language, that is, Greek. The goal of the placement test was to classify students into two levels: beginners and advanced. The test consists of five (5) sections and is designed to assess all four language skills (production and comprehension of spoken and written language). At the same time, the placement test also serves as a diagnostic of those linguistic structures which, due to the interference of Greek, may hinder the development of Russian and affect communication (Efsthathiadis, 1993). Errors due to inter-language overgeneralization were processed, categorized and fruitfully implemented in the form of exercises and activities in a supplementary to the course-book¹ language material that was aimed for use in class (Tsopanoglou, 2010). In short, the placement test was designed: (a) to diagnose the linguistic competence of the target group so that

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¹ The course-book selected for the Russian language class was «Русский класс», which is developed for mainly teaching Russian to students of Russian descent abroad.

students could be appropriately placed in the beginners or the advanced level class, and (b) to unearth those errors that were due to the interference of Greek, and hence offer valuable insights for the construction of targeted linguistic material to be used in the classroom.

It should be noted that our team anticipated the target group to have an already existing amount of grammatical (phonological, morphological and syntactic) competence and an adequate vocabulary knowledge of Russian that could efficiently cover the students' basic communication needs. This knowledge was expected to correspond to level A1 as stated by the Council of Europe (CEFR, 2001) and the Russian State Certification System of Russian as a Foreign Language (Стандарт, 2001).

By the word "level" we mean the framework that defines the knowledge and the language skills required for the student to master at every stage of the teaching process (Bachman, 1990). However, we also expected the students' linguistic competence to exhibit substantial variation given the fact that they originate from different States of the former Soviet Union, where the prestige of the Russian language varies significantly. Other factors, such as the years of the students' stay in those States, the parents' educational background, and so on, were also assumed to have contributed to an asymmetrical development of the four language skills, such as the poor or even non-existing capacity for writing in Russian (CEFR, 2001). In other words, we expected to be confronted with a case of "passive bilingualism" (Baker, 2001).

For all the above reasons, therefore, we designed a test that differs from the already existing ones in the following main points:

- a. The level of difficulty of the exercises that aimed at testing the writing skills differed from those that aimed at assessing listening comprehension and speaking. Because we anticipated low engagement in writing tasks only a limited-response items were included in the test.
- b. Exercises that aimed at testing "Reading Comprehension" and "Writing" had a gradient degree of difficulty since they contained grammatical phenomena from level A1 to level A2+. This allowed us to examine the exact range of the students' competence in listening and speaking

tasks.

- c. With respect to language production, we selected topics of discussion that would prompt the student to effortlessly engage into a conversation (e.g. by employing scenarios about everyday life with Russian-speaking relatives and friends). We also made sure that Russian cultural elements were kept to a minimum, due to the specificity of the origin of the target group.

Finally, we ought to emphasize that in applying the placement test we were aware of the fact that external influences such as the environment of the examination, its form and type (e.g. selected topics), the form of responses (e.g. written and oral) could affect the measurement of language proficiency and the student's overall performance (Baker 2001:83).

2. Theoretical design

The construction of the placement test was based on certain theoretical principles that underlie the construction of tests that aim at placing a student into a particular level of a language course (Brown, 2004; Alderson, 2005; Hughes, 2003). Moreover, in order to validate the suitability of the language material, the genre of the texts, the typology of the exercises as well as the main criteria for the development of the test format as described in the "Manual for Language Test Development and Examination" (Council of Europe 2011; cf. also Genessee 2009) were taken into consideration. Regarding the development of grammatical and communication skills, which is the main objective of the curriculum of the Russian language, we made sure that the main components of linguistic competence (lexical, morphosyntactic, semantic, phonological) as well as the appropriate reading and writing requirements as described in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR, 109) were represented in the test activities.

Figure 1: “Вы говорите по-русски?”
Placement test for Russian as a mother tongue

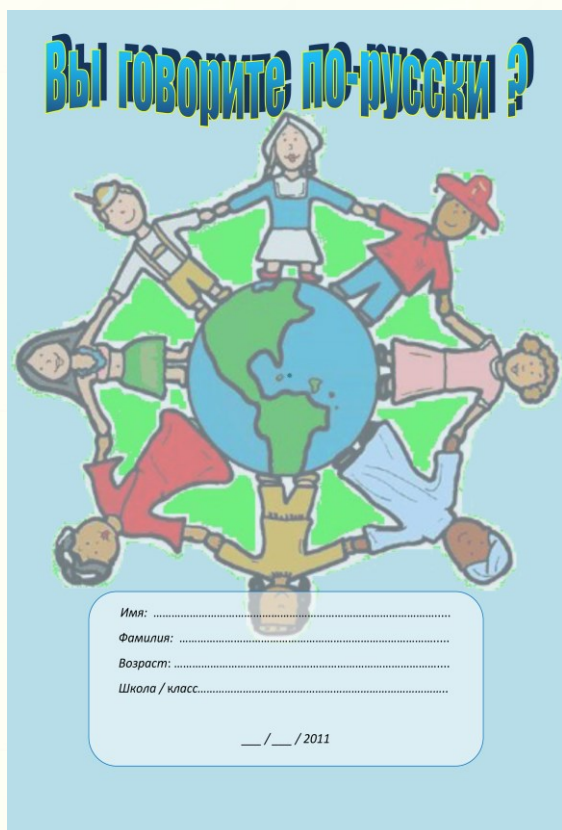
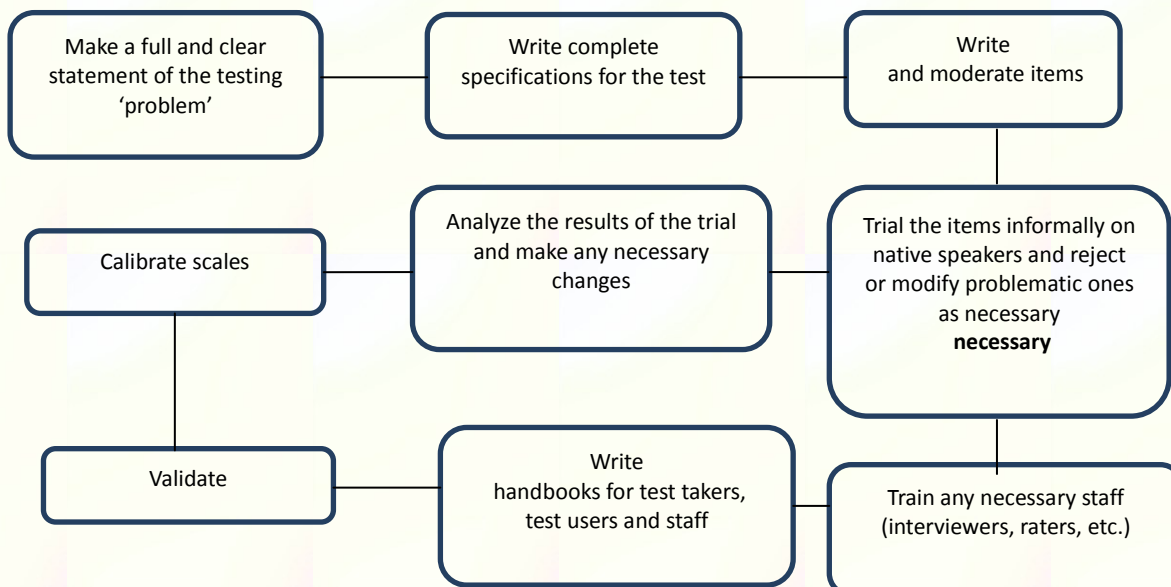


figure depicts the steps of development of the placement test “Вы говорите по-русски?” (Hughes, 2009).

Any kind of test construction requires a set of general procedures which must be written at the outset. Such stages of research are fundamental in order to reach the final educational goal which is to develop a tool that will serve as an measuring instrument of communicative competence. The following

Figure 2: Stages of test development (adapted from Hughes 2009: 58)



It starts with a decision to provide an unambiguous definition of what the main objective of the test should be. In our case, as we have already stated, it is an analysis of the needs of the students' "entry behavior" and/or "level of proficiency" (Efsthadiadis 1993:16) that would allow us to place them at a particular level of the Russian language course. The test specifications are always particularly important for defining the quality of the test because they provide the means to decide whether and how it relates to the teaching syllabus. Regardless of what methods we use to collect information, the quality of data we use for evaluation must always be considered when planning a language course. All collected data will eventually influence the content of the handbooks for the students, raters and all staff involved in the test process.

2.1. Contents

The placement test consists of five parts that aim at testing the four main language skills. For each part were taken into consideration the following set of specifications as suggested by Hughes (2009:70).

Operations: The ability to choose between multiple options the correct one (Grammar and Vocabulary section), to assign the image to the spoken word (Listening section), to assign pieces of writing with text type to understand the main point of the text and its details (Reading section), to respond to guided writing (Writing section) and to establish verbal communication in the form of a mono-/ dialogue by answering questions on everyday life topics (Speaking section).

Genre/Type of text: Authentic texts of real communication which mainly correspond to A1 level. These include: small dialogues, announcements, memos, letter to a friend, invitation card and a narration about the notion of kindness.

Topics: The everyday life of children, communication with relatives and friends placed in natural communicative situations.

Grammar structures and functions: Those described by the specifications of the level A1/A2 of the course-book and are related to the needs of the target group.

Vocabulary: As described by the specifications of the level A1/A2 of the selected course-book and adjusted to the needs of the target group.

Typology of exercises and time limitations:
See next sections.

2.1.1. Section 1: Grammar and Vocabulary

The 20 multiple choice items of Part 1 are all receptive and include a stem that presents a stimulus, that is, "the incomplete context where the language problem is posed" (Efsthadiadis, 1993:36). Each test sentence provides several options a student can choose from (distractors), only one of which of course represents the correct response. Each item examines one phenomenon, e.g. the use of conjunctions in complex sentences. Part 1 is structured in the form of short dialogues in order to make the activity more interactive and interesting to the student. Since students were expected to have at least some basic language competence, the dialogues involved basic language functions such as introducing myself, asking questions, inviting someone to an activity, asking for information, etc.


All test items were carefully selected and were based on the specifications of the A1 level Communicative Competence (as they are defined by the State Russian Language Certification System-TORFL) as well as the material of the selected course-book. More specifically, the basic grammatical phenomena such as: the use of cases, the imperfective and perfective verbs aspect, verbs of motion, tenses (present, past, future), complex sentences, etc., were all examined.

The distractors were independently correct Russian words or phrases which could be used to complete some other Russian sentence in an acceptable way (see Fig. 3). Special distractors were also included in the test in order to detect and assess the possible interference of Greek to Russian. Such distractors were expected to be a source of errors. Let us illustrate with the help of the following example: *Какой твой любимый ? - Чёрный.* ('Which is your favorite kind of chocolate? It is the dark chocolate). While in Russian the word *chocolate* is masculine, in Greek the equivalent word is feminine. This difference in gender may cause students to make a mistake when choosing the grammatical form they consider most suitable, namely the noun with the feminine ending instead of the one with the masculine ending.


The following table summarizes the main structure of Part 1 activity:

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. Grammar and Vocabulary | Items 1-8: Cases (interference of Greek into Russian) |
| 2. Number of items: 20 | Items 9-10: Verbs of motion |
| 3. Timing: 10' | Items 11-13: Perfective and imperfective verb aspect |
| 4. Typology: Multiple choice items | Items 14-17: Conjunctions in complex sentences |
| 5. Genre: Dialogue | Items 18-19: Articles (interference of Greek into Russian due to the lack of articles in Russian) |
| | Item 20: Noun gender (interference of Greek into Russian) |

Figure 3: Grammar and Vocabulary sample task


 **Лексика. Грамматика**

Задание 1. Выберите правильный вариант.

 10'

1. - Меня зовут Таня. А ?	(A) ты (Б) тебя (В) твоё
2. - Как дела? - Хорошо. А ?	(A) ты (Б) тебя (В) у тебя
3. - Почему ты так много пишешь? - Я хочу хорошо писать.....	(A) русский язык (Б) русский (В) по-русски
4. - А где ты ? - В этой школе.	(A) учишь (Б) учишься (В) занимаешься
5. - Алло! Извините, а Лена ? - Да, но она болеет.	(A) в доме (Б) дома (В) дома
6. - Обычно дети любят рисовать..... - Да, я согласна с вами.	(A) карандашом (Б) с карандашом (В) с карандашами
7. - В свободное время вы занимаетесь.....? - Да, я люблю бегать по вечерам.	(A) со спортом (Б) спортом (В) спорта
8. - Мои родители хорошо знают..... - Мои тоже.	(A) по-русски (Б) русский язык (В) русскому языку
9. - Моя семья из Казахстана. - А моя из России.	(A) приехала (Б) пришла (В) поехала
10. - Давайте завтра в кино на фильм «Пираты Карибского моря»! - Давайте!	(A) придём (Б) пойдём (В) ходим
11. - Что вы будете делать вечером? - весь вечер футбол по телевизору.	(A) Буду смотреть (Б) Посмотрю (В) Посмотреть
12. - А когда пойдёте в кафе? - новости и пойдём.	(A) Посмотрим (Б) Смотрим (В) Будем смотреть

Figure 4: Writing sample task

 5' **Письмо**

Задание 1. Напишите о себе.

1. Как тебя зовут?
.....
2. Сколько тебе лет?
.....
3. Где ты родился / родилась?
.....
4. Какой твой любимый предмет в школе? Почему?
.....
5. Что ты любишь делать в свободное время? Почему?
.....

2.1.2. Section 2: Writing

This section contained a single open-ended exercise. The aim was to present the student with a representative set of five questions on daily life activities, which would reveal whether the students could respond to the basic communicative needs. For instance, the students were asked to describe what they do in their free time, what is their favorite course at school, etc. Certain questions also gave the opportunity to the students to express their thoughts on the above mentioned topics and also justify their answer. This part had to be completed in 5 minutes.

2.1.3 Section 3: Listening

It is well-established that listening is a multi-dimensional activity and good performance on listening tasks requires a complex combination of knowledge, processing skills and strategies as well as of memory (Efstathiadis 1993: 49). The Listening part consisted of two activities. The first one included 10 items and the second one 5. Recordings were made especially for the test by a native speaker of Russian with a standard Moscow accent.

In the first activity of the Listening section, the students listened to the five recorded utterances and were asked to select the right picture by choosing one of the three available options. More specifically, they listened to activities of daily life that took place in a variety of socio-cultural settings such as in a school classroom, at the shop, etc.

In the second activity of the Listening section, the students listened to a narrative and were required to answer five questions – all based on the spoken text – in a multiple choice format. The students were expected to obtain a factual information as well as to follow a sequence of events (Hughes 2009:161) about the everyday life of a girl named Vika who came from Russia several years ago and who now lives with her parents in Greece. For instance, in item 5 the student was asked about her hobby and was urged to correlate the meaning of a word “poems” with a form of literature and choose the “c” option which is the correct answer instead of (a) sport or (b) science.

Figure 5: Listening sample task

Задание 2. Прослушайте текст и выберите правильный ответ.

1. Вика раньше жила
 а) в Салониках б) в Греции в) в России

2. В семье Вики человек.
 а) 6 б) 5 в) 1

3. Её папа продаёт
 а) хлеб б) мясо в) фрукты

4. Вике лет.
 а) 7 б) 11 в) 16

5. Вике очень нравится
 а) спорт б) наука в) литература

written text. The students had to demonstrate their ability to read different types of texts and show that they can get the gist of the text and distinguish the main idea from supporting detail.

The test included different genres of texts such as notes, announcements, letter to a friend and a narration based on an article from the magazine “Encyclopedia for children” (Moscow, 2011) authored by T. Kleiman, which was moderately modified. In exercise A', students were required to match specific communicative situations with pieces of writing which are given. In exercise B', students were asked to identify the kind of writing that they are given in notes matching them with the right type of text, e.g. a parental note, a greeting card, an advertisement, a letter to a friend. Exercise C' included a more demanding text, namely a narration which contained vocabulary and grammatical structures that correspond to level A2+. The length of the text was 90 words and the students had to complete six True/False answers. The entire Reading section had to be completed in 10 minutes and consisted of 14 items in total.

Figure 6: Reading sample task (Part 1)

Чтение

Задание 1. Где можно прочитать эту информацию?

1) Меня зовут Алексей. Мне 14 лет. Хочу организовать клуб «Друзья кино». Пишите! Отвечу всем.

2) Мама, после школы я пойду в гости к Наташе. Вот её телефон: 456-196. Целую, Оля.

3) 19.00. Фильм «Любовь-Морковь 3»

4) Извините, но конфеты «Мишка» закончились...

А. В магазине

Б. В кинотеатре

В. В Интернете

Г. Дома на холодильнике

2.1.4. Section 4: Reading

Reading is a secondary receptive skill associated with the perception and understanding of the

Figure 7: Reading sample task (Part 2)

Задание 3. Прочитайте текст и выполните задание.

Главное вежливое слово

В русском языке есть удивительное слово, без которого, наверное, нам было бы сложнее, неинтереснее жить. Оно дарит добро, тепло, свет и настроение. Оно помогает нам жить в дружбе с собой и со всем миром. Когда люди говорят его, то они улыбаются. Это слово-спасибо! Интересно, что раньше, когда благодарили человека, то ему говорили «Спаси Бог!». Так человек показывал, что он уважает другого человека и желает ему всего самого хорошего. Поэтому мы не должны забывать это замечательное слово. Сказать его- ничего не стоит, но ценится оно так дорого!

(по материалам журнала «Детская энциклопедия»)

1. В русском языке есть очень важное слово.
2. Это слово может подарить радость.
3. Раньше «Спаси Бог!» говорили только себе.
4. Это слово помогает людям стать друзьями.
5. Людям не обязательно помнить это слово.
6. В тексте говорится о благодарности.

	Да	Нет
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		
6.		



2.1.5. Section 5: Speaking

In the Speaking section of the test, the student meets individually with the test examiner. This section consists of two parts which are interactive and as close to a real-life situation as a test can get. Part 1 aims at assessing communicative uses of the language and the student's ability to deliver a message orally, and, in particular, the student's ability to respond to questions about himself/herself, his/her interests, his/her family and friends, etc. It is preceded by a few warm-up (icebreaking) questions that are not assessed. For certain questions (Q4, Q5, Q8), the student is required to provide an open-ended response to a thought-provoking question and is urged to express and justify his/her opinion on a particular topic (e.g., *Why do you like this particular subject at school?*). (S)He is also instructed not to speak in Greek during the oral component of the test.

In Part 2, the student is presented with a picture of a cinema room and (s)he is asked to discuss topics such as *My favorite film/computer game/actor*, and so on. During the whole speaking part of the test an interviewer is asking the questions and a rater is taking notes regarding the student's performance.

It should be mentioned that that aim of this activity is to encourage the student to produce as more oral speech as possible in order for the examiner (a) to assess his/her level of language competence, (b) to keep accurate notes of his/her errors that would be used for the construction of the supplementary teaching material to be used later in class and (c) fill in the especially designed *Speaking Test Evaluation Sheet*. The purpose of the evaluation sheet is to guide the rater into assessing components of the grammatical competence at the phonological and morphosyntactic level as well as the student's conversational competence, whether, for instance, (s)he can initiate, sustain and end a discussion using the appropriate conversational strategies.

Figure 8: Speaking sample task

Говорение

Давайте познакомимся!

1. - Как тебя зовут?
.....
2. - Сколько тебе лет?
.....
3. - Где ты родился / родилась?
.....
4. - Какой твой любимый предмет в школе? Почему?
.....
5. - Что ты любишь делать в свободное время? Почему?
.....
6. - Почему ты хочешь изучать русский язык?
.....
7. - У тебя есть родственники в России/в Грузии/в Казахстане?
Где они живут? Чем занимаются?
.....
8. - Кем ты хочешь стать, когда закончишь школу? Почему?
.....

3. Evaluation strategy

Acknowledging the fact that testers are obliged to determine whether a candidate's language performance has been adequate (a pass) or inadequate (a fail), we decided to take this approach only in assessing the Writing and Speaking productive skills in the open-ended tasks. Undoubtedly, scoring open-ended tasks is

always much more demanding and requires much more time than scoring closed-ended tasks, which were used in the other three parts of the test. For example, when we evaluated a student's writing production we were able to assess at the same time spelling, grammatical structure, vocabulary use as well as discourse skills. Thus, the final score was a combination of subjectively (for evaluating productive skills) and objectively marked items (for evaluating receptive skills). In total, the placement test consisted of 49 gaps to be filled in by the students (Grammar and Vocabulary: 20 items, Listening: 10 items, Reading: 14 items, Writing: 5 open-ended items). Correct response to all these activities was assigned a 100%. Given that the Russian State Language Proficiency Testing System set the 66% score as the passing score for the A1 Level (Beginners), a student was grouped in the corresponding level if (s)he correctly responded to at least 29 items of the test. In case a student scored over 80%, which is given over 35 correct answers, (s)he was included in the advanced class (A1+ to A2 Level). As mentioned before, if a student exhibited poor writing skills but still could express himself/herself fluently, provided that his/her mistakes did not lead to misunderstanding or complete failure of communication, (s)he could

join the advanced level class.

4. The results

The table below shows in detail the percentages the students achieved after taking the placement test before they start attending the course for the Reinforcement of their mother tongue (pre-test) and the results of the test at the end of the school year, after having taken the full course (post-test, highlighted in light grey). It is obvious that there was an impressive increase in their performance at all activities. For example, the students' "entry behavior" in the 5th school in October 2011 showed a quite poor knowledge of grammatical structures in the "Grammar and Vocabulary Section" (24,6%) whereas at the end of the language course the same group of students has increased its performance by reaching 67%. Similar increase in performance is observed in the individual results of our students both at the beginners and the advanced class levels. These preliminary results demonstrate the need for reinforcement of the students' mother tongue, on the one hand, and the effectiveness of the teaching methods and the targeted language material used in class, on the other.

Figure 10: The results of the application of the Placement test

School	Grammar & Vocabulary	Writing	Listening	Reading	Speaking
1 st	PRE: 47.2 %	PRE: 28.3%	PRE: 64.8%	PRE: 32.3%	PRE: 56.2%
	POST: 72%	POST: 96%	POST: 100%	POST: 57%	POST: 76%
2 nd	PRE: 36.4%	PRE: 36.6%	PRE: 70%	PRE: 34%	PRE: 62.3%
	POST: 72%	POST: 88%	POST: 81%	POST: 85%	POST: 83%
3 rd	PRE: 22.6%	PRE: 20.6%	PRE: 59.7%	PRE: 17.7%	PRE: 65.6%
	POST: 65%	POST: 77%	POST: 87%	POST: 59%	POST: 67%
4 th	PRE: 37.1%	PRE: 10.5%	PRE: 76.2%	PRE: 29.3%	PRE: 77.6%
	POST: 75%	POST: 75%	POST: 80%	POST: 59%	POST: 72%
5 th	PRE: 24.6 %	PRE: 26.6%	PRE: 44%	PRE: 22.8%	PRE: 60.5%
	POST: 67%	POST: 67%	POST: 68%	POST: 56%	POST: 94%

5. Conclusions

As a form of measurement, testing is inevitably an integral part of all language teaching programs. It is an activity of gathering

information to be used in making educational decisions which are naturally intertwined with instruction. It is important, therefore, to understand that the actual content of any kind of

language test is always narrower than the subject matter, the skills or the knowledge it seeks to assess. Therefore, it was of absolute importance to us to choose tasks that call for the kinds of skills that are compatible with instructional objectives and practices in the classroom where the reinforcement of a mother tongue takes place. As a measurement device, we recognize that the students should be tested in a way that resembles the methods and practices employed during teaching in class. We assume that the language skills included in our test were a representative sample of those skills described in our instructional objectives and plans.

Since a test is a measuring instrument, there are some constant features it must possess. For example, it should provide information on the complex characteristics of the linguistic content through the content and construct validity (Hughes 2009:50), reliability, practicality as well as show the results of its backwash effect, that is, the impact it had on students and teachers generally. Furthermore, the item analysis is a necessary part of any language test and we expect this procedure to constitute the next step in our research. Traditionally there are two measures which are calculated for each objective test item: the *facility value*, which measures the level of difficulty of an item, and the *discrimination index*, which measures the extent to which the results of the individual item correlates with results from the whole test (Alderson, 2001: 80). The facility value will provide information on how easy the item is for a group of students, whereas the discrimination index will show how well it vary between students at different level of ability. These are all issues that we hope to address in future work.

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REALISTIC TREND THAT AVOIDS UTOPIA

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Abstract

Through the work of Visar Zhiti, it is discovered that nothing resists its human qualities. *Dirty books*, written by the Albanian as to sweeten reality prior to 1990, is not considered immoral, because it lacks reality and it was not embraced as nihilistic and not doctrine of Augustine. The purpose of this study is an exploration of novels *The Streets of Hell* and *The Hell Slot*, where the author leaves behind function, provides resounding literary discourse to specific environments, which differentiates to create within his body, with indirect impact on its structure. Through its core enabled the preservation of truth, beauty. Observes that expressing through subjektives, forging personal aesthetics as it is. The true art is more valuable than the ordinary real life, well being extraordinarily articulate, imaginative, which in reality where he was strongest survived. Suffered and suffers keenly, because to the present time is imprisoned in the wounds of the past, feels the pain of another disaster, the tragic, who said even to those who martyred. Forgive and takes a fraction of the pain and distress to those who injured him and obscured his life. Entry into the dark recesses of human life and meaning to, wanting an explanation of the unknown, as an essence of art in general. The article brings in poetry and interpretation assistance.

Keywords: *discourse, the truth, the beauty, essence, realism*

1. Introduction

The diptik of Visar Zhiti with novel titled *The streets of hell* and subtitle *My burgology for Spaç and earlier* as well as other novel entitled *Hell slot* and subtitle *My burgology for Qafë - Bari and then* filled publications 2012 has left the space needed philosophical discourses, social or combined, while preconditions laid the basis for the development of domestic literary discourses, which will curve around human fortunes, not only in universal look, but mainly in concrete njerësore or environments. (Hamiti 2010) It is about two voluminous books, which together have over a thousand pages, text in this version completed by the author after the publication of the first version years ago.

Vital records prominent writer allow us to say that he spends life in hell, yesterday in the concrete, in today's intellectual and spiritual. Gray environments where he lived, sounds stiff and heavy fragrances that were not separated for a moment, helped him to ask them to shape the beauty, the missing, as the essence of truth and absence song. The beauty and truth continue to be the central theme and the theme of his work. His report with these two concepts is a powerful aesthetic and rose in many plans in the context of the history of its people and the history of mankind. Albania, a country like eagles call himself or dawn, as they say in the world, (Hamiti 2006), spent an absurd stage, which was kept secret not only for foreigners but also for the other half of the country. The author has set himself to testify to task. Orpheus went to Had to save his fiancée, and taken to jail where he suffered for poetry.

The author calls these works "novels with real characters of real events", where he is hero, which means that they are works of documentary character. But these two works Zhiti are truly works with mixed structure, mixed: poetry, prose, essays, sketches, parables, saying, memoirs, journalism, namely *ars combinatoria*. I leave fejton novel bringing in this direction, a Novita.

Add pronto, literature of our time, especially fiction, tends more and more towards this prosede. Dostoyevsky said: "there is nothing more fantastic than reality," and Borhes adds that the writer should use quotation imagination not to fabricate situations.

We lived fantasy as reality, the reality was more fantastic than wonder.

Situations for which the author speaks he offered life, bitter experience of life, *and the characters were not need to created them*: they went to his house, in environments where you grew up and was educated, but he knew in prison Spaç, Qafë-Bari, in the hell with nine circles, as Dante's hell, but for a lot, he went first.

Visar Zhiti is the creator who was sentenced to prison for poetry. It is already known by everyone. In the Preface of *A skull casting your feet* (1994) he wrote that "poetry that whore who denounced and threw in cells, but also the savior who survived the terror, anxiety, absurdity and loneliness."

But why? What fault had done?

When asked to read for the party and socialism, wrote about roses! When should sing the victories of the cloud revolution, shembte everything old temples, customs, morals, memories, he sang for the roses, not mine! (Eco 2010) *poiesis* underscores his image as a fundamental sign of poetry, and *mimesis* mark referentiality (personal memory become biografemë) paradigmatic of his prose, reaching peaks with the diptik. (Shala 2005)

Time epic failed in bending internal human destinies in specific cultural environments Albanian society. Literary culture image (Aristotle 1998) as the basis of literature that seeks to embrace detail, continued to absent or had low social or philosophical discourses, indirectly affecting its structure, which remained weak and plaque.

By justification discourses Zhiti gave its contribution in meeting a deficiency our literature, realism. In the broader passages zhbiron own destiny, parents, other family members, living or dead, young or early acquaintances, his fellow dignitaries or those who surrendered, those who suffered or those who cause it, individualized, sketched portrayed with fine detail, thus structuring routed conventional narrative.

From novels Zhiti del galaxy of convicted personalities Albanian world by Mother Teresa, Musine Kokalari, Mitrush Kuteli, Vehxhi Buharaja ... With troops had taken to jail until his coffers cells their memories for relatives, their friends out there, Albania being deprived of its citizens. Investigators cells or prisons in ordinary time, but also creative, scholars, clergy, inventor, innovators fantastë, scientists, former statesmen or their family members. There are many realistic portraits in these two books, the inhabitants of Dante's hell, where suffering culprits but the authentic, where the suffering of innocents, skillfully carved portraits in marble, at times little penelata, but full of warmth, openness, humanity, truthfully. There and then where and when mbijetua wonderfully. "You live and anger", said a prisoner old son. (Zhiti 2012)

"Courage, my father spoke with the voice of the earth. Yes, yes, I believe I cried. ... I beseech you, run away, I said, do not stay here, you were once. Here, the show for my books, when I lived in Berat. "

Without excluding tropical criticism, the interpretation of this work is close to critique

obliografike, who sees the work of art primarily in relation to the man who wrote it. (Fray 1990)

2. Philosophical discourses

In opening of diptic, to novel *The Streets of Hell* Visar Zhiti writes:

novel with real characters that the event would not like to be true, while not invented anything, just selected from the experience.

But their writing is likened to another prison

To novel *The Hell Slot* it makes rhetorical question which will be answered in the own answer on page 552:

*novel
with real characters of real events.
True ... but it is, in what prison?
Accountability, justice, morality
where are they? In ç'kujtesë and ç'harrime?
A sufficient freedom of writing?*

The author is simultaneously internal narrator and protagonist of novels diptic. When done with point, distributed, was made by point, distorted, cut off the truth, Zhiti takes responsibility to preserve it, especially its core, even to the ability to feel and create. Therefore, although learns what he suffered and others, understand the reasons why it should have happened as well, not only fear, but feel complement, because you have entered prison settings, where you lived as "We" in those close to the center where were pent "They", in that prison marked as such legally, you enter deeper in the dungeon a roll where ridënoheshin prisoners within the prison is still prison, says the author. Writing maintained contact with beauty, aesthetic categories, in the creation of details, events, characters with their fates predetermined class disdain.

Dialogue, which does not leave for a moment, is philosophical dialogue, convinced that his hell or split ways help the author to establish the truth away and do not die.

The story is poetic, felt the tone of the course of the event, its openness. And had to be different: *But their writing like / to another prison ...*

There was a desire to see a visiting hell, but a duty that should be fulfilled with dignity. That prison is neither time nor place.

- *Where does this road?*
- *There.*

- *Where?*
- *I can not tell.*
- *Why so afraid?*
- *More.*
- *Yes it buzzing in the air?* (Zhiti 2012)

We are what we remember, says Mario Luzi, the great Italian poet. This is the Zhiti, these memories are not shared, not for himself, but for me, for you.

Not slipping forest? But the land here has taken place earlier, compressed with rocks and roots. Be waterfalls? No, no, not a multitude of waters it. Comes alive. Swarm of bees then their drone floats. No flowers, no, but injuries and poisons. But hurt the ears. Just a great fly, even if her idea is placed inside the skull, deep in the brain, in thought, in memory, and creates a noise thick all over the world. News mortal?

Wind dropped, as if you will die after a while, and echo added, becoming suspicious. Herd, horde, what? Voices, thousands of voices, aviten.

Shopping?

The mountains? No.

Holiday?

What is?!

An exodus in the Bible? Great prayer?

Who moves? Lord where?

Ah, no! Protest?

How dare? Terrible! Impossible.

But what then? Speak!

This sort of discourse does not serve the author to communicate, but to create their own meanings. He knows the weight of the discourse which is the foundation, the core of the order of society. R. Barthes discourse is not only communication, but everything that has to do with meaning, with the semiology of meaning. (Barthes 1987)

The prosode set interrogative sentence strengthens the structure of the work of enter absurdity of those that took place in our country, our nation, and among us. Meditation begins with the rhetorical question followed by subjeksioni all data between interrogative sentences that end with a namely sentence in the imperative, but the second is not only in itself. Forest, waterfalls, noise, swarms of bees, drone, wounds, poisons, no flowers, big flies, skull (Tags in the title of a book of his poetry), *Wind dropped, as if you will die after a while,*

and echo added, herd, horde, voices. Nearer imaginary dialogue are the words: exodus, bible, prayer, God, and at the end of the order, where he comes: Talk! Not only names, but also other parts of speech.

The interior needs, to not underwent to pain, the subject gently this dictatorship, which has more than memory, has a trust. Had been able to preserve the view, when the state was careful not to think at all. *Had no force of the enemy was*, says the author in descriptions of the day's first decade in prison space. But then why sentenced, massacred, was condemned to oblivion, ...? A slave, without his freedom, was grieved for the freedom of others, louder than everything was sound. Therein intuition to discern which of those who suffered there had sound good, not prisoners.

Once belongs in prison, his young friend, will ask a book:

- *The authors of today ... of us, you? - I asked. I do not know what to do interest, I lost a lot.*
- *Why have literature? - Great laugh Bajo, open his mouth. - Socialist realism is part of the dictatorship and not literature.*
- *Church believe that anything we did, but some literature.*
- *Really? Patient?*

Conversations like that should not slip away, where I had not ... "This element is the enemy against our literature", I'm reminded two people who made my act of expertise. They are cheap ... (Zhiti 2012)

Should go down to the philosophy of art, science, literature, literary theory and later poetry of literature and understand the concerns felt philosophical dialogue, from which the protagonist leaves with tact and avoided. (Pollack 1965). I call its own creators, although their works proletarian partisanship was key to their conception, which means people partition to create two camps who were always at war. As a man of thought and emotion could have and into the endless deprivations thinking that inherit something that his fellow shall not accept. Again bankruptcy, although it will not accept heart.

This type of discourse is conceived with metamorphosis reaches such levels superior to our artistic prose:

Although my soul stuck in the body of a prisoner, although this fate? Went to a tree,

how beautiful! Being silent trees, stately, do not worry about political regimes, mumble your gjethnajën, write in to your sighs no one can read the yet! But perhaps the trees feel the violence, not as people. But what was my soul who chose the body of a prisoner, or lay down? ... Why not abducted wings of a bird? Fly far beyond the barbed wires, cheap flight, on systems near the clouds go fountains of the sun, ah! When raised, my soul again to another prisoner will go or another animal? I love horses, being a horse, ah, they suffer dictatorship, the horse in jail ... Best snake for a while. (Zhiti 2012)

3. Social discourses

This type of discourse is the author serves to counter the two worlds. Its representative investigator, and he uncompromising world, of what creates value is bound to protect:

- *Yes Zija Çela in his novel though has put the main character thy name? And positive!*
- *What can I say? I do not know, the secrets of the writer, his laboratory - I said, disappointed.*
- *Come on, we ask secrets, spit, then! - Jumped investigator.*
- *No, no, pixilated secret, craftsmanship, unexplained by others or by themselves, perhaps.*
- *By who?*
- *From the writers.*
- *But not for us. Go! Your name, I asked, yours, why do they put the protagonist in his novel? Why?*
- *Coincidence, I do not know, no. I have no other answer.*

And the hero of the novel answer:

But I knew, it was not so, it was gratitude.

Following social dialogue which is a privileged communication is established, deep, full of secrets, which appear simultaneously as a dream and as a threat. Investigator uses the replica to complete the file, while the hero of the work uses artistic language with multiple layers of meaning. Shoe press is the reality that kills everything, even to the truth and beauty. And without beauty is not reality, nor life. Death of Dreams will concede that you have lost hope to live. And dream means the ability to create fancied. On the other hand everything put in

order to block creation. Creating not dangerous, because it will create truth wearer not. Investigator who is inhuman shoe service continues to weigh its emphasis. Dictating tony is, hard versus soft toned and protagonist. Investigator comeback words "Thou; enemy; Subversion; wagon; there to work against the dictionary "I survived!; Mr. investigator, create, invention, book" helps create privacy creator gives this contradiction:

- *And you in your blog you wrote, - continued safe investigator (ah, what I have written, not burnt!) - That you said the Zija Çela, when he came to the village to you stayed a few days, that road blocked by snow romantizma other, then you say the Zija that, huh, huh, huh, - is shfletonte through diary - that reality is as shoes, narrow and old, and foot, foot of desires, increased dreams ... Whether you know walking dreams and desires! - Added casually investigator, looked down upon me from the top down, which, of course, is to ask the body, will find two small spots moving. - It does not fit me shoes - you say - is bloody foot dreams, and desires. Now I definitely know what Zija Çela said, missing his response journal. (Saved!- had cried aloud. I would not be wrong, I have been careful with others. Let the Zija was okay...)*
- *I have told you, Mr. investigator, create blog, invention, to have later ...*
- *Where is it? When overturned popular power? - Thundered really nervous investigator.*
- *No, when I do a book ...*
- *You book, you, the enemy? Never! Who left you? Why are we? - Breathing heavily coming around me like a shkalluar. I saw one that was around a fountain padlock understood not what you wanted, the reasons why there was no water or what? - Book you? ... You will push wagons out there ... - And made by hand away, to show the place where lead to worse a new Golgotha. - You are strong, it will not chose vain. There to work.*

When the soul rises above the yoke of religious icons pattern:

... icons in jail, really?

Yes, yes, he does - as called? Gjovalin Saraçi. Secret.

But where, how ...?

Do not laugh.

I care about icons. Priests have. I'm thinking of a secret church ...

... And icons appearing in the dark.

Laura, he groaned ... When I was a student in Shkodra, opened the news that had sentenced a beautiful high school students, carrying the cross, read the Bible, wanted to escape ...

Laura, ah! Now I was being sighs. I looked like I had been given an icon, to keep secret. (Zhiti 2012)

When the soul rises above the ordinary is patterned poet:

And went to the north, in Milan, where I was called. Will accept us in the Italian Club PEN with Russian poet Jevtushenko.

- *Evgen - I said, - I am doomed and your poetry: why, why do you read, I cried to the investigator, he is an enemy of Enver Hoxha wrote against him.*
- *We talked a little about Putin's Russia. - Asked the Jevtushenko.*
- *No Putin's Russia! - He cried. - Russia Pushkin, Gogol, Dostoyevsky, Sollzhenicin, Mendelshtam ... my friends, my ... - added. (Zhiti 2012 II)*

4. Overlapping discourses

In many cases the author of melting in the two types of discourse. There in the underground gallery, when the body does not require anything but a little food for survival, the thought is more powerful. It would require reasons absurd situation in which fell homeland, nation, his class, social strata which he belongs. The combination of philosophical discourse that provides the ability to create create the semiology of meaning. Life had gone on the brink of existence. First had come the word bread. Existencial above subsistence. And bread was less than had artillery cannon, had zbor (military training), bunkers. Therefore there were no televisions: *a cartridge costs 80 Lekë, enough for two loaves of bread ... it spends our country to protect! And dare not say that the farmer takes a day sometimes less than a loaf of*

bread. 25 thousand makes a cannonball, twice or more than the salary of a minister for a month. Why do we say in oral ministers, let us drink this cup for fun and do not remember us the zbor! Kola said: thank God that died because of escaped the zbor. Yes, yes, but listen, the two make a television bombshell. E, to give authorization to buy a TV, you must be a martyr himself. Thou art martyr? Almost ... Yes bunkers?

To conclude the following:

- *Have you seen the vineyards around the farm, the pillars that hold the vines, have a top up iron stake, when enemies those who jump from the air to jump with air umbrella, stuck around to catch them alive. O are our top military fools, you mock us. Know Party. How about you? Know the party. What do you know? Stake entered us all, ha-ha-ha!*
- *Doest, why laugh? It is forbidden! - I approached the police to monitor the ventilation. The cold had made good. (Zhiti 2012)*

Hearing the story of a fellow and is provided to supplement the framework of Hadi a hell, where the suffering they had not sinned:

A resident of Shkodra was telling aloud what satisfaction that the police did not find that piece of paper from porno magazine, foreign one heck know how he had then entered the camp, not in space, no. That this is doomed, and pass porn picture from one bath to another over the wall. A pretty woman all naked, noodles stomach, thighs, miracle of God. The fault of the picture hear cries surprise: "urraaah!" That he had arrived the onanism goal. Beat us condemned us, but it was worth Indeed.

Shkodra speech: (Një shkodran po tregonte me zë të lartë se ç'kënaqësi qe kur policia s'e kishte gjetun at' copë flete revistet porno, t'huej, nji dreq e din si kishte pas hy n'kamp, jo n'Spaç, jo. Se ky asht i dënuem, dhe e kalojshim foton porno nga njena banjë n'tjetrën përsipër murit. Nji alamet femnet, e tana e zhdeshun, barkun petë, kofshët, mrekuilli e Zotit. Për faj të asaj fotografiet ndigjojshim bërtima papritun: "urraaah!" Se ia kishin mbrri qëllimit të onanizmit. Na rrafën e na dënuen, por ia vlente përnjimend.), (Zhiti 2012)

In the novel finds more than anything depriving those who had pent state within

barbed wires. Allowed not even show sex, but do not let the laugh he is working as a slave in the depths of the gallery, achieves the highest degree of fiction. It is the only quality that no other living beings, but when told somewhere further than ... regulations not allowed cry obey you've lived in one place more than fantastic. It was a sin to write your poems. So what are its citizens dictatorial state?

Even through Shkodra speech, juicy life, contrasts with state action, with dry abstract language, which from the beginning of its class organization held the cool, even hostile native North, mainly to Shkodra.

In addition to the overlapping discourses goes realistic description of the images of violence:

Moccasins, slippers rubber car expired, wooden clogs, dent, still unfinished, slaughtered necks mine boots, shoes, left by the former freedom. Had not yet dead, Invalid slippers, tied with bandage, any greater than the other or both of the same foot, all such fabricated to fitting your, horseshoes, hooves, skin bleeding, torn hose a dirty towels over all settled there, on the floor, in a perfect row. Almost seen over Steam.

If the tip of a wooden shoe would have been forgotten a bit more advanced than the other or ventured shoes were started as V, the captain night wake prisoner closer to them: Why are you leaving? Are not mine, Mr. Commander. But who are they? I do not know. The under officer will wake the other, until they found their lord, to regulate those two shoes grumpy left or will be upgraded in the dungeon, because it seemed like educate not again. The punishment depended on who would the captain which the convict service. (Zhiti 2012)

Lecture oblique mounted on enumeracionin misery and physical material supplemented by contrast with those who were protecting a protected regime, who were captains of this absurd sergeant attempting to cause rinsing the brains to educate man should not think, even feel, man hog brain machine.

Reaches peak fantastic surprise:

Is giant Hemingueji, repeat if they belonged only to him. He has written, it seems, after the death of the book, which was awarded

the "Nobel". After death?! What do you say, my man! Not been published posthumously? Do not confuse things. No, no, wrote after his death. (Zhiti 2012)

All Albania pretends to build socialism, why not pretend we like to drink coffee? (Zhiti, 2012)

Fac sapias et eries book. Be known to be free, but freedom is not only knowledge, but also love, love as much as love without oblivion, we need a great lover ... -Where are they? (Zhiti, 2012 II)

5. Conclusion

"Michelangelo said Pope Julius II -" selflessness is noble, self-acculturation is a mercy, self-control is manliness, but compared to the abuse itself really great and inspiring soul they are poor and tame "to Visar Zhiti by elite writer has become popular hero because sacrificed as Demiurg to truth and beauty putting their lives in the service of beauty. (Todorov 2007) It's creator dissident, although likes to align itself with condemning writers. His first verses have blurred the meaning, in order to pass censorship which saw only content, although the stream not to make political opposition at the expense of aesthetic level.

Zhiti grew up in a family environment where small since I was afraid that when he spoke of being listened Party, when most were unified to the "un social and civic" new man, while poetic ego remains individualized.

Remains fragile and fin in narrative prose. Seeing the fate of a real character, each hero or devil, confessing that the event will not like it were true, as the self, while not invented anything, just selected experiences, although their writing resembled another prison, helps blast metaphysical illusion.

Like Borges stated that he spent his life thinking about women, he was a man of passion and emotional, Zhiti makes special care for women. If someone reads two collections of his famous stories "Fictions" and "Aleph", finds the opposite. The same happens when reads the Zhiti, the his diptic, where she, love, woman is never absent for a moment. I am grateful, much helped me in jail with her beauty, he said it. In narrative works of this author emotions disappear.

In the decade of the '30s of the last century, Borges was one of the first writers and intellectuals of Argentina, who was declared against fascism. Borges was very persistent and this explains the fact that he was an opposition to Peron, and this probably caused the mosfitimin sometimes overlook. Such is the Zhiti, which was declared against communism since the '70s.

Was not afraid of prison, death, the devoted life worthy creation. Seems to happen just as Greek antiquity: "By choosing death, Socrates chose to live in eternity." (Pipa 2011)

And I am to finish my reading the diptic of Visar Zhiti with a screaming of the Pierre Corneille: *True happiness is not to be sensitive to the concerns, for nothing nothing hope and not fear.*

Writing in prose Zhiti has left the space needed advanced discourses, while the preconditions laid the basis for the development of domestic literary discourses, which will curve around human fortunes, not only in universal look, but mainly in specific environments a human life.

Its really not outdated, diptiku Visar Zhiti has become the root of democracy.

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RELIGIOUS POETRY, ITS INFLUENCE AND PERCEPTION BY PRESENT DAY READERS

(Paul Claudel and Charles Péguy)

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Abstract

In the era of materialism and relativism, this topic has been frequently neglected in literary studies. The study is based on two well-known French Christian poets, who were extraordinary personalities of French literature: Paul Claudel, Charles Péguy, and the way they are perceived in our days. It also provides information on the poetry appreciation of these two poets from many literary critics, poets, as well as atheist literary critics. Based on these analyses, we conclude that poetry with religious themes not only has great esthetic value, but it is worthy of our attention. As a special sort of poetry, we are of the opinion that it shouldn't be read and studied only by religious people. Nowadays, man's life is changing rapidly, there is no security, the problems and misfortunes are often greater than the joys and happy moments. We, as readers and students, need to find another reality in the religious poetry, a different from the one we face every day. Our aim is to emphasize the fact that religious poetry should be read and studied in our schools, in our colleges and in our universities. It enables us to judge things differently, in order to throw light on the darkness of bad moments, encouraging people to hope and see their future positively and optimistically.

Keywords: *sacred, poesis, heaven, mysticism, soul*

1. Poesis – The poet as creator

Human history has no lack of poetry. From birth to death poetry, in all its forms rather hymns, prayers or song, is ever present. In feasts or famine, sorrow or joy, laughter or tears, poetry is always with us. It is said that poetry was born in its oral and written forms as a way to remember various events of human life. It is "the memory of the people who do not have the script."¹

Poetry exalts our human senses of dreams, freedom, and the creative power of human existence. Their authors wield the power to express through verse the dreams and despairs, which all humans long to express, yet often lack the words.

¹ G.Jean

http://www.flsh.unilim.fr/ditl/Fahey/POSIEPoetry_n.html

"What is then poetry?" The wise French poet Georges Pompidou helps us discover the answer by first asking an even more profound question, "What is the soul?" In answering these two questions, Pompidou draws the close connection between poetry and its inseparable connection to the human soul in saying that in poetry "we can observe all life's manifestations of human kind, we can analyze and describe it. We've all done it at school—analyze a poem, study its composition, vocabulary, rhythm, and harmony. All this is in poetry and apart of the heart that beats for the soul. It is simply an external manifestation, not an explanation, much less a definition."²

Yet the fact remains that it is difficult to define poetry and find an exact description of it. Roman Jakobson, among other authors, has defined common language as a tool to share information, such as a currency exchange in everyday conversations dealing with the necessities of life. However, the poet is not simply a person who uses language as others, to exchange ideas and information on a daily basis. First, the poet feels different from others, having unique things to express. He often chooses to express himself in a way that has nothing to do with the common usage of words and syntax of everyday language. He plays with words by using them not only for their conceptual value, but for their magical power and for their sound. Thus, he creates "figure" and reinforces colors. The poet is often found altering the conventional meanings of words, causing them to be creatively infused with new life. Even the etymology of the word in Greek "poiesis", which means "to produce, to create" helps us to understand this. The role then of verses in poetry is to glorify the world and its creation.

Poetry does more than all this by speaking to the total human experience of individuals or entire social groups. Naming things and human beings, means to exercise a considerable power. In the biblical book of Genesis, God created the world by naming things, "God called the light day... and the darkness night... and the evening and the morning were the first day."³ We learn that in the Old Testament, the word of God is a real creative act. It was through this word that

all things were created. In these sacred writings, we often see the prophet speaking on behalf of God through the medium of poetry. Frequently the Old Testament prophet's/poet's words served as warning and foretelling of things to come. Though living in the material world, the prophet hears the voice of God and speaks to others often through poetry, thereby linking humanity to the divine. Through this, the prophet is both the image of his Creator and also his mouthpiece as he exercises his soul's God given creativity. He becomes an imitator of God as God is the source of the sacred, the poet becomes a source of poetry. In this, he takes part in the work of God through the universal poiein (creation). The poet takes the place of any man in the world in terms of the mystics, but he has the privilege, unlike ordinary mortals to hear voices that reveal Heaven.

According to Francis Jammes, the poet is a pilgrim sent by God on earth, in order to reveal traces left by lost Paradise and recaptured skies. The poet may seem like a beggar sitting in the middle of the road expecting people to give to him, while he reveals the secret of beauty and the human experience. Although the passersby may not notice the pain in his eyes, God does not close his eyes to the request of the poor poet as he offers him the appearance of clear blue sky. And the poet under the inspiration that is given to him from this view needs no paint nor brushes, but with a pen in hand expresses what he holds inside. Often the poet is born, lives and dies as a flower of the field, which is hardly seen by men. The poet is the one who observes, who hears the song of the whistle, understood by him just because he has a heart filled with divine harmony as a clean water source that responds to the singing of the birds.

Though he visits many places through pen and paper, he is alone, lonely, often poor, and stripped of everything, except the clean water in which the heavens are reflected. The poet is one who walks on the sea. The poet is one who walks into the forest. The poet is the man to whom God has restored the lost glory of the Garden of Eden. Aristotle wrote, "the poet is the treasurer of theology", or the memory of the gods. Poetry in its beginnings seems to be associated closely with religious and mythical experience. It seems as we are putting the equal sign between poets and saints. But we cannot do that. The poet

² Foreword of Anthologie de la poésie française, Georges Pompidou, Librairie générale française, Paris, 1961, pg.9

³ Genesis 1:5

takes the place of any man in the world in terms of the mystics, but he has the privilege, unlike ordinary mortals, to hear voices that reveal Heaven.

Many poets appear to be focused on their relationship with God, but on the other hand, despite this relationship with the Creator, these poets have never raised their existence itself. There is a kind of limit of religious feeling and there is a kind of essential unity in the experience created between profane and religious work.

Yet this begs the question: are all poets religious?

We must certainly answer negatively. St. Teresa, with all the beauty of her writing, St. Thomas Aquinas, Vincent de Paul, are not part of our study, despite the sublime role that they played in terms of their writings. Francis Jammes wrote "In conclusion, we can say that a religious person with his mysticism, a true mystic is not necessarily a poet, but on the other hand I can say boldly that every true poet, any poet who expresses an opinion and a pure sense has mysticism."

Poets nowadays have different missions around the world. The world, it seems, is in a continual dance directed by one of two rhythms and by two races of angels: the righteous and the wicked, or in other terms, the perpetual conflict between good and evil with the poet all the while hearing either the voice of the seraphim or the demon.

Based on the ideas of Francis Jammes, we will give a kind of classification for poets:

Poets dominated by evil who see the poet's role as someone cursed and unlucky.

There are poets who, even though they do not intend to glorify God with their expressions, we can see signs that they praise him in subtle ways by glorifying his creation.

There are the poets who, whether by their description of nature or by their declaration of their feelings of love, raise up little by little a holy trembling, which makes us encounter God. Could this be the aid of an angel's arm?

Then, we see examples of poets who seem to be concerned to portray the darkness and evil which they see both around them and even within themselves. These, however, are not the specific concern of this paper, but belong to a certain kind of mystical poetry which takes a

completely different direction.

Finally, we come to the most important group of our treatment of the poets—namely those whom we can classify as religious mystics. Among the most noteworthy are: Dante, Lamartine, Verlaine of *Sagesse*, and Claudel.

C. S. Lewis, who was a noted Cambridge scholar, literary critic, and was himself a poet, made some very interesting suggestions in relation to religious poetry and human suffering. It should also be noted that he spent the beginning of his professional academic career as a devout atheist dedicating much professional time to disprove the Christian faith. In the process, trying to disprove Christianity, he converted to Christianity and for the remainder of his professional career devoted much time to Christian scholarship. Lewis suggested that human beings are the only living beings who can spell pain in a concrete way and that poets have a unique role in putting the sufferings of all humanity into words. He then argues strongly that pain may well be God's megaphone to address a morally deaf world. If God is taken out of the picture of human suffering, the question of pain and death, not only remains unanswered; it defies even legitimacy. We must understand that human hope can never be gained by human technological progress. This is all the more true when death draws near and all other hopes and dreams seem to lose all relevance. We continually see people trying to escape this ever present reality, but this is like the never ending effort to cover wrinkles with makeup. Again, we cannot avoid this deep pain no matter how much makeup is used. Though many try to avoid it, we see in many of these Christian religious poets a unique hope offered in their writings that is not commonly found elsewhere.

For example, in his famous Christmas evening speech at the London palace, King George VI offered in poetic fashion this unique hope in the face of the difficult life questions. "I told the man at the gate of the Year" said King George "Give me a lamp with whom I can certainly walk towards the unknown." The man replied, "Go, go outside in the dark and take God's hand and this will be to you a better and safer lamp than all else that can be found." These poetic words proved to be an anchor in times of need and had deep personal

significance for the King as he himself was looking death in the face as he battled his eventually fatal disease.

According to an idea that comes from the romantic era, profane literature derived from ancient sacred poems. Thus, the verse in the church in various rituals enables believers to remember more easily sacred texts. Gradually, however, the religious connection of secular Medieval poetry was less recognized. This division between the religious and secular in poetry has continued into the present time. Nevertheless, some modern poets continue to hold to the inseparable connection between the two. We can clearly see this in modern poets such as Victor Hugo. There are poets who see poetry as a kind of preparatory course to go to prayer. Henry Brèmond writes: «[Arts] aim all, but each with intermediaries magic of their own words, grades, colors, lines - they want all to reach the prayer. "According to Rina Lasnier, a member of the Canadian Academy, "*poetry has always been inserted to the scriptures; man has always trusted poetry to witness of his soul or of God.*"⁴ For Charles Péguy, poetry does not exist without the sacred, and Paul Claudel also wrote a few years after his return to faith "*I understood inside of me that the idea that art and poetry are divine things.*" After a long period of hesitation between "art" and "faith", Claudel realized that the wall between art and religion should be dissolved. He writes, "*Foolish people think that religion, morals and dogma are impoverishment and an obstacle to the artist ... Not only are they not an obstacle nor an impoverishment, additions are made [by the poets] to the visible by the invisible, and not only enriches [the visible], but gives meaning and fulfills it.*"⁵ In essence Claudel holds that the poet is inspired by a divinity and power that comes from above.

Again He writes:

*"And I say, the poet, in order to capture images and ideas, only a white sheet is needed., ... gods who will go there will surely leave their footprints on it as birds on the snow."*⁶

Charles Peguy and Paul Claudel have written prayers that have attracted many faithful

readers, as well as unbelievers full of charm and figurative expressions.

2. The sacred and the profane

That Poetry is closely related to the soul cannot be denied. Jean-Louis Joubert, in his book entitled *Poetry* writes: "*As the sacred belongs to the spirit, poetry is the soul that speaks to the soul.*"⁷ And just as the sacred carries mystery inside, poetry is also a mystery; it cannot be explained, it can only be felt. As the sacred marvels and amazes believers, poetry fascinates its readers.

It is interesting to note that in the Bible, we can find the Song of Songs, which is one of the most beautiful love songs of world literature. This book in the Bible speaks about two lovers who wish to join each other, yet are divided and desire to seek each other until the end of their lives.

It is true that of all biblical books, the Song of Songs is one with a large diversity of interpretations raising the question of whether or not such literature where God's name is mentioned only once can be accepted. Yet, the answer of Jewish and Christian tradition has always been affirmative. Among the different interpretations, one says that this book is an allegory or a parable of God's love for his people. But there is also a literal interpretation that says that the Song is the poem of two lovers and we should not be surprised by the fact that it is found in the Bible because in the Holy Book love verses are not forbidden. Love is accepted, even blessed by God. In this example, we can see clearly that from these sacred writings the 'holy' is the source and inspiration of poetry.

Many are troubled by the fact that religious poetry is not widely read or received in our time. Further more the once inseparable connection between the secular and divine in poetry that was once clearly seen has become increasingly more difficult to find. This raises the question, "Why this increasing division between poetry and the sacred?" How did society come to the point where poetry has become a medium of expression of irrational, verbal aggression and even subversion? We should note that any inadequacy of language coincides with the

⁴ <http://id.erudit.org/iderudit/30375ac>

⁵ Paul Claudel, *La muraille entière de Tokio*

⁶ *Œuvres poétiques*, Paul Claudel, pg.232

⁷ Jean Louis Joubert, *Poésie*, p. 33, Armand Collin, 2010, Paris

mediocrity of the world itself. Can arts and literature propose something crucial to the human being satiated with "innovation", but also empty of contemplation?

I suggest that what we have so quickly lost as a society and is evident in much current poetry is in fact the human soul. Furthermore, what is needed is light to be shown on the darkness and depression that is seen everywhere in our modern and post-modern poets.

"Give me the making of the songs of a nation," said eighteenth-century Scottish political thinker, Andrew Fletcher, "and I care not who writes its laws." His confident words not only divulge a major cultural access point to our contemporary mentality, but also acknowledge the extraordinary control of lyrics upon which the moods and convictions of the young, who are embattled by the tug of so many allurements are expressed.

Poets have begun to speak of a "desolate land" a "life like a shadow." Nothing was an issue for discussion while nihilism became a motive for the poets and disillusionment and desperation a subject for novelists and playwrights!

However, not all is lost. Despite the efforts to undermine the spiritual and push it into the arena of irrational, the hunger for the supernatural remains insatiable. I have seen clearly that the ardent desire for spirituality simply is not dead.

This is clearly evidenced in the following song. Text of a particular song:

*From the canyons of the mind
We wander on and stumble blind,
Wade through the often tangled maze
Of starless nights and sunless days,
Hoping for some kind of clue-
A road to lead us to the truth.
But who will answer? ...*

*Is our hope in walnut shells
Worn' round the neck with temple bells?
Or deep within some cloistered walls?
Where hooded figures pray in shawls?
Or high upon some dusty shelves,
Or in the stars,
Or in ourselves?
Who will answer?*

And the end of the song's text was:

*If the soul is darkened
By a fear it cannot name,
If the mind is baffled
When the rules don't fit the game,
Who will answer?
Who will answer?
Who will answer?⁸*

"The fatalism, the nihilism, the "take life by the throat" philosophy with all their existential trauma were endemic to the life so victimized by centuries of conflict and struggle."⁹ While we observe the progress achieved by science, and see advancing techniques, we are surprised that the songs of the nations have not changed. The messages of popular songs have not changed, they continue to be pessimist and obscure. Albert Camus confessed decades ago, as did psychologist Victor Frankl more recently, that the search for meaning is life's fundamental pursuit; all other questions deemed secondary.

During the nineteenth century, in all countries, the fight against traditional religion was leading the world toward obscurantism and unprecedented progress.

During this time, it became evident that the mad believed naively that he could establish a general rule and ensure universal happiness through the establishment of equality between people. By solving the material problems, one can feel safe and there would be no need for religion to solve problems that arise in life. Humanity thought that we can solve practical problems due to material life science and technical development, and so we will simultaneously solve theoretical problems. But this proved to be merely a shortsighted illusion. For, in the depths of his conscience, man felt that while there was a war against each other, while there was competition, man was not for one moment the master of his own destiny. Materialism and atheism have attacked any notion of faith at any cost. So people turned again to religion. In the early nineteenth century, many authors saw God as a being "less trustworthy". Religion attracted less people and it seems to create a vacuum within their hearts because of the lack of the presence of God.

⁸ L. E. Aute, Sheila Ante, "Who will answer ?", 1967, Ediciones Musicales BMG Ariola, S.A

⁹ A mund të jetojë njeriu pa Perëndinë, pg. 7

All of this only served to prove the emptiness that so many felt and that the poets such as, Novalis, Holderlin, Baudelaire and Nerval expressed in their poetry. A century later, the same motion will be extended by other poets, for example Yves Bonnefoy, author of many essays, summaries and translations, which defines poetry as "*a new religion without God*."

Today, our civilization urges us yet again to avoid the sacred while seeking after the material with remarkable speed. In the twentieth century, most poets tried to "clean up" their writing by any reaching after a form of transcendence. It seems as poetry is forced to deny its visionary aspect and is being immersed in materialism or realism.

"*Our society rejects obviously poetry*" What is happening with the poem itself? Nathalie Naber, however, goes even further in saying, "*Our society not only has rejected many forms of poetry, but also spirituality*." There are few who enjoy because it saying, 'it serves for nothing'. And 'this loss of interest in poetry goes hand in hand with the loss of interest for transcendence.

Although spiritual poetry seems to be neglected, aside, the search for the ultimate continues to be part of the creativity of poets with unprecedented zeal. The desire to be filled never ends because the cure for boredom requires something higher – as Blaise Pascal wrote.

In France there's Charles Péguy, but he's more a prophet like Dostoyevsky. Catholicism strongly influenced his works.

I believe the greatest modern Catholic poet, and the most unknown, even to Catholics, is Paul Claudel (1868-1955). His family was modest, his father a local government official. Claudel studied for a diplomatic career, but was also attracted to poetry. He succeeded spectacularly in both realms.

Some of his predecessors – Baudelaire, Verlaine, Rimbaud – were *poètes maudits* ("cursed poets"), who more than dabbled in sin and occultism. Yet, all finished as Catholics. Rimbaud in particular – who stopped writing in his teens and is today somehow a patron saint of self-indulgent rock musicians – helped bring Claudel to belief.

Partly because of the marvelous realm beyond smug modern materialism that Claudel discovered in Rimbaud, he found himself in

Notre Dame of Paris on Christmas Day 1886 during Vespers: "*The children in the choir were singing what I later learned was the Magnificat. In an instant, my heart was touched and I believed.*"

With the reception of Paul Claudel, Germans were the first to translate Claudel and they are still the first who have the full translation of his books. German intellectual circles expressed their admiration early, even such personalities as Stefan Zweig, Bertholt Brecht, or Thomas Mann. A lot of German researchers have studied in details Claudel's writings. There have been numerous researchers especially for his dramatic works,. However, in Germany, he has been prejudiced and many critics have judged him to be very Catholic.

English and American criticism began to speak about Claudel's theater and poetry after 1910. In these two countries, he was received with enthusiasm by a large number of readers, but he has been criticized for his religious thought. Researchers show interest in his work either from the religious point of view, whether oriental, or international dimension, but also global.

In Italy, it seems that there is not much interest for this "gorilla Catholic", an expression of Benedetto Croce's (Benedetto Croce) among the general public. There are many wonderful works translated into Italian, which are simple translations, without any scientific purpose and are published by not very many important publishing house, which makes it difficult to find and study them in Italian.

If we think about the reasons for this indifference, perhaps we would see that the leaving aside of the figure and work of this poet, is due to secularization and widespread atheistic ideas. In fact, it is also noticed that although Italy is considered as the most Catholic nation in the world, Catholic artists are seen negatively by the general public and they prefer artists that are part of the ideology of the time.

In Greece, many articles have been written on the life and work of Claudel entitled: the "Homage to Paul Claudel" by Vassilios Kastriotis, 1927, "Claudel and others" by Manolis Karagatsis, 1947, "Paul Claudel" by Giorgos Pratsikas, 1955, "Paul Claudel: announcement made to Mary". Regarding works translated into Greek, it is worth mentioning the presence of

Takis Papatsonis, especially his translation of the drama *Partage de midi* in 1987, but translations of other works have been also made by other Greek translators. The love of Paul Claudel for Greece and the impact of the Greek world was so important that he decided to learn the Greek language to "enjoy" ancient Greek texts in their original form. There is also a kind of mutual admiration between the poet and prominent French playwright of XIX century and the country on ninth muses.

The fact that Claudel is called a Catholic poet has played a negative role in his reception. For the Russian public, Claudel's works have not been known for years. The first "Revelator" of his work were Russian symbolists who had direct links with French cultural world, recognized the new French poetry and translated it. They saw in Claudel a true innovative poet with a secure future. His name appeared for the first time in 1904 in a literary magazine Vessy under the pen of the famous poet Valeri Briusov who writes about *Connaissance de l'Est*, the work that he sees as full of talent and originality. In 1910 Claudel was read in French by Russian cultivated layers, but at this time the translation of his works into Russian also begins. It is worth mentioning that the name of the poet and painter Maximilian Voloshin a translator of poetic and dramatic works. According to him, Claudel feeds his soul through three underground resources: oriental wisdom, Catholicism and Hellenic archaism.

In Albania, Claudel's works are very limitdly known. This poet, with such great and irrefutable value, unfortunately has not been yet translated into the Albanian language. The fact that these poets have been left somehow ignored shows that contemporary society is not open to religious ideas. Our society in this period of uncertainty and instability has need of a hope, an anchor of support. Religious poetry brings hope, brings a sense of peace and tranquility that may help man to come out of the darkness in which he often finds himself.

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SEEKING FOR TRACES OF GREEK CULTURE IN THE FICTIONAL WORLD OF HARRY POTTER

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Abstract

The world-wide *Harry Potter* phenomenon concerns in a critical level many Literature's approved researchers and scientists. The relative studies that were worked out are innumerable and they cover a wide range of the literary analysis' discipline fields. In our study we will try to find out and show off the infiltration of the Greek culture and heritage in the origin of the names, in the presentation of the characters and the magic attributes that characterize them that are included organically in the plot of the ultimate fictions *Harry Potter and the Half-Blood Prince* and *Harry Potter and the Deathly Hallows*. All of them demarcate a field of research, which examines if Rowling as a writer proceeded consciously in the embodiment of these elements or they were included in the context of a wider humanitarian culture that penetrates unconsciously in the contemporary literary texts.

Keywords: *Harry Potter, Greek culture, Rowling*

1. Introduction

The exceptionally profitable and critical success of the *Harry Potter* series is without precedent in world-wide Children's Literature. Even if other best – selling writers have made a lot of money quickly, none of them has managed to prove himself so acceptable both to critics and to a vast international child and adult readership. 109.739 words, 3.363 pages, 199 characters, 7 books, 1 story. The *Harry Potter* series has sold more than 450 million copies worldwide, has been translated in 67 languages and has gained many awards. Until today somebody could compare these achievements only with Enid Blyton's, whose timeless storytelling has helped shape and foster imagination in millions of children worldwide. Her series of books based on recurring characters and designed for different age groups have enjoyed huge success in many parts of the world, and have sold over 600 million copies. Her work involves children's adventure stories, and fantasy, sometimes involving magic and has been translated into nearly 90 languages

(http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Enid_Blyton).

Enid's books still continue to sell more than 8 million copies worldwide and she is still voted as a children's favourite

(<http://www.blurtit.com/q554389.html>).

Rowling's Harry Potter stories as a whole have a distinctly backward – looking quality that provide readers with a classical myth wrapped in a beautifully imagined children's story. Rowling takes us back to the simplicities of the stories we were reading when we were young, when children's book were generally less realistic and more concerned with pleasing fantasies. We wonder if this is one of the elements that lent in the books the enormous success along with the unique plot, the multidimensional characters and their particular world. A world so different and the same time so realistic, as the writer achieved to represent through description, but also through writing on subjects like the eternal battle of good – villain, love, friendship, death, orphan hood, social hierarchies and so many others. Rowling deeply invests in teaching their protagonists and through them their readers how to confront with all these and particularly how to eradicate, and ameliorate racism through its depiction (Horne 2010: 76).

Contemporary social issues do not exist in Potter books. Harry's fellow – pupils live in a world where drugs, alcohol, divorce, or sexual activity of any kind is simply not a problem. Difficulties instead arise from more remote, less instantly recognizable sources (Tucker 1999:221). The constant sniping at various social and personality stereotypes set up by the author for reader's instant scorn also has an old-fashioned ring to it. We have to emphasize that significant critics like Lerer defend the Harry Potter books against the accusations of clichéd tones, common tropes, and borrowed plots by arguing that transforming these "commonalities" into "new gold" is precisely what gives them power (Russell 2009: 238). Rowling mocks the type of blinkered suburban existence once, where Harry's detestable relatives live a joyless existence. Harry himself hates his environment, a dark cupboard, deprived of any affection and so will his readers, too. We have a type of a classic formula with an exceptional hero and obvious villains. A popular melodrama in traditional gothic-style scene, that of the boarding Hogwarts School with its coat of arms and Latin tag where pupils attend because they have magical talents or backgrounds and not for the sake of their wealth (Tucker 1999:222).

Some literary scholars, such as Amanda Cockrell, Katherine Grimes, Maria Nikolajeva, and Benoit Virole, argue over whether the Harry

Potter series should be classified as fairy tale or myth. This distinction is important because the conventions attributed to each genre illuminate a text's literary goals and nature and directly correlate to its support of fate or free will (Pond 2010: 182). A theme, originated directly from ancient Greek Mythology, which persists to cause tensions and discussions. Although it appears at first reading that the Harry Potter series was distinguished for its identifiable hero, a boy in whom all readers can find themselves, Rowling actually offers her audience a story of an exceptional hero. She uses traces at once fundamental to the formation of identity and central to the ongoing struggle for power between Harry and Voldemort. Again and again, Harry proves himself able to make use of the past and demonstrates an ability to accept traces as connections with it, yet also as indications that the past has passed. Central to Harry's heroism is his ability to live in time and even to manipulate and take advantage of its passage, surrounding himself with his personal history and forging his identity through the traces of his family (Zimmerman 2009:194). While Harry's world remains unexpectedly at fate's mercy, Harry strives to excel his personal limitations through a Nietzschean moral. His actions and choices propel him above his peers, beyond a staid and determined fate and encourage us to achieve success available to the strong – willed by reaching for our potentials (Pond 2010: 202).

Descriptions of children utterly absorbed in a Potter book are very heartening at a time when the joys of reading are so often challenged by other juvenile habits and activities and the fact that the writer attracts an adult audience as well is equally impressive. Where children lead, literary critics do not always want to follow. Rowling possesses that mixture of literary populism linked to an extraordinary ability to get through to children. Rowling belongs to the writers who spread the idea that it is books themselves that can be truly exciting rather than an amorphous concept like "reading" (Tucker 1999:233). Potter stories attracted more adults in taking an interest in what their children read even to the extent of enjoying some of the same books for themselves. We are not sure that these stories, with their old-fashioned plots, settings, and characterization, are necessarily the ideal to reintroduce parents and other adults to what is best in contemporary children's literature. But,

on the other hand, it would be sad if the quality of these books was to be compared with Enid Blyton's stories (Tucker 1999:234). Rowling belongs already to the classics and by that, we do not move on reckless and sacrilegious comparisons with Homer, Virgil, Ovid or Aesop whose influence throughout antiquity, the Middle Ages, and the Renaissance was abiding as the aim of classical education was to prepare the young for a life in public service, moral development and edification, such as that emphasized by those writers. But it is very interesting to observe how Rowling's success marks a new beginning for Children's Literature.

The author has used in her books mythological elements deriving from multiple mythologies, such as the Greek, Roman, Nordic and Celtic among others. The ancient Greek mythology plays a significant role into the wider formation and education of human beings, owing to the importance of the range and depth that the last has brought on universal human values. Therein, the myths contribute to the formation of the human character and bring forward the position of man against the gods (behind their "lies" resides the universal and global element of human existence) and against the universe. In this article, we explore the existence and use of Greek names and characters, whether they exist into mythology or as poets and authors of ancient Greece, in the last two books of the series, *Harry Potter and the Half-Blood Prince* and *Harry Potter and the Deathly Hallows*. More specifically, we will ascertain a. the etymological origin of important heroes and heroines' names into the books and we will investigate b. the role and the textual function of specific persons, as well as c. the possible correlations of etymological origin and textual function, wherever and however they are traced. In aid, we will cite as reference the books' pages in which these persons are referred.

2. Analysis

1. *Xenophilus Lovegood*¹

- His name derives from the Greek words "xenos" (its meaning is "foreign") and "philia" ("friendship" being its meaning).

¹ References of the 7th book, chapters: 8th 115-133, 20th 315-328.

He is namely someone who loves and cares about the foreign, the unknown, whether human or creature or situation. The English word "Lovegood" is a compound one, deriving from the simple words "love" and "good". The second component of his first name "Xenophilus" has a direct relevance with the first component of his last name "Lovegood", which denotes someone who loves fairness and more generally the love towards fairness. In ancient Greece, the adjective "xenophilos" is encountered and in subsequent years also as the first name "Xenophilos" or "Xeinophilos" in the works of the poet Simonides, while in Modern Greek we see the adjective "philoxenos" (meaning welcoming). Therein, between the English Lovegood and the Greek Xenophilus a direct etymological and semantic relevance is presented.

- Xenophilus², publisher of the magazine *The Quibbler*, acts as a catalyst through the plot of the series, mainly through the revelation of the history of the Deathly Hallows to Harry, Ron and Hermione. When the Death Eaters abducted his daughter Luna, he was forced to write in favour of The Ministry of Magic into his magazine, essentially serving the interests of Voldemort.
- Xenophilus is occupied with the pursuit of imaginary magical items and creatures. He is also the designer and collector of items that do not function properly or may not be exactly what he thinks they are. He is accustomed to dealing with creatures of objects that he is not familiar with and that he does not even know with certainty their existence but nonetheless continues to believe in.

2. *Sirius Black*³

- The name⁴ Sirius derives from the

² The Harry Potter Lexicon. "Xenophilus Lovegood". Last page update 27 July, 2007. <http://www.hp-lexicon.org/wizards/xenophilus.html>

³ References of the 6th book, chapters: 1st 7-24, 2nd 25-41, 4th 59-80, 24th 480-499.

References of the 7th book, chapters: 25th 406-418, 26th 419-438, 33th 529-553, 34th 554-564, 36th 580-600.

⁴ Colbert, David (2004). *The Magical Worlds of Harry Potter. A Treasury of Myths, Legends, and Fascinating*

constellation called “dog star” (the main star of the constellation Canis Major). In ancient Greek “kinastron” or “Sirius dog”. The name Sirius was assigned to it, as it is the brightest star in the sky. The Greek word “Sirius” means “scorching”, “searing” and as a constellation it was particularly popular to the ancient Greek tragic and lyric poets, while there are often references to it from Hesiod to his work “Works and Days”.

- b. Sirius Black⁵ was Harry’s godfather. He died in the fifth book of the series, but reappears in the seventh book into the memories of professor Snape and also as a ghost, when Harry used the Resurrection Stone, giving him courage before he met Voldemort.
- c. Sirius was an Animagus (an animal mage), therefore he had the ability, when he wanted, to transform into an animal. The form that Sirius took was that of a black dog, in direct association with the “dog star”.

3. *Narcissa Malfoy*⁶

- a. Her name⁷ derives from the Greek myth of Narcissus⁸. Narcissus was a young man of rare beauty. According to the predominant tradition, Narcissus, seeing his reflection into the water, was so enchanted, that he continuously stooped in order to mirror himself into the water until he died and in the place of his death the homonymous flower sprang up. According to another version, many nymphs had fallen in love with Narcissus, without reciprocation, provoking Nemesis into punishing him, by making him mirror himself onto the water of a spring and leading him to death as a direct result of his unsatisfied love for his

own reflection. Narcissus is considered to be the demon of sleep or death and consequently of Hades. The homonymous flower was believed to instigate sleep. It was grown on graves or was used in the weaving of wreaths for the dead. Today the flower⁹ symbolizes egoism.

- b. Narcissa is Draco’s mother¹⁰. She had never been a Death Eater, although she embraced the Dark Lord’s views. Narcissa “changed” when Voldemort made her son a Death Eater and forced him to endanger himself and kill Dumbledore. Her turnabout proves to be very useful for the development of the plot, as, when Voldemort, believing that he has killed Harry, sends her to check if he is still breathing, she lies saying that he is dead.
- c. Narcissa is described as a very beautiful woman, blonde, with blue eyes. She comes from a wealthy and aristocratic family and she is distinguished for her snobbery. The association between the etymology of the word with the heroine’s textual role is direct and not only limited to her beauty.

4. *Alecto Carrow*¹¹

- a. In Greek Mythology, Alecto¹² was one of the Erinyes, or Furies, the mythical infernal goddesses who castigated those that had committed crimes against the physical or moral order. Their number is indeterminate. Euripides in his work “Iphigenia en Tauris” cites three: Alecto (anthromorphism or personification of fury and implacable anger), Megaera (anthromorphism or personification of hatred and envy) and Tisiphone

Fact). Berkley Books, p. 41

⁵ Harry Potter Wiki. “Sirius Black”. Retrieved December 11, 2011 from the World Wide Web:

http://harrypotter.wikia.com/wiki/Sirius_Black

⁶ References on the 6th book, chapters: 2nd 25-41, 6th 103-123.

References on the 7th book, chapters: 1st 9-18, 23rd 362-385, 34th 554-654, 36th 580-600.

⁷ Colbert, David (2004). The Magical Worlds of Harry Potter. A Treasury of Myths, Legends, and Fascinating Facts. Berkley Books, p. 148.

⁸ Roussos E. (eds). (2008) Universal Mythology, Athens Publishing 2008, p. 460.

⁹ Interfloras Gamos Blog. Last page update February 05, 2010.

http://gamosflowerswedding.blogspot.com/2010/02/blog-post_05.html

¹⁰ The Harry Potter Lexicon. “Narcissa (Black) Malfoy”. Last page update 10 January, 2008.

<http://www.hp-lexicon.org/wizards/narcissa.html>

¹¹ References on the 6th book, chapters: 27th 539-556, 28th 557-569.

References on the 8th book, chapters: 12th 184-202, 29th 460-473, 30th 474-488, 31th 489-512.

¹² Hellenica. “Errinyes”. Retrieved December 19, 2011 from the World Wide Web:

<http://www.hellenica.de/Griechenland/Mythos/GR/Erinyes.html>

(anthropomorphism or persification of vengeance). Erinyes' heads were entwined with serpents and their whole appearance was rather horrific and repulsive. Hades was their residence. In their hands, they usually carried lit torches in order to dissolve the shroud of darkness that were conducive to or covered the perpetrated crimes, as well as a whip made of serpents used as a weapon against the perpetrators.

- b. Alecto Carrow, Amycus' sister, is a Death Eater. In the sixth book, she was among those who secretly invaded (without being recruited) the school with Draco's help. In the seventh book, she taught at Hogwarts the subject of Muggle Studies and took part in the Final Battle of Hogwarts.
- c. Just like the Erinyes used to persecute those who had committed crimes, Alecto enjoyed punishing and torturing students at Hogwarts, especially those who did not comply with the existing rules. Punisher of ancient Greek mythology, Death Eater in Rowling's books.

5. Amycus Carrow¹³

- a. According to ancient Greek mythology, Amycus was Poseidon and Nymph Melias or Pelias' son, king of Bebryces in Bithynia. He was a brutal giant, considered as the father of technical boxing¹⁴. He obligated every stranger that entered his country to fight against him, beating him as a result of his supernatural strength, thus killing him.
- b. Amycus Carrow, like his sister Alecto, was a Death Eater. He took part in the Battle of the Astronomy Tower in the sixth book, whereas he taught in school, in the seventh book, the subject of Defence Against the Dark Arts.
- c. Amycus enjoyed punishing the pupils of the school and as a Death Eater he was a

good fighter. He is described as bulky, arrogant, rude and offensive to others.

6. Hermione Jean Granger¹⁵

- a. Rowling has claimed that she was inspired for the name "Hermione" from a Shakespearean character in his work "A Winter's Tale", despite the fact that there is no similarity between the two characters¹⁶. She thought that a couple of doctors would like for their daughter an unusual name that depicted their intelligence and knowledge. Her name is a loan from Greek mythology. According to the first version, she was the only daughter of Menelaus and Helen, initially betrothed to Orestes, who was obliged to give her to Neoptolemus, son of Achilles, as she was promised to him by Menelaus in order to ensure his help during the Trojan War. In Euripides' *Andromache*, the story is mentioned differently¹⁷. In each case though, Hermione was the subject of conflict between Orestes and Neoptolemus. Our personal opinion is that the name Hermione¹⁸ is the female equivalent of Hermes, emissary and messenger of Gods and conductor of souls into the afterlife, as it is mentioned in Homer.
- b. Hermione is Harry's friend, having taken part in all his adventures. She is intelligent, knowledgeable and very capable as a witch. In the seventh book, her assistance was crucial in the quest for Horcruxes.
- c. If we accept that the heroine's name derives from Hermes, it fits well with her personality, as she is characterised by eloquence, wit and distinguishable performance to her courses.

¹³ References on the 6th book, chapters: 27th 539-556, 28th 557-569.

References on the 7th book, chapters: 12th 184-202, 29th 460-473, 30th 474-488.

¹⁴ Hellenica. "Amycos". Retrieved December 20, 2011 from the World Wide Web:

<http://www.hellenica.de/Griechenland/Mythos/GR/Amykos.html>

¹⁵ References on 6th book, all chapters except: 1st 7-24, 2nd 25-41, 3rd 42-58, 13th 242-260, 23th 460-479, 26th 519-540, 27th 541-556, 28th 557-569.

References on 7th book, all chapters except: 1st 9-18, 2nd 19-30, 3rd 31-41, 30th 474-488, 35th 565-579.

¹⁶ The Harry Potter Lexicon. "Hermione Jean Granger". Last page update 6 October, 2007.

<http://www.hp-lexicon.org/wizards/granger.html#Hermione>

¹⁷ Roussos E. (eds). (2008) *Universal Mythology*, Athens Publishing, p. 250

¹⁸ Colbert, David (2004). *The Magical Worlds of Harry Potter. A Treasury of Myths, Legends, and Fascinating Facts*. Berkley Books, p.170.

7. *Sybill Patricia Trelawney*¹⁹

- a. The name Sybill²⁰ is attributed in the ancient Greek mythology to a famous oracle, who in ecstasy and under the influence of Apollo usually revealed her dreams without even that be required. More precisely, she comes from a whole group of prophets with a charisma by birth, known as Sybillas. They were oracular seeresses, perceived as beings between Gods and humans. They were not immortal, but had an extended life expectancy.
- b. Sybill²¹ is a professor in Hogwarts, teaching the subject of Divination. On account of her prophecy, Voldemort wants to kill Harry Potter. Sybill also took part in the Final Battle of Hogwarts.
- c. Professor Trelawney has some oracular abilities and has performed some prophecies. The name given by the author is a fully appropriate one, as Sibyll, according to Greek mythology, was an oracle. It should be noted though that professor Trelawney is not that popular and few are those who appreciate her abilities.

8. *Nymphadora Tonks*²²

- a. According to Greek mythology, Nymphs²³ are semi-goddesses, young, who dwelled in the wildlife, usually near springs and rivers, accompanying Artemis. The danced with Pan and sung with their sweet voices in celebration of the

Olympian Gods. They were not immortal, but they led a long life and were fed with ambrosia. Often, the Nymphs were transformed into plants by a god as the result of punishment or salvation from sadness or death.

- b. Nymphadora²⁴ was an Auror of the Ministry of Magic and member of the Order of the Phoenix. She fought several times against the Death Eaters. In the Final Battle of Hogwarts she died aside her husband, Remus Lupin, leaving thus her son an orphan.
- c. Nymphadora is described as a young and beautiful girl, a fact that aligns itself to her name and its association with the mythological Nymphs. Nymphadora was a Metamorphmagus, being able to change her features. That is an ability directly associated with the transformation of mythological nymphs.

9. *Andromeda Tonks*²⁵

- a. Andromeda²⁶ is the daughter of Kipheas and Cassiopeia, kings of the Phoenician kingdom of Ethiopia. Cassiopeia, considered her as beautiful as the Nereids (Nymphs), a fact that enraged Poseidon, who spread famine to the country and sent a sea monster to devastate the people. According to an oracles' saying, salvation would come only if the king offered his daughter to the monster. The king agreed, but Perseus killed the monster, saving Andromeda, whom later he married. She followed her husband to Tirynt of Argos. After her death, Athena transformed her into a star and placed her among the constellation of the Northern Sky beside Perseus and Cassiopeia.
- b. Andromeda is Nymphadora's mother. In the seventh book, the leading members of the Order of the Phoenix, companions

¹⁹ References on the 6th book, chapters: 8th 148-162, 9th 163-183, 10th 184-204, 15th 284-304, 20th 396-418, 23th 460-479, 25th 500-518.

References on the 7th book, chapters: 32th 513-528, 33th 529-553.

²⁰ Wikipedia "Sibyl". Last page update January 10, 2012.

<http://el.wikipedia.org/wiki/%CE%A3%CE%AF%CE%B2%CF%85%CE%BB%CE%BB%CE%B1>

²¹ The Harry Potter Lexicon. "Sibyll (Sybill) Patricia Trelawney". Last page update 25 January, 2008.

<http://www.hp-lexicon.org/wizards/trelawney.html>

²² References on the 6th book, chapters: 5th 81-102, 7th 124-147, 8th 148-162, 12th 223-241, 16th 305-326, 21th 419-438, 28th 557-569, 29th 570-589, 30th 590-607.

References on the 7th book, chapters: 4th 42-57, 5th 58-75, 7th 95-114, 8th 115-133, 9th 134-145, 11th 166-183, 22th 344-361, 25th 406-418, 31st 489-512, 33rd 529-553, 34th 554-564, 36th 580-600.

²³ Hellenica. "Nymphes". Retrieved December 22, 2011 from the World Wide Web:

<http://www.hellenica.de/Griechenland/Mythos/GR/Nymfes.html>

²⁴ Harry Potter Wiki. "Nymphadora Tonks". Retrieved December 10, 2011 from the World Wide Web:

http://harrypotter.wikia.com/wiki/Nymphadora_Tonks

²⁵ References on 7th book, chapters: 4th 42-57, 5th 58-75, 25th 406-418, 30th 474-488.

²⁶ Hellenica. "Andromeda". Retrieved December 22, 2011 from the World Wide Web:

<http://www.hellenica.de/Griechenland/Mythos/GR/Andromeda.html>

of Harry Potter, arrived at her house. There all the necessary measures of protection were taken.

- c. Andromeda Tonks is Nymphadora's mother, whose name refers to the Nymphs. Mythological Andromeda²⁷ believed herself to be as beautiful as the Nereids (Nymphs), causing Poseidon's fury. Andromeda Tonks²⁸ married Ted, born from Muggle parents. Her family, which by that time she had had good relations with, did not approve of him, as he was considered an inferior not pureblood wizard. After her marriage, her family disowned her. Both in this case and the case of Narcissa Malfoy, the association between the etymology of the word and the textual role of the heroine is indirect and exhausts itself to the beauty of Andromeda's daughter, Nymphadora.

10. *Merope Gaunt*²⁹

- a. Merope³⁰ was one of the Pleiades (Nymphs), whom she ashamed, as she married a mortal, Sisyphus. Her parents, in their anger, transformed her into the faintest star of the constellation of Pleiades. She is also referred as one of Sun's daughters. Merope³¹ was also the name of Oedipus's foster mother, who raised him with her husband Polybius. Apollo had prophesied that their son would assassinate his father, Laius, and that he would marry his mother, Iocaste, so he was bound with ropes around and was thrown down the mountainside, being considered as dead. Merope and Polybius had never mentioned to their son that he was adopted. When Oedipus

learned about the prophecy, he left his home, thinking that he would kill his "real" parents. On the road to Thebe he killed an elder, that he thought of as a traveller, who turned out to be Laius. Afterwards, arriving to Thebe, he married his own mother, Iocaste, and had children with her. At the end, he blinded himself.

- b. Merope was Voldemort's mother. She married a wealthy Muggle, having used a love potion, who abandoned her as soon as she stopped giving it to him. Merope, alone and penniless, gave birth to her son in an orphanage in London and died soon after the birth.
- c. In both occasions, Merope is the mother of powerful men. Voldemort became one of the most powerful wizards of all times and Oedipus was a revered king in Greece. Both married men beneath their social position (Muggle – mortal). Both sons committed murders. Voldemort assassinated his father, his grandparents and several other wizards. Oedipus killed his father, married his mother and had children with her, that we both his sons and his brothers. Last but not least, the destiny of both men is dictated by a prophecy. The main difference between them is that, when Oedipus discovered his heinous crimes, he exiled himself and inflicted wounds to himself, blinding himself, whereas Voldemort committed all his crimes consciously, interested only in his power and immortality.

11. *Argus Filch*³²

- a. Argus Panoptes³³ ("Argus All-Eyes") is a monster with a hundred eyes, who was set by Hera as the all-seeing watchman of Io, Zeus' lover that had been transformed into a cow. He is referred to as son of Agenoras or Arestoras and Mycenae or Inachos, the Argolis river and Gaea. Argus Panoptes can be also

²⁷ Colbert, David (2004). *The Magical Worlds of Harry Potter. A Treasury of Myths, Legends, and Fascinating Facts*. Berkley Books, p. 30.

²⁸ Harry Potter Wiki. "Andromeda Tonks". Retrieved December 22, 2011 from the World Wide Web:

http://harrypotter.wikia.com/wiki/Andromeda_Tonks

²⁹ References on 6th book, chapters: 10th 184-204, 13th 242-260.

³⁰ Mugglenet. "Name Origins". Retrieved January 12, 2012 from the World Wide Web:

http://www.mugglenet.com/books/name_origins_characters.shtml

³¹ Mugglenet. "Merope". Retrieved January 12, 2012 from the World Wide Web:

<http://www.mugglenet.com/books/merope.shtml>

³² References on 6th book, chapters: 8th 148-162, 11th 205-222, 12th 223-241, 14th 261-283, 15th 284-304, 19th 374-395, 21st 419-138, 22nd 439-459, 24th 480-499, 27th 541-556, 29th 570-589, 30th 590-607.

References on the 7th book, chapters: 29th 460-473, 30th 474-488, 31st 489-512.

³³ Roussos E. (eds). (2008) *Universal Mythology*, Athens Publishing, 2008, p. 93.

identified with the renowned hero and king of Argos, Argus, who mythologically is thought to be son of Zeus and Niobe, father of Epidauros, Tirynthe and other heroes, saviour of his country eliminating Echidna, Satyrus, Arcadian Bull and other monsters. In this occasion, there seems to be no association with Rowling's story. For further information though, mainly of the foreign readers, it is acknowledged that the name Argus is also referred to the known hero and builder of the ship "Argo", one of Frixus' sons and the legendary for his commitment Odysseus' dog.

- b. Argus Filch³⁴ is the caretaker of Hogwarts School. He is an uncommunicative, unpleasant man who despises pupils and enjoys punishing them. He lurks in the corridors of the castle, checking if the students go to prohibited areas or if they violate a rule.
- c. Argus is just like Argus the Panoptes a vigilant guardian who controls Hogwarts castle.

12. Phineas Nigellus Black³⁵

- a. According to Greek mythology, Phineas³⁶ is the son of Agenor (or Poseidon) and Cassiopeia. In the myth³⁷, Phineas was a blind oracle. He was blinded by Zeus, because he kept uncovering his intentions to people. In addition to blinding him, Zeus sent the Harpies against him, 5 birds with woman's heads, which took away his food or rendered it filthy with their excrements, so that Phineas would be always hungry. He was

cleared from this burden by the Argonauts, when they stopped there to get advice from him.

- b. Professor Phineas³⁸ was a Headmaster of Hogwarts. Phineas, although dead, as all the headmasters of Hogwarts, continues in some ways to exist. His portrait is dangling on a board in the office of the Headmaster at Hogwarts, alongside with all the previous Headmasters and another portrait of him at 12, Grimmauld Place. He can bounce around from one portrait to another. Hermione, in the seventh book, took with her the portrait from Sirius' house in order to learn from Phineas news from the school. Something that proved to be useful, as Snape could also learn news about the children.
- c. We think that the influence from the Greek mythology is considerable here, as mythological Phineas was blind, while Phineas Black in the seventh book couldn't see because Hermione put a spell on the portrait and created a black scarf that was tied around his eyes.

13. Madame Olympe Maxime³⁹

- a. Olympus⁴⁰, the highest Greek mountain, was according to the Greek mythology the residence of the Great Gods. The Twelve (Olympians or Uranian) and everyone closely related to them were residing there. Its name indicates the height and is relevant to Asgard of the Nordic mythology. Her name Olympe is the French word for the mountain Olympus. Maxime > magnus has the same stem as the Greek word meg – as (very big).
- b. Madame Maxime⁴¹ is the Headmistress of the Beauxbatons Academy of Magic located in southern France. She is half a giant and her height proves it. Madame Maxime was present at Dumbledore's

³⁴ The Harry Potter Lexicon. "Argus Filch". Last page update 5 January, 2008.

<http://www.hp-lexicon.org/wizards/filch.html>

³⁵ References on 6th book, chapters: 13th 242-260, 17th 327-349, 23th 460-479.

References on 7th book, chapters: 10th 146-165, 12th 184-202, 15th 234-254, 16th 255-269, 33rd 529-553, 26th 580-600.

³⁶ Wikipedia. "Phineas", Last page update June 15, 2012.

http://el.wikipedia.org/wiki/%CE%A6%CE%B9%CE%BD%CE%AD%CE%B1%CF%82_%28%CE%B3%CE%B9%CE%BF%CF%82_%CE%84%CE%BF%CF%85_%CE%91%CE%B3%CE%AE%CE%BD%CE%BF%CF%81%CE%B1%29

³⁷ Hellenica. "Phineas" Retrieved February 02, 2012 from the World Wide Web:

<http://www.hellenica.de/Griechenland/Mythos/GR/Fineas.html>

³⁸ The Harry Potter Lexicon. "Phineas Nigellus Black (1847-1925)". Last page update 1 January, 2008.

<http://www.hp-lexicon.org/wizards/phineasnigellus.html>

³⁹ References on the 6th book, chapters: 30th 590-607.

⁴⁰ Roussos E. (eds). (2008) Universal Mythology, Athens Publishing, p. 495-496.

⁴¹ The Harry Potter Lexicon. "Madame Olympe Maxime". Last page update 8 January, 2008.

<http://www.hp-lexicon.org/wizards/maxime.html>

funeral.

- c. Her name refers directly to her height, as she is a half giant.

14. *Alastor "Mad Eye" Moody*⁴²

- a. In Greek mythology, Alastor⁴³ was one of the epithets attributed to Zeus, which described him as the avenger of evil deeds, specifically, familial bloodshed. The name was also used by the tragic writers to designate any deity or demon who avenges inappropriate actions. It meant "him who does not forget" or the deity that punishes wrongs or, with passive meaning, him who is cursed, dirty, who suffers from divine vengeance. But it, also, meant the avenger, someone who avenges because he does not forget. Alastor, furthermore, was the son of Neleus⁴⁴, king of Pylos, and Chloris. His siblings were Pyro, Periclymenus and Nestor. Once, Heracles asked him to be absolved from a blood debt and he refused. Then, Heracles killed Neleus and his sons, except Nestor.
- b. Alastor "Mad-Eye" Moody⁴⁵ was considered one of the best Aurors of all times. He was also a member of the Order of the Phoenix. In the seventh book, it was him who organized the mission of taking Harry from his uncles' home and transporting him safely. That night, they were ambushed by the Death Eaters leading to Moody's death by Voldemort.
- c. Alastor Moody was a powerful wizard who had fought evil, namely the Death Eaters. In this case to, there is an essential correlation between etymology and textual role, as the name attributes a key characteristic of the hero, that of not forgetting, not being indifferent against evil and, on the contrary, trying

to eliminate it and avenge it.

15. *Regulus Arcturus Black*⁴⁶

- a. Arcturus⁴⁷ was a hero of the Greek mythology. He was transformed into the homonym asterism, being the brightest star in the constellation Boötes, by Zeus and was placed next to the Greater Bear, Ursa Major as its guardian (Arcturus = Guardian of the Bear"). According to various regional traditions, Arcturus was actually Arkas, who, when he was about to kill, without knowing it, his transformed –into-bear mother, was changed along with her by Zeus into a constellation (Ursa Major – Arcturus). In Latin, Regulus⁴⁸ means "small king" and that is the name of the brightest star in the constellation Leo. Regulus was also the name of a Roman consul, Marcus Atilius Regulus, known for his honour and self-sacrifice.
- b. Regulus was a Death Eater, who changed his mind after having learnt about the Horcruxes. He stole Slytherin's Locket from the cave, where Voldemort had hidden it, putting in its place a fake one with a note from R.A.B. in it. The story of this Horcrux and the mysterious R.A.B. is sorted out by the heroes in the seventh book.
- c. Regulus Arcturus Black is named after an asterism, as all the members of his family.

16. *Dedalus Diggle*⁴⁹

- a. The name Dedalus (or Daedalus) derives from the Greek mythology. Daedalus⁵⁰ was a renowned artist, skillful craftsman and instructor of methods and applications referring to architecture and sculpture, his parentage going back to the Athenian king, Erechtheus. Daedalus

⁴² References 6th book, chapters: 5th 81-102, 8th 148-162, 30th 590-607.

References 7th book, chapters: 3rd 31-41, 4th 42-57, 5th 58-75, 6th 76-9, 7th 95-114, 9th 134-145, 11th 166-183, 13th 203-220, 14th 221-233, 21st 329-343.

⁴³ Wikipedia. "Alastor". Last modified on 10 May 2012 <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Alastor>

⁴⁴ Wikipedia. "Neleus". Last modified on 17 November 2011. <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Neleus>

⁴⁵ Harry Potter Wiki. "Alastor Moody" Retrieved December 15, 2011 from the World Wide Web: http://harrypotter.wikia.com/wiki/Alastor_Moody

⁴⁶ References 6th book, chapters: 3rd 42-58, 4th 59-80, 6th 103-123, 28th 557-569, 29th 570-589, 30th 590-607.

References 7th book, chapters: 2nd 19-30, 6th 76-94, 7th 95-114, 10th 146-165, 12th 184-202, 36th 580-600.

⁴⁷ Roussos E. (eds). (2008) Universal Mythology, Athens Publishing, p. 100

⁴⁸ Harry Potter Wiki. "Regulus Black" Retrieved January 11, 2012 from the World Wide Web:

http://harrypotter.wikia.com/wiki/Regulus_Black

⁴⁹ References 7th book, chapters: 3rd 31-41, 11th 166-183.

⁵⁰ Roussos E. (eds). (2008) Universal Mythology, Athens Publishing, p. 181-183.

left Athens, as out of professional rivalry, he threw his sister's son down Acropolis. In Crete, where he was hosted by King Minos, he constructed great buildings such as the labyrinth, where Minotaur was enclosed, and the dancing circle, where Cretan maidens, with Ariadne, Minos' daughter as their leader, danced during several feasts. It is said that Daedalus fled from Crete, together with his son Icarus, with wings that he himself constructed, emulating real birds. The reason of his departure was the construction of a wooden cow, which helped Minos' wife, Pasiphae, copulate with Poseidon's Taurus or, in another version, because he had revealed to Ariadne the secret of the labyrinth.

- b. Dedalus Diggle⁵¹ was a member of the Order of the Phoenix. In the seventh installment of the series, Dedalus escorted Vernon, Petunia and Dudley into a safe house, when they had to leave their house.
- c. The case of Dedalus Diggle is one of those where a direct etymological correlation between the name and the textual function of the hero is not found. Nevertheless, this does not stop the hero from drawing validity out of the origin of the name and, in the same time, making it easier for the name to be imprinted in the mind of the reader through the timelessness of its significance. Whichever intertextual nuances are created serve exactly the recognizance it offers.

17. Ariana Dumbledore⁵²

- a. Ariana is the Italian version of the Greek name Ariadne, which in ancient Cretan meant "totally pure". It may be related to the Welsh word "arian" that means "silver". Ariadne⁵³ was the Minoan goddess of vegetation, who the myth wants as a Cretan heroine, daughter of

King Minos and Pasiphae, sister of Faedra, mistress of Theseus, wife of god Dionysus and mother of Evanthis, Staphylus, Oinopionas, Thoantas, Tauropolis and Latramis. According to the myth, Ariadne helped Theseus kill the Minotaur, thus saving his homeland from its subordination to Crete. She supplied him with a ball of yarn, whose edge Theseus, following her advice, attached to the entrance of the Labyrinth, Minotaur's residence, thus being able to emerge unscathed in the end. Ariadne followed Theseus on his flight from Crete and united with him, when their ship moored to the island Dia, which later was named Naxos. Ariadne that night lost Theseus, who left for Athens abandoning her there.

- b. Ariana Dumbledore⁵⁴ was the youngest child of Percival and Kendra, Albus' and Amberforth's sister. An event, when she was six years old, traumatised her rendering her powers unstable and uncontrollable. Her family tried to keep Ariana hidden. During a fit when she was fourteen years old, Ariana caused a magical explosion that killed her mother, after which her older brother Albus became her guardian. Her death was the result of an accident. During the duel between her brothers and Grindelwald, Albus' friend, a spell, unknown whose, hit Ariana.
- c. Ariana⁵⁵, who had a difficult short life followed by a tragic death, constitutes in Rowling's novel world an example of purity, being associated with the name's etymology to the ancient Cretan dialect.

18. Katie Bell⁵⁶

- a. Katie comes from Katherine, which derives from the Greek name Hekaterini, from the ancient goddess Hecate⁵⁷. It

⁵¹ Harry Potter Wiki. "Dedalus Diggle". Retrieved December 13, 2011 from the World Wide Web: http://harrypotter.wikia.com/wiki/Dedalus_Diggle

⁵² References on 7th book, chapters: 2nd 19-30, 8th 115-133, 11th 166-183, 16th 255-269, 18th 287-295, 28th 447-459, 29th 460-473, 35th 565-579.

⁵³ Roussos E. (eds). (2008) Universal Mythology, Athens Publishing. p. 97-98.

⁵⁴ Harry Potter Wiki. "Ariana Dumbledore". Retrieved January 17, 2012 from the World Wide Web:

http://harrypotter.wikia.com/wiki/Ariana_Dumbledore

⁵⁵ Harry Potter Wiki. "Ariana Dumbledore". Retrieved January 17, 2012 from the World Wide Web:

http://harrypotter.wikia.com/wiki/Ariana_Dumbledore

⁵⁶ References 6th book, chapters: 9th 163-183, 11th 205-222, 12th 223-241, 13th 242-260, 14th 261-283, 18th 350-373, 19th 374-395, 24th 480-499, 27th 541-556.

References 7th book, chapters: 30th 474-488.

⁵⁷ Roussos E. (eds). (2008) Universal Mythology, Athens

may be related with the ancient Greek word “aekia”, meaning torture, and martyr. Hecate was a goddess with a wide cult among the lower classes, with characteristics relevant to the worship of Luna and Artemis. She was considered to be the patron of unprotected places, night travellers and witches and her parentage presents her as the daughter of the Titans Perses and Asteria. Hecate was strongly related with wizardry, especially the night activity of witches, and she was thought to control the world of ghosts and malicious creatures of the night, which harm people. As the keeper of these forces, Hecate was bound to prevent their possible adverse activity, that being the reason why people worshipped her.

- b. Katie⁵⁸, student at Hogwarts, was hit in the sixth book by a curse, as soon as she touched an Opal Necklace. She was in grave danger and was admitted for a long time into St. Mungo’s Hospital. In the seventh book, she fought against Death Eaters.
- c. Katie was tortured during the sixth book from a curse that fell upon her when she touched a cursed necklace. Here we can find a relation between her name and the ancient Greek word “aekia”, meaning torture, but also with magic (cursed necklace).

19. Oliver Wood⁵⁹

- a. Oliver comes from the English word olive. The Greeks considered the olive tree⁶⁰ as a priceless gift to humanity. Symbol of peace, prosperity, winning, protection and fertility. Symbol of Sports, Civilisation and Environment. All the Olympic medalists took as their highest price an olive branch and wreath, called “cotinus”. It is said that inside the temple

of Hera in Ancient Olympia, Heracles planted an olive tree, whose branches were used in order to make the “cotinus”. The olive tree was also the sacred tree of Athens. According to mythology, goddess Athena offered the olive tree to Athenians as a symbol of fertility, in order to gain their favour in the contest she had with God Poseidon to determine whose name was going to be given to the city.

- b. Oliver⁶¹ studied at Hogwarts. On May 1998 he returned to Hogwarts in order to take part in the Final Battle of Hogwarts among old classmates and friends. He is a Quidditch player (he occupies a position similar to the goalkeeper in football terms) and he gets into professional sports.
- c. The author aptly attributes the name associated with the olive tree to her hero – athlete as to emphasize his positive character and generally the symbol of the athletic archetype. Besides with the cotinus, an olive wreath, Olympic medalists in ancient Greece were pointed out, creating many and interesting legends.

20. Scorpius Hyperion Malfoy⁶²

- a. According to Greek mythology, the myth of scorpion is relevant to that of Orion⁶³. Orion was a giant renowned for his beauty and art of hunting with a bronze club. He was the son of Poseidon and Euryale, daughter of Minos, King of Crete. According to the myth, Orion was in Crete where he hunted with the goddess Artemis and her mother Leto. In the course of the hunt, he threatened to kill every beast on Earth, so Mother Earth objected and sent a giant scorpion to kill Orion. The creature succeeded, biting him in his heels. After his death, the goddesses Leto and Artemis asked Zeus to honour the young man, so he placed Orion among the constellations. Zeus consented and, as a memorial to

Publishing, p. 216-218.

⁵⁸ Harry Potter Wiki. “Katie Bell”. Retrieved January 14, 2012 from the World Wide Web:

http://harrypotter.wikia.com/wiki/Katie_Bell

⁵⁹ References 6th book, chapters: 19th 374-395.

References 7th book, chapters: 30th 474-488, 34th 554-564.

⁶⁰Valaes. “The olive tree and its symbolism”. Retrieved February 04, 2012 from the World Wide Web:

http://www.valaes.gr/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=59&Itemid=80&lang=el

⁶¹ Harry Potter Wiki. “Oliver Wood”. Retrieved January 14, 2012 from the World Wide Web:

http://harrypotter.wikia.com/wiki/Oliver_Wood

⁶² References 7th book, chapters: 37th 603-607.

⁶³Roussos E. (eds). (2008) Universal Mythology, Athens Publishing. p. 621-622.

the hero's death, added the Scorpion to the heavens as well. Hyperion⁶⁴ was one of the twelve Titans of Ancient Greece, children of Gaea and Uranus, who were later brought aside by the Olympian Gods.

- b. Scorpius⁶⁵ is Draco Malfoy's and Astoria Greengrass' son. His name, Scorpius, is the Latin word for scorpion. There is a constellation bearing the same name. His second name, Hyperion, means high, senior. One of Saturn's moons bears the same name.
- c. Scorpius, Draco's son, is a relative of the Black family and it seems that his parents followed the custom of the family, giving their son a name associated with a constellation. In this case too, there is a more indirect relationship between the hero's name and the etymological origin of the word.

21. Holyhead Harpies⁶⁶

- a. Harpies⁶⁷ were women with bronze wings, claws and crooked beaks. They are also presented as female monsters with beautiful hair and fast wings, daughters of Thaumias and the sea nymph Electra, sisters of the messenger of Gods, Iris. Their name derives from the Greek word "arpagi – arpax – arpazo" (snatching – snatcher – snatch). When someone suddenly disappeared from the face of the earth, it was said that the Harpies took him away. Harpies were supposed to take away the kids and men's souls. That is why they were depicted on graves holding the dead person's psyche in their claws. Others claim that Harpies chased and caught criminals to be punished by the Erinyes.

- b. Holyhead Harpies⁶⁸ is a Quidditch team that takes part in the English and Ireland Championship. This particular team consists only of women players.
- c. Holyhead Harpies is a well-matching name for a purely female team. Their wings are associated with the broomsticks that the team used while playing.

22. Death⁶⁹

- a. According to Greek mythology and Hesiod's Theogony, Death⁷⁰ is a god, twin brother of Hypnos (Sleep) and son of Nyctia (Night). Both reside to Tartara or Hades and Sun never sees them. Death, in contrast to Hypnos, has a heart of iron, keeps forever with him whoever he meets and is hated by gods and men. Death is a figure that gets confused with Hades, even with Hermes as soul escort. The ancients depicted him, as well as his brother, as a young man with a beard, wings on their shoulders and carrying a sword. In most depictions, they are shown together, escorting the dead to Hades. Few things are known for his worship, because Death neither wants nor accepts gifts. There is no hymn or temple for him. There are a lot of myths though where a hero fights against Death or Hades and others where someone using treachery fools him. Such a myth is that of Sisiphus⁷¹. According to the legend, Zeus, for revenge, asked Pluto to send Death and get him, he though managed to chain him, thus resulting to no deaths for some time, up until Ares freed him. Sisiphus, being prisoner of Death, did not give in, ordering his wife Merope not to offer him any honours given to the dead. Thus, pretending to be furious with his wife, asked Persephone to let him returned to earth for a little while, to punish her and, after succeeding

⁶⁴ Wikipedia. "Hyperion (mythology)". Retrieved December 28, 2011 from the World Wide Web:

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hyperion_%28mythology%29

⁶⁵ Harry Potter Wiki. "Scorpius Malfoy". Retrieved December 28, 2011 from the World Wide Web:

http://harrypotter.wikia.com/wiki/Scorpius_Malfoy

⁶⁶ References 6th book, chapter: 4th 59-80, 7th 124-147, 14th 261-283.

References 7th book, chapters: 7th 95-114.

⁶⁷ Greek Myth Index. "Harpyiae". Retrieved January 27, 2012 from the World Wide Web:

<http://www.mythindex.com/greek-mythology/H/Harpyiae.html>

⁶⁸ Harry Potter Wiki. "Holyhead Harpies". Retrieved January 26, 2012 from the World Wide Web:

http://harrypotter.wikia.com/wiki/Holyhead_Harpies

⁶⁹ References 7th book, chapters: 21th 329-343.

⁷⁰ Roussos E. (eds). (2008) Universal Mythology, Athens Publishing p. 308-309.

⁷¹ Roussos E. (eds). (2008) Universal Mythology, Athens Publishing, p. 569.

obtaining the permission, he naturally chose to remain on earth. Sisyphus, however, is the example of eternal condemnation. When he finally died, he was condemned to push a rock up to a steep hill and just as he reaches the top, the rock rolls down the hill, obliging Sisyphus to restart the same action infinitely.

- b. Death⁷² is a character that appears in The Tale of the Three Brothers. He is described as an imposing figure with a hood and black cloak. A character that does not stand losing. He also seems to be rather devious.
- c. In the Tale of the Three Brothers we see Ignotus Peverell fooling Death and asking him as a gift to leave without the latter following him. Death reluctantly gives him his own Invisibility Cloak and Ignotus, staying hidden under, manages to escape Death. When he grows old, he gives the cloak to his son and meets Death as equal. In Sisyphus' myth, we see Sisyphus managing to escape death one way or another.

3. Conclusions

1. If though it should be explored in all her books, but also in more areas, e.g. in mythological patterns, in "magical" properties and magical objects, in beasts and beings, it is obvious that Rowling has a wide knowledge of the ancient Greek mythology. And in fact she uses the myths, not just as fairy tales, but as reasons, advice, orders, opinions etc., as Homer, their first big user has already done (H358, M80, E127, E493, I645 etc.), invoking to the linguistic root of the word myth, the words deriving mystery, myst etc.. The author exploits the Greek ancient mythology in the best way, both in literary and pedagogical ways, through her work which satisfy both the literary need for emotion, excitement and adventure, but at the same time and the

pedagogical need for education, as they combine didactic and ethical truths.

2. Many times, Rowling seems to exploit perfectly the aforementioned knowledge, taking advantage of the educational value of the myths. It draws through the association between the etymology of her heroes' and heroine' name and their textual function universal moralistic values and characteristics that the ancient Greek spirit promoted, as the acceptance of the foreign and by extension hospitality (Xenophilus Lovegood), purity (Ariana Dumbledore), athletic virtues (Oliver Good), fighting mood and positive thinking along with intelligence and fluency (Hermione Jean Granger), refusal of and non – oblivion towards evil intertwined with demanding the right in the name of the weak (Alastor "Mad-Eye" Moody), tragedy of human existence (Merope Gaunt). But at the same time she sears excesses and incorrect conduct in other personages, like the excessive love for beauty in a narcissistic level (Narcissa Malfoy) and the exceedingly strict punishment (Alecto Carrow and Amycus Carrow).

The writer organizes a fictional world where co-exist references to constellations (Sirius Black, Regulus Arcturus Black, Scorpius Hyperion Malfoy), oracle powers (Sibyll Patricia Trelawney), magical powers (Holyhead Harpies), beauty (Nymphadora Tonks and Andromeda Tonks), martyr situations (Katie Bell), vigilant guards (Argus Filch), desire for life and "fooling" of Death (Death).

In several cases though whether she knows some myths in depth or, and that seems more likely, she does not seek a full meaningful association of her heroes' name and their textual function, she gives prestige and recognisability to her heroes and heroines, creating to her readers a feeling of significance through whichever intertextual references the reader makes (Phineas Nigellus Black, Dedalus Diggle).

3. Once again the pattern of authors who draw upon themes and patterns of the

⁷² Harry Potter Wiki. "Death (The tale of the Three Brothers)". Retrieved February 07, 2012 from the World Wide Web:
http://harrypotter.wikia.com/wiki/Death_%28The_Tale_of_the_Three_Brothers%29

ancient Greek mythology emerges. From Homer, Pindarus and Vakchylides, Aeschylus, Sofocles and Euripides, Vocaccio, Schiller, Goethe to the most important of the last two centuries, including Rowling, they manage to take advantage of its mythical figures and present them in such a vivid and understandable manner, that even though they are not models of behaviour, they become models of humanism in its most authentic form.

4. Regardless of any literary selections, however important they might be, emphasis is place on the importance of ancient Greek mythology and mythology on its own in general. Besides, according to Levi – Strauss' theory of structuralism, not only the man" creates" the myths, but also the myths create human intelligence. One could argue that the French sociological school of thought is here confirmed, the one that considers that the myths belong to the symbolic level of communication and that they organise the elements of communication, the way language does too. One of its more prominent representatives, Marcel Mauss, by using his anthropological method, exceeds the boundaries of a particular community, namely the ancient Greek, and searches for universal values in them.

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SEVEN LANGUAGES ONE POEM: POETRY AS LEAVEN FOR MULTI / INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION

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Abstract

It's well known that the folk-song, the ballade "Tou nekrou adelfou" in Greek version, is a common property in Balkan people's culture. Nowadays, we all have experienced that multicultural and intercultural education means different things to different people. In our presentation we intend to show how Poetry could be used as leaven for multi/intercultural education. The inter-textual approach of this teaching material (Seven Languages one Poem, that is to say different national languages but one international poem) will provide us a model or a frame for multi/intercultural education. The historical and geographical context, which is reflected in the main theme of the poem, is this in which Balkan people live, that is to say work and live in a foreign country. The main goals will be: Outline common thoughts and feelings of Balkan people in common historical situations that cross national borders: living abroad, living in family, love of family's members. Accept otherness (cultural pluralism). Subvert, in schools of Balkan countries and all over the world, the strong feeling of "xenitia" and convert it into feeling of "xenia", because of neighborhood and common cultural conditions, values, attitudes, beliefs and behaviours but also now because of the mondialisation of the economy. Avoid immigration.

Keywords: *multi/intercultural education, literacy, cultural pluralism, reader response's lecture, immigration*

1. Introduction

The Balkan people's intellectual and artistic creation, influenced by common history (trade, language, culture, etc.), has created a common cultural tradition. One of those artistic creations is the folk-song, the ballade "The song of the dead brother" ("Tou nekrou adelfou", in Greek version), which the Balkan people said dramatically in all languages of the peninsula and others Europeans in their languages too; hereby the title of this paper.¹

The anonymous poet of the folk-song

¹ The reader can find the folk-song, translated in Greek, in all Balkan languages, also bibliographical sources for it, in *Aimos, Anthology of Balkan Poetry*, (2006), the friends of the review "Anti", Athens. *Αίμος, Ανθολογία βαλκανικής ποίησης*, (2006), Οι φίλοι του περιοδικού «Αντί», Αθήνα.

narrates the story of a family of nine sons and a daughter. When the only daughter gets married and goes to live abroad, an epidemic kills all the sons and then the mother asks from one of her dead sons to bring back her daughter. The son Konstantis arises from his tomb and brings back the dear daughter to her mother.

The poem puts in an emotional and dramatic mode the compound problem of the emigration, that is to say living abroad, being a foreigner, and the problem of the marginalization and alienation. The poem, by narrating the aforementioned question in an absurd mode, submits the reader to the ideas that nothing values more in the world than living in family, with the close relatives, with the love of mother and brothers, and rejects emigration and separation of dear persons –but we know that, all over the world, emigration and working abroad is a social phenomenon which has characterized ancient and modern societies. However, the truth that the popular verse says is valid: “The live separation has not words of comfort”, which dynamically places, as the folk-song does, the aforementioned question in our contemporary societies.

On the other hand, in catharsis, by the death of mother and daughter in the end of the story, it is submitted to the reader that nothing is possible to substitute the intimate, the well known and anyone’s lived experience and culture, which is an inalienable value. The triumph of love in the story emphasizes the dynamic relation between anything we have personally experienced, the live experience and the reality. “Anything we don’t love, doesn’t exist”, has written the Greek poet Palamas (Palamas 1964). If we turn it into “anything we love, it exists”, we underline the necessity of right in lived experiences and culture, in all those we lived and which deserve as nothing in the world to be kept. In the same time we put the values of democracy and equal opportunities for a radical intercultural education.

The poem neither suggests nor proposes any solutions for the well known and the worldwide contemporary problem of immigration and diversity, as many novels in Children’s Literature do by forming viewpoints of intercultural consciousness, that is to say to form the self or/and the otherness (Akritopoulos 2008). Nevertheless it yields, by the re-establishment of catharsis, the power of love and the power of

promise –even in an absurd way, but for the poetic art in a very significant mode. In conclusion, the song submits lived experiences, attitudes and behaviors towards the compound problem of emigration, by rejecting the alienation of human.

2. The recontextualisation of the poetical meaning in the contemporary education

Today, in the beginning of the 21st century, a period which had followed all big emigrations of the 20th century in Europe, America and Australia and all significant social paradigms of cultural pluralism which had been created in the entire world and the educational system of each country had confronted, we are in a new worldwide situation.

So the poetic text, in the contemporary occurrence (wars, immigration, epidemic, diseases, globalization of the economy, economic crisis), could be the subject of a new opportune approach, by the universality and the vitality of the poetic language which characterizes it. That is to say, it is possible, by his dramatic personae, the events, and their symbolisms (mother and daughter symbolize dynamically the live reality, the power of love, the well known, the lived experience and lived culture as unalienated values) the poem from language-agent to become language target for an intercultural education; since in many countries and of course in Greece too the education has not lost until now its monocultural character, as Greek researchers remark,² (Georgiadis & Zisimos 2012), in spite of the attempts of the curricula to promote the values and the targets of

² As Fokion Georgiadis and Apostolos Zisimos remark “On the contrary, the Greek State, even after the having the experience of so many years of operation of schools for certain ethnic, linguistic and cultural groups, showed an inexcusable reluctance to promote measures that would alter the monolithic structuring of its education system. There is the fear that “*the provisions of the new Act might lead to ghetto-schools, reinforce segregation and nurture socio-political racism in Greece*” (Damanakis, 1998, p.87).” Migrants’, Refugees’ and Minorities’ Children in European Education: the Greek Experience. In Cultural and Linguistic Diversity in the Greek Education. Retrieved September 9, 2012 from the World Wide Web: <http://www.google.gr/search?q>

³ There are differences of content in the above used terms. As I know the similarities and the differences between them, I use them either conjunctively or disjunctively in the text in order to show to the reader that they are not synonymous.

multiculturalism and intercultural education in schools.

The live mode in which the popular song of Balkans puts this compound social and psychological phenomenon, therefore must be the main target of a multicultural and intercultural education of the countries of the peninsula and not only in them. This last contemporary educational perspective, from curricula of the monocultural education, would pivot to a philosophy of a profound educational reformation which wouldn't content in interferences on valid curricula but in a radical transformation of the educational system (curricula, school-handbooks, teaching strategies, and teacher's education) in perspective to change the society, as thoroughly order the international academic research of multicultural or intercultural education.

For the Greek or for any other educational system it is not enough to simply accept the cultural pluralism, the variety of human cultures (beliefs, behaviors, perceptions, thoughts, attitudes, etc.). Since all notions of multicultural or intercultural education share until now the intention to incorporate cultural pluralism and social difference to the educational process, as the special researcher in Unesco Viola Georgi remarks, it is necessary that this will be done in a critical way (Viola 2008); that is to say this will be an educational transformation. An educational transformation, which would promote the critical intercultural education and not only would be open to the otherness, but would incorporate every principle, like recognition, equal opportunities, and social justice. Therefore the strange would become familiar, the alien ours, the foreigner the other our self, and substantially speaking this critical intercultural education would tend (to) abolish the sense of otherness, etc., as in the song all these notions but also human feelings are removed by the re-establishment each defectiveness, each sense of alienation, of weakness, marginalization and alienation. Also, intercultural education must be surveyed and guided by critical pedagogy, so as to become a critical intercultural education, to become a new "intercultural approach, which will get over the contradictions and partialities of the dominant multicultural language, by keeping always in mind the social, political, economic and cultural terms of formation of the identity." (Maniatis 2006).

3. The symbolic meaning, the pragmatic values and the teaching experience

The teacher must think and act as the unknown Balkan poet does. He must, by his teaching language and his strategy in classroom, reject the existence of otherness and of any cultural difference as permanent and monolithic situations, because they are outside of us; also, the teacher must bring into notice that otherness comes from outside and nests into us. Therefore he must point out, by the preparation of his lessons from History, Literature, Music, etc., that notions as "living abroad" and "foreigner" are not permanent conditions and concern all countries and every man; they exist and are developed inside every one of us, independently of nationality, race and religion, because they are constructed in different periods of time from social groups for various political, economic and religious reasons. As social situations are created under concrete historical and political conditions and as feelings are constructed and they are lived differently by anyone man. As today happens to young Greeks or Spanish graduates, who emigrate in Germany, while their parents and grandfathers in the decades of fifty's and sixty's were almost illiterate. And, it is also reasonable that those young aren't consoled with the songs of living abroad by Kazantzidis performance, but it is certain that they experience the same feelings of failing, of discouragement and defectiveness.

The teacher must demonstrate to his pupils and students that any man who is called foreigner is by virtue the other myself, because anyone who is today native tomorrow it is possible to be a foreigner in an other city or an other country in Balkans or all over the world. So, nowadays pupils or students in classrooms and also young workers wouldn't live and experience what the Greek popular verse says very eloquently: "In a foreign land I am Greek and in Greece a foreigner". The teacher, by his teaching strategies, must demonstrate that the foreigner has not an ontological substance; and also he must teach to his students that the man, who is a foreigner here, for a group of population, is not a foreigner elsewhere and vice-versa, because he has not stable and constant characteristic points.

Today, like in the past, a pupil or a student

who lives the consequences of the migration of his parents and he resides far “away from his own land” (Seferis 1964), in a classroom with foreign language pupils (what if his or her name is Areti or Konstantis, Konstantis and Thokina, Lazar and Petkana, Konstantis or Voika, Jovan and Jelitsa, as they are named in the poem) he mustn’t feel weak, victim of racial aggressiveness or xenophobic violation, as elegantly Maria Piliotou describes all these situations and behaviors of schoolboys and schoolgirls in her novel for young readers *The trees which run*, (Akritopoulos 2004 & 2008). However, as Fokion Georgiadis and Apostolos Zisimos have demonstrated in their research with the paradigm of Greece concerning the children of immigrants, refugees and minority groups in European education, they have many difficulties not only in thoroughly learning the language but also in learning the culture of the country which they live in, because they are in a lifelong inner conflict, by living between two cultures, one in school and another in house.

The educational system should follow not only the international academic discussion about multicultural or intercultural education, but apply at least its fundamental and essential principles; that is to say, should respect the native language and culture of the others, emigrants, refugees or ethnic minority groups. Therefore a pupil or a student either, native or immigrant, etc., by the application of the fundamental ideas, notions and values of a critical pedagogy of peace, could well understand that otherness is constructed in the same mode for all of us.

4. Conclusion

The role of Literature in the above described education perspective, as I believe became clear, is very significant. The Balkan pupil, like every other in the planet, I think and I believe that will better understand the other and himself with the presentation of similarities and differences between different cultures. And here we have insisted on similarities, because of the geographical neighborhood of our countries and peoples. By a critical approach of poetic texts, pupils acquire critical attitudes to the stereotypes and prejudices or bias for the other (Ampatzopoulou 1998), while in parallel become conscious of their responsibilities towards the

other, because today all of us we live in multicultural societies without borders.

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SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES OF SEVERAL BALKAN LANGUAGES

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Abstract

The development of the verbal categories associated with the relationship between the speaker and the information conveyed through the message, i.e., the verb forms such as the Albanian admirative and the renarration in the Macedonian language, which are viewed as the grammatical opposition of subordination / coordination, have never been considered in the classical catalogue of balkanisms. Apart from this, in comparison with the more obvious occurrences, such as the definite particle, the morphology of the future, as well as the numbers, this grammatical category is more subtle and more difficult to determine. This is proved by the fact that in the beginnings of the modern tradition of the Albanian and Macedonian language grammar these forms and meanings have not been recorded, whereas there is a development of an immense secondary literature related to these problems. The Albanian admirative and similar occurrences in the Slavic languages are more typical of the spoken language than the written language, especially in the formal and narrative styles. The Albanian language, maybe more than any other European language, has been regarded throughout the centuries as the most vital part of the people's endurance, as an expression of the culture, but also as an identifier of their being. The well-known researcher from Kosovo, Rexhep Ismajli says that the language is sometimes absolute and identified with the being, and sometimes considered as a function of the human kind among the many other functions being performed in the life of a society.

Keywords: *verbal categories, the Albanian admirative, balkanisms, sterile languages, modern literary language*

1. Similarities and differences of several Balkan languages

A lot has been said and written about the literary and artistic values of Ismail Kadare. The reason has always been and remains the pleasure that the reader feels by the style and linguistic form offered by the intellectual creation of the artist.

He writes in standard literary language, abiding by the orthographic and grammatical norms of the modern literary Albanian language, like many other Albanian writers.

2. Grammatical categories of verb observed by literary creations of Kadare

The development of the verbal categories associated with the relationship between the speaker and the information conveyed through the message, i.e., the verb forms such as the Albanian admirative and the renarration in the Macedonian language, which are viewed as the grammatical opposition of subordination / coordination, have never been considered in the classical catalogue of balkanisms. Apart from this, in comparison with the more obvious occurrences, such as the definite particle, the morphology of the future, as well as the numbers, this grammatical category is more subtle and more difficult to determine. This is proved by the fact that in the beginnings of the modern tradition of the Albanian and Macedonian language grammar these forms and meanings have not been recorded, whereas there is a development of an immense secondary literature related to these problems. The Albanian admirative and similar occurrences in the Slavic languages are more typical of the spoken language than the written language, especially in the formal and narrative styles.

3. Verbal system in Macedonian language, similarities and differences with Albanian language

The system of the Macedonian verb is one of the most complex systems in the Slavic linguistic world. It is a common knowledge that the Macedonian language has preserved, although with a different meaning, the past definite tense from the Old Slavonic language. The change in meaning possibly originates from the tendencies existing in the Old Slavonic language. The difference between the Aorist and the Imperfect Tense is only aspectual, therefore they can be treated as a single category, i.e., past definite tense regardless of whether it is aorist or imperfect. In this respect, the past definite tense is opposed to the past indefinite tense. Not only does the *determination* differentiate the past definite form from the past indefinite tense, but also the fact that the past definite tense is used for an action witnessed by the speaker, while the past indefinite tense is used for an action that is not confirmed, i.e., the speaker only claims that it has happened. Therefore, the past definite

tense is used for direct narration, while the past indefinite tense is used for renarration. Although the past indefinite tense can be used for direct narration, the past definite tense can not be used for renarration without the speaker's confirmation.

4. Kadare's contribution to the enrichment of the Albanian language

Ismail Kadare is constantly forming words, eager to create new words. A special emphasis should be placed on the fact that Kadare, at his mature period of writing or at the top of his creation, revisited his previous works to linguistically revise them in terms of the samples and his new way of word formation and as a true linguistic aim, not merely a matter of style.

The thousands of pages in Kadare's literary works, most of whose themes have been subject to workmanship, have been supported by thousands of archive pages in the home and foreign libraries, being used to make them more precise, shaped, well-weaved, rich in all the courses in the Albanian language, admired, and as a teacher to the readers, a friend of the literary art. Every honest reader will most certainly be incited in any creative or impressive field, by the numerous areas considered in the research.

In this linguistic research of his complete prose creation, the different grammatical forms and their role formed by Kadare's pen are clearly visible, elevating the Albanian literature everywhere in the world, in terms of lexis and style, therefore making Kadare the honor of the people at international level; not only do the Albanian speakers in his works live and breathe throughout all the continents in the world, but also his ego, his mind and his work have placed him among the most famous and most appreciated writers in over forty countries in the world. Kadare is in the hands of millions of readers. Each reader speaking a different language has knowledge of these people's age, their language, the tradition, history, endurance and their survival throughout the centuries, has knowledge of their spiritual culture, their peace-loving nature, their art, ethnography, laws, heroes, vows, psychology and the many other areas mentioned or discussed in the literary creation of the wise Kadare.

The Albanian language, maybe more than

any other European language, has been regarded throughout the centuries as the most vital part of the people's endurance, as an expression of the culture, but also as an identifier of their being. The well-known researcher from Kosovo, Rexhep Ismajli says that the language is sometimes absolute and identified with the being, and sometimes considered as a function of the human kind among the many other functions being performed in the life of a society.

In his first poem, "*Mundja e ballkanasve në Fushën e Kosovës më 1389*" (The Defeat of the Balkans in the Kosovo Field in 1389) Kadare identifies the nations with their languages, i.e., identifies the national being with the language, which is a being in itself. Therefore, the battle in Kosovo is conceptualized as a battle of many languages, as a battle of coalition, where the nations identify themselves through their languages and this multilingualism might be the reason for the loss of the battle – the disagreement. In this entanglement of languages and nations the occurrences are more distinctive (the spirit and soul of things). In this tense situation, when no one knows what to do, the Balkan people who are neither in Europe nor in Asia, or who have crossed over from Europe to Asia have been left with an unfortunate destiny: they become *sterile languages*.

It is natural that the contribution of every great writer to his own mother tongue cannot be regarded otherwise but related to the artistic values of the works he creates. It means that the love for the people, their language and culture dissolves in the dedication and the responsibility he feels for the language and culture, in his work to enrich and beautify the language, to sharpen it further with the main means of expression in literature.

When considering the language in Ismail Kadare's works and the modern literary Albanian language, we must mention his concept of the language as a unit distinguishing nations, the language of artistic creation and the huge responsibility of the writer, the values and the large gain he provided in the formation of a common literary language which is the same for all Albanians, in and outside the Republic of Albania.

Undoubtedly, Kadare is the author who often spoke and wrote about the Albanian language, whether it was in his literary works about the language, in his prose and poetry, as well as

different articles and interviews. He has always maintained an active and lively attitude, always defending the Albanian language. His opinion is that *the war between the languages is no less unfortunate than the war between people*.

From the syntactic aspect of Kadare's language, we can use Chekhov's expression: "*These long complex sentences create the power of impression.*"

Chekhov's expression is true and we should be convinced that Kadare is a great writer as well as all the other writers who create such phrases (complex sentences), consisting of thirteen or more verbs. These phrases are a persuasive proof that Kadare has a strong expression in style and art, since these sentences leave an impression on every reader and researcher. In such sentences there is no change in the tone, rhythm nor the vocal harmony in the verses (the melody), there is no musical element. It is without a finished rhythm, since there are signs of the beginning of a new sentence. There are many conjunctions such as: *që, dhe, pasi, se*; the pronouns: *tij, vetes, sime, më* (short forms), *unë, çdokush*; the adverbs: *në qoftë se* (its semantics is for cause but to the interrogative pronoun); the verb *qoftë* (means blessing), as well as, (*me qenë*); there is the conjunction *se* (cause) etc.; the adverb of place *këtu* (adverbial phrase), is an attached pronoun, but also the interrogative pronoun (*afëri*), there are also the spoken variants of *aty* - Kosovo; there is the repetition of the word *një* (as a defining particle), with an expressive meaning, (no removal), while a sentence built with this word has an offensive meaning, etc. The formation of these sentences requires knowledge and linguistic skills, workmanship and strength of expression, and since the rhythm of speaking is flowing, the phrases have no complete meaning and grammatical relations, this type of phraseology is asyndetic. (ASHRSH 1997: 424-425)

In Kadare's prose the national literary Albanian language has been fully employed, its defining boundaries are open like no other place, precise in the completeness of his prose works. He wrote just like it is determined at the Orthographical Congress of the Albanian language (20 – 25 November 1972 in Tirane).

The literary creation of Kadare in the field of prose is much more profitable in terms of expanding the Albanian literary standard language, not only in the appearance of

standardized criteria, but also in its value to enrich and develop the lexis in literary aspect. Kadare's prose informs the reader with a variety of topics discussed in so much detail, as well as brings the passionate reader a linguistic refreshment, enriched with new words, chosen words, suitable in meaning and strong in expression and enriched with sufficient new words in the field of declination and conjugation.

The basic features of the modern literary language have been expressed in the sole dedication as a moral rule in the unification of the language, and as a highly appreciated value in the works of Kadare.

At the end of this study of the linguistic aspect of Kadare's literary works, as is evident from the title itself *"The verb in the translated works of Ismail Kadare from Albanian into Macedonian"*, it is clearly visible that Kadare's literary works belong to all language sites where this language is spoken and heard. The help of any other famous writer, such as Kadare himself, in his works on the mother tongue, cannot be regarded any differently than inseparable from the cradle of artistic values of these people's lexis. His work is clearly noticeable; his inclination towards the people, the language and culture and all of his values are increasing, taking prominent forms in the field of dedication and responsibility opposed to the debt that this people's son feels. Exploring Kadare's works we notice the effort he makes to enrich and improve the language, to make it more precise with the variety in terms of the uniqueness of the word, the meaning and the expressive sharpness which is of his seed; in brief, Kadare creates with his basis the modern standard Albanian language.

Kadare has interest and passion for language, since he is responsible for his role and principles, for the meaning and value that the language has, because the rich language with his rhythm and melody makes the people well-known among the other civilized nations. Kadare appreciates the modern Albanian language in his works, convinced that the language has never had such easiness and expressive beauty, with a vocal and easy melodic accent. It has never had this firm base, principal and nationwide, and above all with a national value in its motto: unified language – unified nation. (Koiçiçi, Abedin 2004: 598) That is its brilliant value which was not there before. Kadare sows healthy seeds in each of his works, appreciated by present and

future generations. The author is convinced that the present and future generations will accept the responsibilities of the standardized language.

The verb as a syntactic part is considered by the verb themes, the acquired verbs, the verb suffixes according to the conjugation, the verb formation with prefixes, with the more and less profitable prefixes, as well as the verb suffixes. The verbs formed by both prefixes and suffixes have also been considered, as well as the verb without any additions. The complex verbs are also present in Kadare's works. This part of the Albanian language lexis has also been treated as the affixed verbs, with one exception, that of the complex verbs that are neologisms, and are separated, since they are not in the Dictionary of the modern Albanian language.

The impression of Ismail Kadare's literary works is, in fact, an impression of our beloved and immortal language.

Kadare's language spreads everywhere where the bread is called bread (bukës bukë) and the water is called water (ujit ujë).

Hopefully, this study and the persistence of this incentive will serve the students and teachers of the Albanian language and Albanian literature. Their evaluation and criticism will be an incentive for other such books.

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SOME ASPECTS CONCERNING THE BILINGUAL STATE OF THE VLACH COMMUNITY FROM KORCE AREA

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Abstract

The present article aims at presenting several linguistic aspects at the lexical level concerning the bilingual state of the Vlach community living in Korce, Albania. The study is based on field research and recording of spoken texts with Vlachs from urban and rural environment: the city of Korce and several communes surrounding it. This paper offers a general view of the situation, analysing the interference of the Vlach idiom with the Albanian language in terms of borrowings and code switching phenomena.

Keywords: *bilingualism, linguistic interference, borrowings, code switching*

1. Introduction

The present paper aims to highlight various aspects of the phenomenon of bilingualism in the Aromanian community in Korce, Albania, starting from a limited corpus of texts collected in September 2011 - June 2012. We believe that these texts reflect the actual speech of the Aromanians living in this area. Due to the state of bilingualism, their idiom has changed especially because of the interference with the Albanian language. As a result of language contact and education in a socio-political context in which Albanian is the language of majority and authority, the Aromanian idiom from Korce has undergone changes especially at the lexical level. This is the theme of the present study.

At the lexical level, our analysis will deal with the borrowings and code switching phenomena, making a difference, not always easy, between these two forms of lexical interference, based on the following criteria used on similar research (Stoica G. 2003-2004: 117-118):

- the degree of phonetic, morphological and syntactic adaptation
- frequency, associated with an additional criterion - emergence of the same lexical forms with different speakers (recurrence of the same lexical form in the same speech may be a feature of the speaker's idiolect)
- attestation in specialized lexicographical works that fix the usage of certain lexical forms, and therefore the integration of new elements in the lexical system under consideration.

To simplify observations we note the abbreviated criteria used: **A**-adaptation, **F**-frequency, **AT**-attestation.

The specialized lexicographical work used is Tache Papahagi's dictionary, *Dicționarul dialectului aromân, general și etimologic*, second edition, Bucharest, 1974 (DDA). In our analysis we take into account a number of factors that are usually considered in sociolinguistic approaches, such as gender, age, level of education of the informant, as well as how well he/she masters both Aromanian and literary Albanian. As previously mentioned, the language inserted (*embedded language*) is Albanian, and the analysis is limited to the language spoken by the Aromanian community from Korce area. Therefore, the analysis constitutes a case study, providing a limited and fragmented image of the Aromanian idiom spoken in this geographic area.

The texts used in the present study have been collected through interviews conducted in Korce area (Korce city and several neighboring communes-Moschopolis, Shpëskë, Mborie, Drenova) where Aromanian communities live together with the Albanian population representing the majority. They belong to the Farsherot group¹ (branch), being predominantly bilingual and using Aromanian (mostly at home, in the family environment and within the community), and Albanian both in community relations and official communication. Younger generations tend to abandon their mother tongue and use Albanian in verbal interactions within the family or community, motivated by the strong influence of the Albanian language on Aromanian children and youths during the schooling process.

The number of the informants is 20, of different genders, ages and education levels. The age groups we identified are the following: 60 to 75, retired (most of them worked on farms during the communist period before which they used to lead a largely nomadic lifestyle characterized by transhumance), many of them without any formal education or having only the basic level; adults aged 35 to 46 professionally active, having graduated either from high school or university, working in the public or private sector; and children aged 7 to 15 years. We wish

to emphasize that our research could not identify speakers with ages ranging approximately between 18 and 25 because they do not speak the idiom any longer, especially those living in urban areas, or have migrated to Greece or to other European countries.

Within the group of lexical borrowings we identified the following subcategories:

2. Old Borrowings

As other researchers show (Th. Capidan, 1932, 126), words such as *bănă* "life" (regressive derivate from *banoj* "live"), *gělă* "dish" (<*gjellë*), *giză* "type of cheese" (<*gjizë*), *dhătă* "type of yoghurt" (<*dhallë*), *cilimețani* "children" (<*çiliminj*), *bănédz* "live" (<*banoj*) belong to an earlier stratum of borrowings from Albanian considering their importance and usage in other Aromanian speeches too.

3. Cultural Borrowings

In this category we have included words which, at the semantic level, designate new notions, either abstract (concepts), or concrete (objects representing a novelty in the speakers' life). Cultural borrowings appear as a necessity, especially in the case of the rural communities of Aromanians, which began to come into contact with new realities once they shifted from the nomadic life to the sedentary one and once they were integrated within the Albanian state borders after WWII. From the collected texts, having as topics both relatively modern ones (at school, at work, to the doctor's, at the open market, etc) and more traditional ones (how you make cheese/wool, how you organize engagements, weddings, baptisms, funerals etc) we delimited the following semantic fields:

household objects and appliances: *bufé* "buffet" (<*bufe*), *dhiscu* "tray" (<*dhisk*), *sódhă* "baking powder" (<*sodë*), *tilivizór* "TV set" (<*televizor*), *telefon* "telephone" (<*telefon*)

elements of civilisation: *makínă* "car" (<*makinë*), *orchestra* "orchestra" (<*orquestra*), *léc* "Albanian currency" (<*lekë*), *pléri chimiche* "chemical powder" (<*plehra kimike*), *ušcimóre* "foods" (<*ushqimore*), *caróțili* "the carts" (<*karrocet*), *documentili* "the documents" (<*dukumentët*), *tópă*

¹ For the division of the Aromanian groups see Nevaci M., *Graiul aromânilor fărșeroți din Dobrogea*, București. EUB, 2011, 17.

"ball" (<top), *paláte* "blocks of flats" (<palate), *tractóru* "tractor" (<traktori), *duşéc* "mattress" (<dyshek), *taksi* "taxi" (<taksi)

professions and social categories: *mecanic* "mechanic" (<mekanik), *pensionísti* "pensioners" (<pensionistë), *racionári* "reactionary" (<reaksionarë), *acsonári* "stock holders" (<aksionarë), *magazinér* "warehouseman" (<magazinier), *krúe-veterinér* "chief vet" (<kryeveterner), *şéf* "boss" (<shéf), *eurodeputét* "European MP" (<eurodeputet), *arkitéktu* "the architect" (<arkitekti)

professional objects, spaces or actions: *fěrmă* "farm" (<fermë), *fabrică* "factory" (<fabrikë), *locál* "bar" (<lokal), *clúb* "club" (<klub), *coperativă* "cooperative" (<kooperativë), *poliția* "police" (<policia), *magazínă* "store room" (<magazinë), *parțéla* "lot" (<parcela), *vinč* "crane" (<vinç), *arkitektúra* "architecture" (<arkitekturë), *gŭci* "trial" (<gjyqi), *zŭră* "office" (<zyrë), *ndărmărie* "enterprise" (<ndërmarrje)

elements of social and political life: *privatizím* "privatisation" (<privatizim), *economi* "economy" (<ekonomi), *partia* "the party" (<partia), *člirími* "the liberation" (<člirim), *democrația* "the democracy" (<demokracia), *keveri* "government" (<qeveri), *politică* "politics" (<politikë), *puštéti* "the power" (<pushteti), *consúm* "consumption" (<konsum), *monízmi* "communism" (<monizmi), *comunízmi* "communism" (<komunizmi), *sistému* "the system" (<sistemi), *simbóli* "the symbol" (<simboli).

education, school: *matemática* "Mathematics" (<matematikë), *fizică* "Physics" (<fizikë), *universitét* "university" (<universitet), *anglíšt* "English" (<anglisht), *frăngíšt* "French" (<frëngjisht), *italíšt* "Italian" (<italisht), *cópşe* "kindergarten" (<kopësht), *şcólă* "school" (<shkollë), *clása* "class" (<klasë), *gŭhă* "language" (<gjuhë), *ledzím* "reading" (<lexim), *biologí* "Biology" (<biologji), *muzică* "Music" (<muzikë), *măsim* "class" (<mësim)

We have proceeded to our analysis by checking which words from the ones mentioned above satisfy the three parameters [+A], [+F],

[+AT] or only some of them, in order to analyse their degree of integration into the language system and to decide on their state of borrowings:

3.1. Words that satisfy the three parameters [+A], [+F], [+AT]

- *makínă*: *avém luată dăuă-tré makíni...* (T1:2'14"); *cu makína...* (T18: 3'38"); [+A] presents the plural ending „-i”; [+F] is used by 2 speakers of different ages (70 and 40, respectively); [+AT] – attested by DDA.
- *duşéc*: *că't un duşéc...* (T29:2'39"), *duşéc n'áviam ici...* (T31:4'16"); [+A] presents indefinite articulation; [+F] used by two different speakers of the same age ; [+AT] attested by DDA.
- *fabrică*: *áre lucrată la únă fabrică ...* (T1:2'07"), *únă fabrică...* (T2:40"); [+A] presents indefinite articulation; [+F] used by two different speakers of different ages (70 and 46 de ani, respectively); [+AT] attested by DDA under the form *fábrica*.

3.2. Words that satisfy only two parameters

1. [+A], [+F], [-AT]

- *coperativă* "cooperative" (<kooperativë): *intrăm tu coperativă...* (T11:2'43") *míni erám magazinér tu coperativă...* (T21:4'26"); *coperativa nóstră...* (T29:5'18"); [+A] presents definite articulation; [+F] used by three different speakers of similar ages (70).
- *democrația* "democracy" (<demokraci): *acă'tă democrația...* (T14: 1'30"); *când vini democrația...* (T15: 39"); [+A] presents definite articulation; [+F] used by two different speakers of similar ages (70).
- *orchestra* "orchestra" (<orkester): *cu orchestră...* (T14: 2'21") *cu orchéstăr...* (T32:5') [+A] presents a relative adaptation only when used by the first speaker owing to the feminine singular ending -ă, as opposed to the Albanian form *orkester*, used by the second speaker; [+F] used by two different speakers of different ages (70 and 50, respectively).

2. [+A], [+AT], [-F]

- - carótili "the carts" (<karrocat): cu carótili... (T23:28")- [+A] presents definite articulation, in the plural; [+AT] attested by DDA; [-F] – a single occurrence.
- - tópa "ball" (<top): mă ġióc cu tópa... (T25: 1'04")- [+A] presents the feminine singular ending –ă, as opposed to the form top from Albanian; [+AT] attested by DDA; [-F] – a single occurrence.

3.3. Words that satisfy a single parameter

1. [+A]

- férma "farm" (<fermë): tu férma di Malici (T2:5'03")- presents definite articulation.
- cópşa "kindergarten" (<kopësht): merg la cópşa (T12:1'12")- presents feminine singular ending „-ă” as compared to the Albanian form kopësht.
- pensioníšti "pensioners" (<pensionistë): tóra sum gíni, sum pensioníšti ... (T14:1'41")- presents plural ending –i and the consonant alternance s>ş
- raksonári "reactionary" (<reaksionarë): nă făţeá raksionári ... (T15 1:25)- presents the plural ending –i.
- pléri kimíke "chemical powder" (<plehra kimike): aviam pleri kimíke... (T21:4'30")- presents the plural ending – i.
- eurodeputét "European MP" (<eurodeputet): un eurodeputét... (T30: 6'10")- presents indefinite articulation.
- arkitéktu "the architect" (<arkitekti): arkitéktu Kliti Kallamata... (T30: 6'30")- presents definite articulation specific for the Farsherot speech (ending in –u)
- arkitektúra "the architecture" (<arkitektura) (T30: 6'32")- presents definite articulation.
- documéntili "the documents" (<dokumentët): documéntili ți fac... (T32: 1' 33")- presents definite articulation.
- ndärmárie "enterprise" (<ndërmarrje), "": míni lucrádză la un ndärmárie ... (T33:25"))- presents indefinite articulation
- tractóru "tractor" (<traktori): cu tractóru... (T20:4'50") presents definite

articulation specific for the Farsherot speech (ending in –u)

- clúbri "clubs" (<klube): n'avea clúbri ...cum sunt tóra ... (T14 2'05")- presents the plural ending –ri.
- magazína "warehouse" (<magazina): tu magazína di patáti... (T22: 0'04")- presents definite articulation.
- partía "party" (<parti): i'aveá lóťa partía ... (T21: 5'59") - presents definite articulation.
- kevería "government" (<qeveri): ne lóră şi stráili kevería ... (T15: 31")- presents definite articulation and the phonetic change q>k.
- poliťia "police" (<policia): i'acătáră poliťia ... (T21:6'06") - presents definite articulation.
- sistému "the system" (<sistemi): sistému...o 'nchís... (T30:3'15") presents definite articulation specific for the Farsherot speech (ending in –u).

2. [+AT] words that do not present markers of adaptation and have a single occurrence but are attested by DDA

- economí "economy": avem sculată niheam di economí... (T1:2'34"); attested in DDA under the form icunumíe.

As we can see, in this chapter we have intended to operate with three criteria to determine the status of borrowings of the words above. However, this cannot be done in absolute terms. Thus, although some are not attested in the works of lexicography, frequency and adaptation markers make us conclude that they are integrated and operate as borrowings. On the other hand, the limited number of texts does not give us a broader picture of the extent of use for some of these words (many have only one occurrence). Certainty increases when these words are recorded in dictionaries, confirming their status as certain borrowings.

4. In between cultural borrowing and code switching

It is often difficult to distinguish between cultural borrowings and code switchings because some words do not fulfill any of the parameters taken into account, [A], [F], [AT]. They do not show any degree of adaptation, and therefore we can

consider them code changes, although some of them could be closer to the concept of borrowing. Among these, we may point out a number of words presenting forms and combinatorial contexts which may support their character of borrowings.

4.1. A series of words designating furniture, household appliances, new modern facilities, and means of transport

bufé "buffet" (<bufe): *și locul di bufé...* (T2: 4'08")

tilivizór "TV set" (<televizor): *tu tilivizór...* (T31: 1'48")

locál "bar, restaurant" (<lokal) *tu locál ...* (T28 2'32")

paláte "blocks of flats" (<palate), *tu paláte...* (T28:2'42")

züră "office" (<zyrë), *tu züră ...* (T32: 1'03")

taksí "taxi" (<taksi) , *pi taksí...* (T31:2'00");
míni víni tu taksí... (T31 6'16")

4.2. Several abstract nouns

člirími "the liberation" (<člirimi): *după člirími...* (T14:28")

puštéti "the power" (<pushteti): *surupă' puštéti popóru lui...* (T21:5'46")

monízmi "the communism" (abbreviation):
erá tu kairó ali monízmi... (T30:1'16")

comunízám "communism" (<komunizëm):
periúdha di komunízám ... (T30:1'00")

simbóli "the symbol" (<simboli): *aísta era simbóli...* (T31:7'38")

privatizími "the privatisation" (<privatizimi):
dapoia privatizími... (T1:2'13")

báza ušcimóre "baza alimentară" (<baza ushqimore): *báza ušcimóre nă blegtorí...* (T21:5'09")

politică "politics" (<politikë): *gioia di politică...* (T21:5'45")

théksi "accent" (<theksi): *noi aveam un théksi...nuk e di si i thonë..* (T1:38")

Semantically, these words fill up lexical gaps in the Aromanian system, and therefore we may consider them closer to borrowings. Seen in context, especially the last ones *comunízám*,

báza ušcimóre, *politică* and *théksi*, they have the status of code switchings: *théksi* used after a moment of hesitation by the speaker (which marks a mental search of a ML equivalent), followed by a sentence in Albanian, which is clearly a code switching (*nuk e di si i thonë...*). *Politică* appears after the word *gioia*, which is also a code switching. The phrase *báza ušcimóre* appears in a similar context, being immediately followed by the phrase *nă blegtorí*, which also represents a code switching, as well as the word *comunízám*, which follows the phrase *periúdha di ...*, another example of code switching.

4.3. Several words belonging to the semantic field of professions or social categories which do not present markers of formal integration.

Semantically speaking, they fill up lexical gaps, and therefore, even though in texts they have a single or several occurrences with the same speaker, we may consider them closer to borrowings:

- *mecanic* "mechanic" (<mekanik) *bărbátu este mecanic...* (T1: 2'03")
- *magazinér* "warehouseman" (<magaziner): *míni erám magazinér tu coperatívă...* (T21: 4'24")
- *krúe-veterinér* "chief veterinarian" (<kryeveteriner): *krúe-veterinér tu rrëthi tu Corceáua ...* (T21:4'51")
- *şéf* "head" (<shef): *si făţé şéf buičasíe ...* (T21:4'51")

These words do not carry any adaptation marker, and since they appear in contexts where phenomena of code-switching are present, they may be also considered code-switchings.

We also regard as code-switchings the following words belonging to the semantic field of education and school because they do not present any adaptation marker: *máster* "master" (<master), *matemátică* "Mathematics" (<matematikë), *fizică* "Physics" (<fizikë), *universitét* "university" (<universitet), *anglíşt* "English" (<anglisht), *frăngíşt* "French" (<frëngjisht), *italíşt* "Italian" (<italisht), *şcótă* "school" (<shkollë), *clása* "class" (<klasë), *gúhă* "language" (<gjuhë), *ledzím* "reading" (<lexim), *biologí* "Biology" (<biologji), *muzică* "Music" (<muzikë), *măsim* "lesson" (<mësim)

5. Core Borrowings

Based on the definition and terminology introduced by Carol Meyers-Scotton (2006: 215), we further discuss the second category of borrowings, namely the core borrowings. The collected texts show that they are more numerous than the cultural borrowings, which shows the strong influence of Albanian over Aromanian. Over the time, the Aromanian speakers have been faced with the need to enrich their mother tongue with new lexical items, and sometimes replace older terms with newer ones because of the latter's superior functionality. Unlike the cultural borrowings, which most of them are semantically concrete, designating perceptible realities, the nuclear ones cover a broader range of meanings, both concrete and abstract, belonging to almost all lexical and semantic categories, with quantitative differences. As in the case of cultural borrowings, we identified the following semantic fields:

household appliances, spaces : *fáre* "seeds" (<fara), *víci* "veal" (<viç), *gíalpă* "butter" (<gjalpë), *crevát* "bed" (<krevat), *gatíme* "types of dishes" (<gatime), *uščímile* "types of food" (<ushqimet), *sódhă* "baking powder" (<sodhë).

clothes, accessories: *florí* "gold" (<flori), *várse* "necklace" (<varëse), *flamúr* "flag" (<flamur)

elements of civilisation: *alumină* "aluminum" (<alumin), *célci* "glass" (<qelqi), *léc* "Albanian currency" (<lekë), *puşím* "break" (<pushim)

professions, social categories: *măsús* "teacher" (<mësues), *uštár* "soldier" (<ushtar), *prifti* "the priest" (<prifti), *pasonári* "wealthy" (<të pasur), *besimtári* "believers" (<besimtarë), *mbrétărlu* "the king" (<mbretëri), *crúşci* "in laws" (<krushq)

professional objects, spaces: *blegtoria* "breeding cows" (<blegtori), *buičăsie* "agriculture" (<bujqësi), *spáng* "rope" (<spango) *gălcéra* " ? " (<gëlqerja)

elements of social life, attitudes, feelings: *rréth* "district" (<rreth), *consúm* "consumption" (<konsum), *problémi* "the problem" (<problemi), *rit* "ritual" (<rit), *zacónile* "customs" (<zakonet), *periúdhă* "period" (<periudha), *comunitátia*

"community" (<komuniteti), *rásti* "occasion" (<rasti), *identitáte* "identity" (<identitet), *şacă* "joke" (<shaka), *ftésili* "the invitations" (<ftesat), *dălie* "toast" (<dollia)

education: *şcótă* "school" (<shkollë)

time units : *ştatór* "September" (<shtator), *tetór* "October" (<tetor), *óră* "hour" (<orë), *fúnd* "end" (<fund)

others: *gérili* "the things" (<gjerat)

We will continue analyzing, as in the case of cultural borrowings, which of the words above satisfy all three parameters [+A], [+F], [+AT] or only some of them in order to decide on their degree of integration and to draw certain conclusions on their status of borrowings.

5.1. Words that satisfy the three parameters [+A], [+F], [+AT]

- *fáre* "seeds": *luám pipér, fáre...* (T2:30"); *dapói aviám di fáre...* (T22:16"); [+A] presents the feminine plural ending „-e”; [+F] used by two speakers, of similar ages (70 de ani); [+AT] – attested by DDA.
- *crevát* "bed": *un crevát di páie...* (T29:1'42"); *crevát di scă'nduri...* (T31: 4' 21") [+A] presents indefinite articulation; [+F] used by two different speakers of similar ages; [+AT] attested by DDA under the form *crivate*.
- *zacón* "habits": *ca túti zacónile...* (T18:4'56"); *aşá erá ca zacóniu...* (T32: 3'20"); [+A] presents definite articulation ; [+F] used by two different speakers, of different ages (70 and 48); [+AT] attested by DDA.

5.2. Words that satisfy only 2 parameters

a. [+A], [+F], [-AT]

- *víci* "veal": *am un víci acásă ...* (T12: 17"); *Țe li fați tu vicilu... ai vici tini?* (T25: 3'03")- [+A] presents indefinite and definite articulation; [+F] used by two different speakers of different ages (7 and 36).
- *gălcéra* "slack lime": *țini gălcéra di nu cadí...* (T30:6'59"); *dădia cu gălcére casa* (T32:2'24") presents definite articulation; [+F] used by two different speakers of different ages (61 and 48).
- *fúnd* "end" : *păn tu fúnd...* (T7:1'37");

păn tu fúnd... (T14:23''); [+A] it appears especially in this phrase, acquiring a unitary character; [+F] used by two different speakers, of similar ages (70).

- uštár "soldier": mini erám uštár... (T11: 2' 06''); tóra l'avém uštár... (T28:54'')- [+A]; [+F] used by two different speakers of similar ages (70).
- léc "Albanian currency": băgă' lécu... (T13: 1'59'') li băgă lécu... (T18: 2'14'')- [+A] presents definite articulation; [+F] used by two different speakers of similar ages (70).
- ĝéie/ĝérili "thing(s)": túti ĝérili... (T24:4'38''); ună ĝéie... (T3:5'48''); cu ĝéie uscâti... (T32:4'31'') [+A] presents definite and indefinite articulation, being used especially in the phrase tuti ĝérili, which has thus a unitary character [+F] it is used by three speakers of different ages (15, 50 and 70).
- ștător "September" (<shtator), tetór "October" (tetor): tu tetór... (T27: 52'') [+F] used by speakers of similar ages (70).
- măsús "teacher": aveám un măsús... (T32: 45''); noi avém pátru măsús ... (T24: 3' 28'')- [+A] presents indefinite article; [+F] used by two different speakers of different ages (15 and 68).

b. [+A], [+AT], [-F]

- spáng "rope": un spáng gros... (T23:46'') - [+A] presents indefinite articulation; [+AT] attested by DDA under the form spángo; [-F] – a single occurrence.
- șacăie "joke": di șacăie... (T31:7'45'')- [+A] presents the feminine singular ending -ie, as opposed to the Albanian form shaka; [+AT] attested by DDA; [-F] – a single occurrence.
- flamúri "flags": cu flamúri... (T7:35'')- [+A] presents the plural ending -i; [+AT] attested by DDA under the form flámură; [-F] – a single occurrence.

5.3. Words that satisfy only one criterion

a. [+A]

- alumínă "aluminum" (<alumin): lingură di alumínă ... (T3:11'')- presents definite feminine singular ending -ă.
- ușcímile "types of food" (<ushqimet): aducea di acólo ușcímile... (T18:1'01'')-

presents definite form in the plural.

- ftésili "the invitations" (<ftesat): pãrtám ftésili... (T11:4'33'')- presents definite form in the plural.
- pasonári "wealthy" (<ftesat): era pasonári ... (T15:1'20'')-presents specific plural ending.
- besimtári "believers" (< besimtarë): rrămă'ni era mult besimtári ... (T14: 4'13'') presents specific plural ending.
- mbrétlu "the king" (<mbretëri): mbrétlu di Șçiprie ... (T14: 4' 35'')- presents definite form in the singular.
- rréthu "district" (<rreth): tu rréthu tu Corceauă... (T21:21'')- presents definite form in the singular specific for the Farsherot speech.
- dăllie "toast" (<dolli): cu dăllie ... (T14 2 55) presents the feminine singular ending -e.
- crușci "in laws" (<krushq): mulți crușci... (T27: 2'17'')- presents the plural ending -i.

6. In between Core borrowing and Code Switching

Just like cultural borrowings, some words do not satisfy the three criteria, which leads to the conclusion that they may represent intermediate stages of transition from the status of code switches to the nuclear borrowings. We defined here the following lexical-semantic categories:

a. Nouns:

- pușím "day off, vacation" (< pushim): am pușím ... (T32:1'44'')
- mănü'ra "manner" (<mënyra) (T30)
- ngü'rá "color" (<ngjyrë): cu ngü'rá... (T14:4'44'')
- șcöllă "school" (<shkollë): mérdzem la șcöllă... (T24:3'36'')
- cuidés "care" (<kujdes): cu cuidés ... (T2:3'03'')
- prifti/priftu/prift "priest" (<prifti): un prift... (T31: 3'24'')
- rásti "occasion" (<rasti): un rásti... (T30:5'42'')
- rrămúie "mess" (<rrëmujë): așé rrămúie... (T31: 2'27'')
- florí "gold" (<flori): ună florí ... (T31:7' 03'')
- vărse "necklace" (<varëse): ună varse...

(T31: 7' 04'')

- çifti "couple" (<çifti): sănătăti ali çifti... (T14: 2'55'')
- periúdhă "period" (<periudhë): periúdhă di komunízăm ... (T30:1'00'')

b. Adjectives:

- păstrită "clean" (<e pastër): era căsa păstrită... (T30)
- ngúšti "close" (<ngushtë): sóti ngúšti... (T10)
- detürită "forced, obliged" (<e detyruar) (T1)
- êdo "every" (<çdo) êdo sat... (T24)

c. Verbs:

- fillëšti "I start" (<filloj) (T5)
- ietă'm "I was living" (<jetoja): mini ietă'm... (T11)
- shoçeră "I was accompanied" (<shoçëronte): mă shoçeră ... (T14: 3'44'')

d. Adverbs:

- castîle "on purpose" (<kastile) le fătea castîle... (T15:6'57'')
- kót "useless" (<kot): kót ästi... (T27: 3' 31'')
- detürimişt "în mod obligatoriu" (<detyrimisht) (T1:1'02'')
- kollái "easily" (<kollaj) (T14)
- atëre "then" (<atëhere) (T28)

e. Filling words:

- giòia "as if" (<gjoja) (T21)
- domăthă'n "meaning" (<domëthënë) (T1, T2, T11)

7. Conclusions

Analyzing these examples, we may conclude that borrowings, either cultural or nuclear, appear with all speakers, regardless of age or gender. This shows the strong influence exercised by Albanian over Aromanian.

Thus, with the male persons between the ages of 60 and 75, with a low level of formal instruction (usually primary school), who have been professionally active, the rate of cultural borrowings is higher than that with the women of the same age and with similar level of education, who have been housewives all their lives. More than that, phenomena of codeswitching are quite frequent with these informants, especially when they are talking about the social (professional) roles they held in

the past. Interestingly enough, code switching phenomena have been observed with women aged between 60 and 70, a sign that some verbal habits (practices) act constantly and impose themselves as preferred variants in certain contexts. Housewives, even the youngest, with relatively low degree of education and living in rural areas, show a greater tendency to preserve the idiom (meaning that they do not resort to borrowing or code switching very often).

Men and women, aged between 30 and 50 living in urban areas, with a higher degree of education (they are either high school or university graduates) and with a professional active life very frequently resort to code - switching. The same can be observed with children aged 7 to 15, boys and girls, who study at public schools in the Albanian language, regardless of the environment, rural or urban. Generally, children and youths in urban areas tend to abandon their mother tongue because they currently use Albanian and because they are afraid of being discriminated against by the majority population. According to our adult informants living in urban areas, their children were still speaking Aromanian back when their grandparents were alive.

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ANNEX

INFORMANTS' LIST

*T1: VASILIKA TROKA – 40
FROM KORCE
EDUCATION: HIGH SCHOOL
PROFESSION: BUSINESS WOMAN*

*T2: DHIMITRAQ GJATA – 70
FROM MBORIE (BORN IN ERSEKE)
EDUCATION: HIGH SCHOOL
PROFESSION: ZOOTEHNIST*

*T3: MARIE GJATA- 70
FROM MBORIE (BORN IN PLEASA)
WITHOUT FORMAL EDUCATION
PROFESSION: HOUSEWIFE*

*T3: MARIE GJATA- 70
FROM MBORIE (BORN IN PLEASA)
WITHOUT FORMAL EDUCATION
PROFESSION: HOUSEWIFE*

*T5: LINDITA BËRDILLA – 36
FROM MOSCHOPOLIS
EDUCATION: UNIVERSITY
PROFESSION: MATHS TEACHER*

*T6: ÇIMA SAMARA-61
FROM MOSCHOPOLIS
EDUCATION: BASIC
PROFESSION: WORKER*

*T7: OLLGA ZGURI-71
FROM MOSCHOPOLIS
WITHOUT FORMAL EDUCATION
PROFESSION: HOUSEWIFE*

*T8: RINA ZGURI-37
FROM MOSCHOPOLIS
EDUCATION: MIDDLE SCHOOL
PROFESSION: HOUSEWIFE*

*T9: OLI ZGURI-15
FROM MOSCHOPOLIS
EDUCATION: 9TH FORM
PROFESSION: PUPIL*

*T10: DHIMITRA SAMARA- 12
FROM MOSCHOPOLIS
EDUCATION: 7TH FORM*

PROFESSION: PUPIL

*T11: THODORAQ SAMARA- 75
FROM MOSCHOPOLIS
EDUCATION: BASIC
PROFESIA: COW BREEDER
&
MARIA SAMARA – 74
FROM MOSCHOPOLIS
WITHOUT FORMAL EDUCATION
PROFESSION: HOUSEWIFE*

*T12: FOTI ZGURI – 6
FROM MOSCHOPOLIS
EDUCATION: 1ST FORM
PROFESSION: PUPIL*

*T13: SOFIA DHIMA – 63
FROM MOSCHOPOLIS
EDUCATION: BASIC
PROFESSION: HOUSEWIFE*

*T14: RAFAIL (RAPO) ZGURI – 71
FROM MOSCHOPOLIS
EDUCATION: BASIC
PROFESSION: WAREHOUSEMAN*

*T15: OLLGA ZGURI-71
FROM MOSCHOPOLIS
WITHOUT FORMAL EDUCATION
PROFESSION: HOUSEWIFE*

*T16: SOFIA BËRDILLA-46
FROM MOSCHOPOLIS
EDUCATION: MIDDLE SCHOOL
PROFESSION: HOUSEWIFE*

*T17: ALEKO BËRDILLA -42
FROM MOSCHOPOLIS
EDUCATION: PROFESSIONAL SCHOOL
PROFESSION: CONSTRUCTION WORKER*

*T18-T19-T20: OLLGA ZGURI-71
FROM MOSCHOPOLIS
WITHOUT FORMAL EDUCATION
PROFESSION: HOUSEWIFE*

*T21-T22-T23: RAFAIL (RAPO) ZGURI – 71
FROM MOSCHOPOLIS
EDUCATION: BASIC*

PROFESSION: WAREHOUSEMAN

*T24: OLI ZGURI-15
FROM MOSCHOPOLIS
EDUCATION: 9TH FORM
PROFESSION: STUDENT*

*T25: FOTI ZGURI – 6
FROM MOSCHOPOLIS
EDUCATION: 1ST FORM
PROFESSION: PUPIL*

*T26: RINA ZGURI-37
FROM MOSCHOPOLIS
EDUCATION: MIDDLE SCHOOL
PROFESSION: HOUSEWIFE*

*T27-T28: PAQËLIE ZGURI – 70
FROM MOSCHOPOLIS
WITHOUT FORMAL EDUCATION
PROFESSION: HOUSEWIFE*

*T29: MARIA SAMARA- 74
FROM MOSCHOPOLIS
WITHOUT FORMAL EDUCATION
PROFESSION: HOUSEWIFE*

*T30: THOMA SAMARAJ- 61
FROM MOSCHOPOLIS
EDUCATION: THEOLOGIC SEMINARY
PROFESSION: PRIEST*

*T31: VASILLA BETA -72
FROM MOSCHOPOLIS
EDUCATION: BASIC
PROFESSION: TEACHER
& THEODORA SAMARAJ -62
EDUCATION: BASIC
PROFESSION: HOUSEWIFE*

*T32: ANETA CUKALI- 48
FROM KORCE
STUDII: HIGH SCHOOL
PROFESSION: OFFICE ASSISTANT*

SOME TEACHING METHODS OF CHILD LITERATURE THAT ENHANCE STUDENTS' DESIRE FOR READING AND CREATIVE SKILLS

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Abstract

Children's literature is the kind of literature written for young people to educate them with ethical, artistic and aesthetic feelings. Nowadays, because of the massive information they gain through the Internet, mass media, cinematography etc. it is noticed that artistic literature reading by students of the 9-th grade has significantly dropped. The amount of information provided by social, scientific and technological development has led to the decrease of their desire to read artistic literature. Hence, it is the duty of the teachers to stimulate a child into making artistic literature reading a habit. Teachers should feel and experience children's literature deeply so they can penetrate into their world, wishes and passions and be able to incite their desire to read. This paper aims to present some effective teaching methods on children's literature that can be used by our future teachers in order to instill the love and desire for reading. Among these methods are: the process of selecting literature work that mostly affects the child's nature; focus on some aspects of building the fable and plot in works which arouse reading curiosity and habit, the analysis of technical and artistic components in literature masterpieces written for children which consider the models of creating literature work; to enable their reading at any time; the way that the message is interpreted etc. By using these methods, the capable and passionate teacher can successfully achieve his goal.

Keywords: *reading, literature, teaching methods, creative skills, selecting, analysis, artistic components*

Main Article

Child's literature as well as adult literature makes up the literature of a nation. A literature that is poor in literature work for children cannot fulfill its function and purpose. It is called children's literature not because it is inferior to the adult one but because literature work of that age group is collected at the heart of it all and gets ready to substitute the previous generation that has been created before that.

Child's literature above all is art because a child artistically finds reflected on it his own world and the entire world as it seen from his eyes, his perceptions, and his own kaleidoscope

of feelings and thoughts of that fragile age.

The formation of a child's character has not only been a concern for the parents but for the entire society as well. Since Aristotle's time it has been thought that if the moral character of a child is perfect, the constitution can also be perfect. The child's literature must also be seen from the same point of view. A teacher that wants to achieve the real idea – aesthetic effect of the content learns that child's literature is the one he accepts in his heart as his own.

The basic problem of the theory of literature lies upon its features as the child's literature has its own peculiarities. The main purpose of creating this literature is that of educating them.

There is no doubt that good knowledge of this features and its implementation with tenacity and artistry plays a crucial role in achieving the purpose of giving the young readers literature work with a highly artistic and educative level.

However, today because of the massive information that the children receive via internet, media, cinematography etc, it is evident that there is a significant fall in the literature reading levels of middle school students (9-year grade). This amount of information coming from the social, scientific, technological development has influenced the diminished desire to read artistic literature in children. This is why it is the teacher's duty to work on increasing the level of artistic reading in students. A teacher has to feel and relive the child's literature dearly, a teacher has to be able to enter the children's world, understand their desires and passions in order to be able to transmit to them the desire to read.

The reading process is important in the development of the creative and expressive skills of children. Besides writing, speaking and listening, reading is an important activity, as well as a source of knowledge; it is a tool of interaction and communication. This is why reading has a special place in school programs when compiling subjects consisting of literature reading. It is necessary for teachers to know the reading process well and also to find the most effective way of teaching, to enable students with good reading skills and help them be more active during their entire lives. Having good reading skills also enables students to get involved in a more independent way in their reading activities. On his work "From talking to

reading", Laurence Lenten emphasizes that the idea of this method of teaching, applying linguistic, lexical and syntax experience, development of the ability to think and communicate, will push a child towards writing and eventually towards reading. Whether or not the children will feel the power and the beauty of the language, it all depends on the teacher. He has to enhance the young readers see the process of reading as a process of understanding, as a general activity, not only as a process of identifying words. All this process as interesting and as difficult as it is, cannot be absorbed all at once, but it needs to be done gradually, starting at the beginner's level up towards a more advanced and mature one. This gradual process can go through different means and methods which will make the reading process easy and successful. The question of "how" or "what" method teaches a student how to read has been the goal of a considerable number of research studies. The teacher is the key to the problem if a child will learn to read or not, the teacher is the one who can choose one method or the other or combine them.

How can a text be readable and attractive to the reader? What characteristics must a text have in order to influence him?

First of all, a text is attractive and readable, when it is understandable, not obscure, but pleasant in the way it is constructed and written. Readability of the text is a quality of a coherent text, which is well developed; it evolves nicely from a beginning to an end in successive passages. However, this does not mean that a text must be over simplified, leaving the reader with nothing to disclose, that is why the text has to be interesting and able to please the reader's curiosity. For the same reasons, the reader is motivated and involved when reading is an intriguing text which consists of unexpected and surprising elements. These elements keep the reader's curiosity, focus and desire to explore elevated.

For a child to become a good reader, it is necessary for the teacher to put him in the position of motivational reading. It is also necessary for a teacher to find the keys to a specific method, so that the reader can understand the meaning of the text.

First of all a teacher has to choose books that belong to the children's universe and

interests, with a cultural reference to them, so that they can be able to read and come up with convincing hypotheses. Secondly a teacher has to find the right words that will favor teaching. In every case, a word has to be related with the text, so that it can lead to a possible meaning of it.

The acquisition assumes the implementation of the processes of memorizing; connecting the word with other words and repeating it (the word in a text, in other sentences, in other texts, in other moments).

It is also important for the teacher to choose the right procedures with the purpose of giving the students more independence, meaning that a teacher has to focus on the more important ideas, allowing more space for the student to engage in their independent work.

Thus, it would be a good strategy for a literal discussion to be held during a literature reading class, giving priority to diverse questions being directed to students, regarding the content of a story, characters, the message that a story transmits, the language used etc. The nature of questions being asked will gradually become more difficult with a more creative nature, such as: "How do you understand the title of the story?" "If you were to choose a different title, what would it be? What might X character look like? What is the message sent to the reader? Which is the climax or the conflict of the story? How connected the narrative with the dialogue in a story is etc?"

The teacher can formulate questions of this nature which can improve the quality of the conversation, regarding a particular object or a particular piece of literature. The teacher also has to be aware that the student should be able to read and speak more, express his thoughts freely, as well as being able to come up with reasonable arguments. The students should be able to appreciate the text and should not forget that the message being sent and the context of the story are derived from the text and subtext. What a student thinks and where he stands, what his opinions are, should be based on the text. The facts used as arguments on a discussion are also found in the text.

At this point of view, the literal text has priority over all other texts, as it fosters creative skills and educates them. Thus, it is the teacher's task to awaken student's desire for reading and

books mainly by means of reading texts.

The significant decline of reading books in children comes as a result of the obvious development of technology, especially the internet. Today, if a student needs to draft a paper, an essay or anything else creative, it is easier for him to refer to the internet rather than books. This is caused not only from the commodity and the speed of the information secured from the internet, the media etc., but also from the fact that nothing is done to educate the children with the reading desire, such a desire that is educated since childhood from the parents and especially from the teachers.

The literature as a subject for children taught at the Faculty of Education is a subject of special importance, not only in the academic process and the student's intellectual growth but also as a subject that serves directly to him as a future teacher. Thus, the implementation and perfection of some teaching methods of this subject assist the student in his work as a teacher and in the future, makes him know how to educate the love for books to children.

At first, it is necessary for the students guided from their professors to employ surveys to pupils during their teaching practices to check their actual reading level. The surveys should be conducted in such way as to present a clear rapport of the new generation about artistic literature, including in them considerable well-informed questions. Referring to these surveys, the professor and the student coordinates the work in finding efficient ways of teaching the subject of literature for children.

One of the main methods considered as more traditional but whose results are very efficient is the analysis method of the world literature masterpieces for children, that are part of the golden fund of this literature and still continue to be published, republished and are screened in these modern times, despite the modern ways and concepts of living. These masterpieces such as: "Alice in Wonderland" of Lewis Carol, "Two Years Holidays" of Jules Verne, "The Heart" of Edmond De Amici, "Adventures of Tom Sawyer" of Mark Twain, "Little women" of Luisa Alcott, "Peter Pan" of James Barr, Anderson's fairytales, Grim Brothers etc., are excellent examples serving as models, to writers of children's books of our era, so they can write

good books for children. The fact that these masterpieces arouse the same interest even today makes us study some important and necessary aspects that an artistic book should have to attract the children's attention. In these world literature masterpieces for children, writers have harmonically interlaced the artistic principles with those didactic. Analyzing these masterpieces in the main aspects of the theory of literature for children, the student understands which literal models to present to children, how to combine the artistic components to those educative, how to maintain curiosity, how to interlace fantasy with reality and the complex story, how to harmonize description with action and dialogue, how to combine the entertaining element with the adventurous one etc.. Children prefer mostly, those books that awaken their imagination and curiosity, that represent the real world and strengthen the moral feelings, without distorting those feelings with the rules of an empty moral. The books for little children do not educate them, if they are created on the basis of didactics and empty morals. To better fulfill the demand in the artistic works for little children, Bjelinski says that, the writer may not express the moral idea: but s/he may give children the possibility to feel and realize it throughout the plot, story and description. (Bishqemi A. 1997)

Here lays maybe, the greatest difficulty in writing books for children, and making these books interesting for them. Considering all these qualities, it is critical to find the key to penetrate into their feelings and fantasy, by providing them with knowledge on the world, by educating them morally, without leaving aside age specifications. This must be rightly understood, as Dobrolubov says "children of different ages have different interests and the interests of the child who is 3 years old, are not the same with those of a 7 year-old child" (Bedja B. 1978)

Based on this, another aspect that should be highlighted during the child's literature classes is the division of this literature according to the age groups, which take into account the psychic characteristics of children. The age group division helps the literature teacher to know how to adapt the child work according to his ability to understand it. So, during child literature classes, it is necessary for the professor to suggest to his students good examples of great books, written

for different age groups. Of great value is also the psychological and pedagogical knowledge, which enables the recognition of psychic characteristics of each age, interests, desires and the degree at which children get hold of reality. By analyzing different literature pieces for children, written in accordance with the psychology of their age, the teacher finds it easier to recommend to his students the appropriate book for their age. Regarding the age groups, we can divide the literature work in three categories based on age:

- a. Pre -school children age 3 – 6 years old
- b. Young students age 6 – 11 years old (mainly for children of I-IV-th grades of primary education)
- c. Adult students age 11 – 14 years old (mainly for children of V – IX-th grades).

Without taking into account the psychic features of the age groups, the desirable impetus of children for reading can not be achieved. A wrong orientation of the book for another age group can not attract child's attention to read it, because he may not understand it.

Another important aspect that brings the child closer to the book is also its language quality, clarity, simplicity and its beauty which not only attracts the child but also cultivates in him the artistic and aesthetic feelings as well as the love for his native language. Bielinski emphasizes that "literature for young children should be written in an easy, free, playful, blossoming and simple language (Bishqemi A 1997).

According to the thoughts of child literature classical theorists, the language in these works should be simple, playful, expressed with the complete meaning of the word and at the same time close to the language of folk tales and popular poetry. Tolstoy, when writing for children said: "The work with the language is terrible. We should above all write simply, beautifully and clearly. A flawed language produces flawed thoughts". A perfect example of such language is that of the folk tales; a concise, correct, simple, beautiful and figurative coloration. By analyzing the models of popular experience during child literature classes, the student finds it easier to select a reading text or a book which attracts children for the way the language is used in it. As an example of an appropriate and well selected language we can

consider the language used by the classics of children's literature, world and national literature as well. By analyzing the choice of words, their use, the syntactical structures, the use of phraseology, the emotional weight of words, etc. the future teacher will know how to incite the love for mother tongue through reading in children

Classics of child's literature worldwide are good examples of literature work with a language that is appropriate and elaborated beautifully just for children. Analyzing these examples, you cannot help but notice the particular place the words have, their use and syntactic structure, their phraseology, the emotional weight they carry. Thus, the future teacher should know how to stimulate the child's love for his native language by reading more. Only a correct and simple language but beautifully and artistically conducted can transmit to the young readers accurate thoughts. On the other hand, a crippled language can transmit crippled thoughts. This is the reason why a professor of child's literature may dedicate a few hours of analyzing pieces that are good examples of standardized language, so that children can understand it, as well as be attracted to it.

Another aspect where teaching can be based on is the plot and the content of a literature piece for children. Choosing the plot is the first element of the creative process. The plot in a literature work for children can be complicated and full of action. This is necessary because the nature of a child is attracted to the fast movement and events of the story. A child always searches for adventure, challenges, variation and time and place change. Based on this, a writer should not be afraid to make the plot more complicated and weave the events with each other on a greater degree. The more intriguing the plot is, the more action it has, the more attracted the child is to the story. The content of the story however has to be simple and easy to be understood for a child's imagination, so that when he finishes reading the story, he can easily tell the content to his friends.

The teacher of literature reading should choose books that have plots which are full of events but at the same time with simple content. This is what makes a child attracted to the story,

making it more intriguing and the child will end up finish reading the entire book.

The masterpieces of world literature are the perfect examples to be looked at, where the complexity of the plot is in harmony with the simplicity of the content. A professor of literature may let students choose and analyze the books on their own, so they can see this harmony between the plot and the content.

Besides the plot and the content, professors of literature and theorists emphasize the importance of book illustrations for children. It is rightly thought that drawings and pictures help to enrich the child's imagination and leave a vivid impression on what they read. These drawings and pictures are considered to be the basis of the child's development. It is only natural that a picture stimulates the child's imagination thus; a child is more attracted to illustrated books. For this reason teachers recommend this kind of books in order to somehow arouse a child's curiosity.

We should not forget that a child is a delicate human being and as such, he needs to laugh and to be entertained. In general, children's books should be predominated by happy feelings and beautiful emotions. Two necessary elements in children's literature are the game and the humor and incorporating these two in a book, would be a great thing to do. In human society the game is one of the oldest phenomena which should be seen as an active process, not a passive one. Coherent aesthetics considers the game as one of most modern theories of aesthetics of the 20th century. The game is present in the spiritual life of a person, especially that of a child.

A writer borrows material from the child's world, elaborates or refines it, thus stimulating and organizing the game, and then gives it back to the child in a more artistic way. Bases on what we just said, it is the professors' duty to encourage the student to search for the game element in the children's books, so that it can be easy for him to find it and be attracted to it.

The same thing applies to the element of humor which is necessary because it gives warmth and interest to children's books. A child up to age ten has a biological need to laugh because it is in his nature to do so, that is why humor has to be present in every literature work for children, even in poetry. It is the teacher's duty to make suggestions for literature work in

which fine and healthy humor is used.

Besides the elements mentioned above that when harmonically combined make the literature work more attractive, there is another important aspect that should be taken under consideration. The book should be attractive not only on the inside but on the outside as well. Considering that the teacher is the example and the role model to which a child is attracted, we should emphasize that the teacher has to demonstrate with concrete actions the value and benefit of the book by showing a special care for the outside of the book. That is why it is necessary for each class of students to create a small library of books under the care of the teacher. This small library should be enriched and protected as a special treasure. The teacher should give the example to the students by showing his interest and care for the books not only for the present but for the future as well. By doing this the children will learn how to respect and honor the book as a valuable source of knowledge and immense educative values as well as artistic, aesthetics and entertaining.

The teacher of literature reading knowing the most important aspects of children's literature can make recommendations for books, so that students can feel connected to the books and the reading process in order for them to get the necessary knowledge, to learn their native language better as well as to benefit creative and expressive skills, all these opportunities given above all from reading artistic books.

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STUDENT-TEACHERS' BELIEFS ABOUT LINGUISTIC AND COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT IN BILINGUAL PRIMARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

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Abstract

The present study aimed at recording Greek student teachers' beliefs in relation to bilingualism and their views on linguistic and cognitive development of bilingual immigrant students who attend Greek primary schools. The sample consisted of 64 fourth year students of the Department of Primary Education of the University of Western Macedonia and Aristotle University of Thessaloniki. The basic research instrument was semi-structured interviews including open questions which were organized into the following thematic strands: a) defining bilingualism, b) factors affecting bilingualism, c) cognitive and linguistic development of bilingual students, d) differences between monolingual and bilingual students' linguistic competence and cognitive/academic performance, e) educational/teaching methods and techniques. The data were analyzed qualitatively based on: a) the Miles and Huberman framework of analysis; b) the Fairclough's critical discourse analysis. The findings of the study revealed student-teachers' misconceptions about certain issues concerning bilingualism and academic and linguistic performance.

Keywords: *Bilingualism, linguistic development, cognitive development, student-teachers*

1. Introduction

Greece has been a destination country for immigrant families mainly coming from Balkan countries since the early 1990s. As a result, the demographics have changed drastically with mainstreaming classrooms hosting students, who speak languages other than Greek. Academics and teachers have proposed and implemented various educational measures in order to accommodate the needs of immigrant students, but in an environment where Greek language is taught as L1 for all students (Chatzidaki 2000).

A number of studies indicated a strong correlation between bilingual students' L1 and L2 literacy skills in cases where students have equal opportunities to develop both languages (Cummins 1991b). It is worth noting that these findings concern not only language systems that are closely related (eg. Italian and Spanish) but also dissimilar languages (Genesee 1979, Sierra & Olaziregi 1991). This supports the common

underlying proficiency model, which refers to the cognitive/academic proficiency that underlies academic performance in both languages (Cummins 1981, Fitzgerald 1995). Furthermore, research has revealed a positive interrelation between additive bilingualism and students' linguistic, cognitive, or academic growth, since people have the capacity to store different languages and to use them with ease.

Certain advantages have been related to bilingualism, including better linguistic skills, sensitivity to feedback cues, cognitive development, divergent thinking, concept formation, classification, creativity, communicative sensitivity and metalinguistic awareness (Cummins & Swain 1986, Diaz & Klinger 1991). Nevertheless, educators, teachers and parents have expressed their fear that learning two languages will confuse children and cause problems in acquiring language skills and have long-term negative effects on their educational achievement (De Houwer 1999). This is because there are certain misconceptions related to bilingual acquisition. One of the most common myths about bilingualism is the "balance theory", upon which the early studies were grounded. According to this theory, two languages exist together in a balance; as the second language develops the first language diminishes. This suggests that the two languages stand isolated from one another and are separately developed and stored in the bilingual's mind. In other words, L1 and L2 develop separately and to the detriment of one another (see Griva et al. in press, Stamou & Dinas 2009).

However, nowadays there is wide scientific consensus that the two languages operate through the same central system. This based on the "iceberg theory" where L1 and L2 are seen as two icebergs above the surface, looking separate from each other, but are fused under the water. This means that L1 and L2 are controlled by the same central processing system, that is, bilinguals are endowed with a "common underlying proficiency" (Cummins 1980, 1981).

A number of researchers have highlighted the significance of identifying teachers' beliefs, as the findings can be of use to teachers themselves, policy makers and other stakeholders (Borg 2001, Clark 1988, Fang 1996,

Nespor 1987, McCarty et al. 2001). This view is based on the assumption that teachers' beliefs can have an impact on their behavior in the classroom and the teaching practices they follow (Ashton 1990, Woods 1996). In these sense, teachers' beliefs are considered the cornerstone of their teaching practices since they influence teacher pedagogy affect teaching and learning process (Charalambous et al. 2002, Donaghue 2003). Expósito and Favela (2003) claimed that teachers' reflecting ideology and the way their belief systems interact with linguistically diverse students is crucial, as their impact may affect students' academic success or failure.

Although there is a bulk of studies on in-service teachers' attitudes and teacher practice in relation to bilingual students, the corresponding bibliography on pre-service teachers' beliefs and conceptions is relatively limited. Understanding pre-service teachers' perspectives is crucial to supporting them in creating responsive classrooms for linguistically and culturally diverse student populations. The reality of current demographics demands a more expansive view of literacy in teacher preparation that responds to the needs of a multilingual society and education. Thus, one of the concerns of Tertiary Education is how to best educate student-teachers on issues of bi/multilingualism bi/multiliteracy and bi/multiculturalism and prepare them for adopting effective pedagogies and implementing appropriate teaching practices (García 1991, Gomez 1994, Halcón 2001).

The diverse linguistic and cultural background of the immigrant populations included in mainstream primary school classes constitutes a teaching and educational challenge. In Greece, although there are numerous studies that focus on in-service teachers' beliefs (Gogonas 2007, Griva & Chostelidou 2011, Griva et al. in press, Griva & Iliadou 2011, Nikolaou 2009), a limited number of studies concerning pre-service teachers' beliefs have been recorded (see Stamou & Dinas 2009).

The present paper is part of a larger research that aimed to provide insight into the beliefs of both pre-service and in-service teachers about issues of bilingualism and bilingual education. In this paper, an attempt was made to record pre-service teachers' beliefs in relation to bilingualism and their views on linguistic and cognitive development of bilingual immigrant

students who attend Greek primary schools. The information about student teachers' beliefs is extremely important in terms of improving their education and their future teaching effectiveness. In this part of the study, the following research questions were set:

- a. How is the bilingual students' linguistic and cognitive profile perceived by the student teachers?
- b. Which are the most crucial factors in defining bilingualism?
- c. Is bilingual students' linguistic competence associated with their school performance?
- d. Which are the most appropriate educational / teaching practices?
- e. Do student teachers feel confident about teaching to multilingual/multicultural classes?

2. The study

2.1. Sample

64 students (42 female and 22 male) attending the last year of their studies in the Departments of Primary Education in Greek Universities participated in the study. The majority of the students came from monolingual Greek families (52 pre-service teachers), while 9 of them came from diglossic contexts (Greek language and Cypriot dialect) and 3 from bilingual families. Only 30 of them attended the course 'Introduction to bilingualism-Bilingualism and Education' at the University, and acquired some theoretical knowledge on bilingualism.

2.2. Instrument

Semi-structured interviews were used as the basic instrument to collect data. The interviews, which were conducted individually with the 64 student teachers, comprised 25 open ended questions. The interviews were tape recorded, transcribed and analyzed by using two methods:

- a. The verbal data underwent the qualitative procedures of analysis: Data reduction, which involved first and second level coding, resulted in groups of categories/sub-categories (Miles & Huberman 1994), which were then classified into basic thematic strands.
- b. The qualitative content analysis of the

interviewees' responses was complemented by a "critical discourse analysis" (e.g. Fairclough 2003, Van Dijk 1993) of the most important topics prioritized by student teachers, such as definitions of bilingualism, differences between bilingual and monolingual students, and issues of teaching readiness. Critical discourse analysis examines lexical and grammatical (e.g. pronouns, syntax) features of texts, considering them to represent social reality and relations, and eventually to carry specific ideological meanings. For the purposes of the present study, our analysis focused on the choices of interviewees regarding lexis, personal deixis and epistemic modality.

3. Results

3.1 Qualitative results

The verbal data, after being analyzed qualitatively, resulted in seventy-six (76) codes that were grouped in twenty-one (21) categories (Miles & Huberman 1994), which were classified into four basic thematic strands (see Tables 1,2,3,4):

- a. bilingual student's profile,
- b. factors affecting bilingualism,
- c. bilingual student's academic performance,
- d. bilingualism & educational/teaching practice

3.1.1. Bilingual pupil's profile

In relation to defining the profile of bilingual students, the majority of pre-service teachers declared three basic criteria: L2 acquisition context (84 references), level of competence in L2 (215 references) and the 'age factor' (137 references). In an attempt to define the profile of bilingual children, a considerable number of the student teachers declared that bilingual students use code mixing from one language to the other when they speak (85 references). Code-mixing was regarded as a compensational strategy employed in cases of vocabulary insufficient use (40 references) or in cases of spontaneous communication and interaction in informal contexts (8 references): *"They may mix their*

languages when they are in a hurry to say something..." (teacher 22), and "they mix languages when they communicate with friends, in a relaxed and loose interaction context" (teacher 15). Moreover, student teachers reported some other reasons for code mixing, such as affective factors (13 references), 'secret' communication amongst bilinguals who share a common language (7 references) and adaptation to the listener's language: "in the case bilinguals speak prestige languages, it is likely that they want to show off their language proficiency" (teacher 64). A large proportion of the sample declared that bilinguals got involved in code switching depending on the communicative situation and the environment. Nevertheless, only a small number of the participants regarded 'code-switching' as an indication of fluency in both languages ("bilinguals are apt to switch from one language to another and use correctly both of them", teacher 41).

On the hand, 'transferring elements from L1 to L2' was considered as an important feature of a bilingual child by a significant number of student teachers, who also pointed out that bilingual children transfer cognitive strategies from L1 to L2. Flexibility and complexity are also mentioned as important features of bilingual children, who are able to handle information and communicate in both languages: "...bilinguals think more practically and flexibly. That's due to the fact that they know two languages" (teacher 7).

However, most participants highlighted the social exclusion that bilinguals may experience (45 references) due to language inefficiency in L2 that prohibits them from communicating effectively with peers. A Cypriot student-teacher mentioned: "I'd rather communicate with Cypriots, I don't feel comfortable with Greeks and I always have to think what to say and how" (teacher 59). Furthermore, the participants pointed out a number of difficulties encountered by bilingual children, such as:

- linguistic confusion (59 references), particularly at the early stages of L2 acquisition,
- language interference: "They may confuse their languages as a result of a bulk of information in their minds" (teacher 10) and
- translation because of low competence level in the L2 that 'blocks' productive skills.

Also, a certain number of the student teachers considered code-switching to be an indicator of poor language acquisition that could result into inefficient communication: "...code-switching is definitely a sign of confusion, as the proficient speakers do not switch between languages" (teacher 12), and identified bilingual students as being incompetent language learners both in L1 and L2.

Table 1: Categories and codes of the thematic strand 'bilingual students' profile'

Categories	Codes	Occur.
A. BILINGUAL STUDENTS' PROFILE		
Common basic skills	LANGINTERDE = Language interdependence	59
Functional Alteration	COSWCOMPUCO = Code-switching depending on the communicative purpose and context	84
	FLCOMPLTHI = Flexibility and complexity of thinking	28
	STRLINTRAL1L2 = Structural and linguistic transfer from L1 to L2	34
	STRTRAL1L2 = Strategy transfer from L1 to L2	25
	COMSENFL = Communicative sensibility and flexibility	10
	COMICOMPSTR = Code mixing as a compensatory strategy	85
The role of the social context	BICULCON = Bicultural contact	38
	L2IMEDSOCCON = L2 imposed by the educational/social context	30

Categories	Codes	Occur.
A. BILINGUAL STUDENTS' PROFILE		
	SOCISOL = Social isolation	45
	L1FACSOCACC = Strong L1 as determinant factor for the social acceptance of the bilingual student	14
Linguistic constraints	CODSWINEF = Code-switching as an indicator for language inefficiency	42
	INPROLAN = Inadequate productive skills in oral language	35
	INPROLAN = Inadequate productive skills in written language	40
	SLRAVERB = Slow rate of verbal response/interaction	28
	TRANSL1L2 = Translation from L1 to L2	51
	CONFLAN = Confusion between languages	59

3.1.2. Factors affecting bilingualism

The main factors that participants supported to influence bilingual cognitive and linguistic development were the social aspects of bilingualism (152 references), the age of L2 acquisition (72 references) and similarity between the languages (59 references).

The participants mentioned the role of peers (38.2%), parental involvement (33.6%) and school context (28.2%) as the most important social factors. Almost half of the participants highlighted that social interaction with peers promotes communicative skills: *"...in case there is a language deficiency, bilinguals will have to make up other ways to communicate their message"* (teacher 39). Parents' positive stance towards learning L2 is considered of the utmost importance (teacher 49). The majority of the participants declared that school context promotes only the dominant language since *"bilingual students spend many hours at school where they are taught the L2, so they learn it"* (teacher 11). Moreover, the assimilation policy implemented to the Greek educational system fail to support bilingual and bicultural

development: *"the immigrant children have no opportunity to develop and practice his/her mother tongue, because the educational system promotes only the acquisition of Greek language"* (teacher 26).

With regard to the age of L2 acquisition, the majority of the participants strongly believed that there is an interrelationship between L2 competence and school attainment (60 references). They referred to a critical period in language acquisition, ranged from birth till the 6th year, and highlighted a number of academic and learning benefits related to early bilingualism: *"if a bilingual child initiates learning L1 and L2 at an early age, he/she can learn both languages very fluently"* (teacher 30).

It was recorded that half of the participants consider L1 and L2 similarity as a factor that contributes to a) easy bilingual acquisition (34 references), and b) facilitating vocabulary acquisition in L2 (25 references): *"if L2 is similar to L1, the bilingual child can make L1- L2 word/sound associations..."* (teacher 44).

Table 2: Categories and codes of the thematic strand 'factors affecting bilingualism'

Categories	Codes	Occur.
B. FACTORS AFFECTING BILINGUALISM		
Social	SCHENVI = School environment	35
	ASSSCH = Assimilative school context	20
	PEE = The role of peers	43

	FAMLANENH = The role of family in language enhancement	36
Age of L2 acquisition	ADEARL2ACQ = Advantages of early L2 acquisition	72
Language similarity	CRLINGIDENT = Cross linguistic identification	34
	L1L2WAS = L1 – L2 word associations	25

3.1.3. Bilingual student's academic performance

Concerning student's academic performance, pre-service teachers indicated various and even contradictory stances towards bilingual students' language competence and their performance in other school subjects (see Table 3). The majority of them seemed to relate bilingual students' language level with their school performance (60 references), assuming that a high competence in L2 is closely associated with high performance in language tasks.

A certain number of the participants regarded bilingual development as an 'asset': *"...bilingual development is an advantage, since it broadens cognitive horizons in general"* (teacher 8). They also supported the view that bilingual students show a better performance at school compared to monolingual peers: *"It is believed that bilinguals are inferior to monolinguals, but I have read a number of studies that have revealed the opposite outcomes"* (teacher 4). On the contrary, the

same number of participants supported the view that bilingual students indicate limited language skills compared to monolingual ones: *"A bilingual will never catch up a monolingual one in L2 skills"* (teacher 7).

It is worth mentioning that contradictory ideas were held among the respondents in relation to bilingualism and students' performance in mathematics. The majority of the participants expressed the view that L2 proficiency does not have an impact on their performance in mathematics, since mathematics is an international 'code' that children possess before starting acquiring L2 (23 references). On the contrary, 15 student teachers claimed that performance in science subjects is closely associated to L2 competence: *"If they have not adequately developed L2 skills, how are they supposed to solve a math problem? They won't understand what they are asked to perform..."* (teacher 52).

Table 3: Categories and codes of the thematic strand 'bilingual student's academic performance'

Categories	Codes	Occur.
C. BILINGUAL STUDENT'S ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE		
Academic Language competence	INTELANPER = Interrelation between language competence and school performance	60
	LOPERLAN = Low performance in language courses	35
	CONSMON = Constraints in language skills compared to monolinguals	19
Achievement in science subjects	INDELANSKI = Interdependence between language competence and achievement in science subjects	71
	NOASLASC = No association of language competence with achievement in science subjects	15

3.1.4. Educational/teaching practices

Concerning the educational and teaching practices, pre-service teachers stressed the need

for activating students' bicultural background (32%), so as to encourage immigrant students' smooth class inclusion and familiarize other peers with intercultural aspects: *"I think that the*

foreign pupil would feel more comfortable if we discussed about their country and their culture in class" (teacher 60). Enhancing L2 vocabulary strategies and encouraging students' communication in Greek were favourite teaching strategies, which could contribute to the avoidance of code-mixing from the part of bilingual students (*"I would tell them that now we are in Greece, so they have to try to communicate in Greek"* (teacher 6). Moreover, some other participants insisted on the fact that systematic exposure and practice in L2 was of first priority *"...they should watch Greek TV programs, read books in Greek and play with Greeks"* (teacher 9).

Half of the participants agreed on establishing bilingual education and supported that the formal teaching of L1 will enforce and promote L2 learning (43%) *"...the more the L1 is developed the better the L2 would be acquired..."* (teacher 2). Those who supported L1 maintenance of immigrant students considered language as a means of their cultural maintenance: *"...they should not give up their mother language, as they can maintain their*

cultural identity" (teacher 38). On the contrary, almost half of the participants seemed to adopt a rather assimilative stance towards bilingual students' education: *"...We live in Greece, if they want to learn their language they should return to their country"* (teacher 61). Family contribution to students' bilingual development was also pointed out by almost half of the participants, who highlighted the beneficial outcomes from practicing both L1 and L2 at home: *"parents should expose their child in both languages, the more the better. Unless the family supports L2, the child won't love it"* (teacher 59).

Interviewees were also asked to estimate their own teaching readiness in terms of facing the challenges of a multilingual class. In their vast majority, student teachers indicated lack of confidence and self-efficacy to undertake such a responsibility (40 references). They also declared that they would feel more confident if they knew bilingual students' first language; for this reason they proposed close cooperation with a bilingual teacher assistant (24 references).

Table 4: Categories and codes of the thematic strand 'educational/teaching practices'

Categories	Codes	Occur.
D. EDUCATIONAL/TEACHING PRACTICES		
Use of teaching strategies	PARL2 = Paraphrasing in L2	31
	USSYN = Using synonyms	10
	DEVOCSTR = Developing vocabulary strategies	18
	ENCOBILVER = Encouraging bilingual students to communicate verbally	18
	REPWOR = Repeating words/phrases	9
	USIMAG = Using imagery	7
	IMCORVOC = Immediate correction of mistakes	27
	SYSEXPL2 = Systematic out of school practice in L2	15
	ACTBICULBAC = Activating bicultural background	63
Bilingual education	INTBILTEAS = Introduction of bilingual teacher assistant	72
	DEL1CULTIDMAI = development of L1 as a means of cultural identity maintenance	35
	ASSTHRIMMEDU = Assimilation through immersion education	29
	PARL1L2TEAC = L1 and L2 teaching	74
Parental involvement	ENCL2PRA = Encouragement for L2 practice	32
	ENCL1PRA = Encouragement for L1 practice	9
	DEL1L2 = Development of both L1 and L2	36

Categories	Codes	Occur.
D. EDUCATIONAL/TEACHING PRACTICES		
Teaching Qualifications	LACTEACEXP = Lack of teaching experience	53
	NCOMULECL = Non- confident to teaching in multi-level classrooms	16
	DEL1CULTIDMAI = Development of L1 as a means of cultural identity maintenance	35
	ASSTHRIMMEDU= Assimilation through immersion education	29
	PARL1L2TEAC = L1 and L2 teaching	74

3.2. Results from discourse analysis

Regarding the use of evaluation in their responses (see Table 5), it was found that when defining bilingualism, student teachers expressed both positive and negative feelings. Positive evaluation involved the assets thought to characterize bilingual students, such as communicative skills and sophisticated mind (e.g. *“they have a more sophisticated kind of thinking because they have grown up in an environment with a lot of stimuli”*), whereas negative evaluation mostly concerned problems of communication (*“a bilingual person has a difficulty in communicating with other people”*). On the other hand, when referring to the differences related to the school performance thought to exist between bilingual and monolingual students, the respondents mostly employed negative evaluative lexis, in order to allude to the poorer school performance of bilingual compared with monolingual students due to the confusion caused by L1 (e.g. *“They [bilinguals] are certainly confused, they will forget something, whereas monolinguals have not this problem”*). With regard to the exploitation of bilingualism at school, the respondents expressed both positive and negative sentiments. Positive evaluation concerned the construction of bilingualism as an asset for students that should be utilized in class (e.g. *“I would refer many times to his/her [bilingual’s] different ethnic origin in order to stress that diversity has to offer us a lot of things”*). In contrast, through negative evaluative lexis, interviewees focused on the difficulties a teacher encounters when he/she has to deal with a bilingual child who does not speak well L2 (e.g. *“when a student does not know the school*

language, it is very difficult to work with him/her, he/she has to understand what you are saying”). Finally, regarding teaching readiness, student teachers mainly used negative evaluative items, through which they wished to express their unwillingness to deal with bilingual students due to their lack of experience and training (e.g. *“It is not right to require Greek teachers to teach bilingual students, they have no experience to do that”*).

With regard to the selections of the respondents made in personal deixis, it was found that they opted for the adoption of an impersonal style (through the use of a third personal deictic) when they talked about bilingualism in general (thematic strand 1 and 2: e.g. *“the fact that they don’t know the language and that Greek people are racist discourages them [bilinguals]”*), making their ideas seem commonsensical and taken-for-granted. Conversely, they were shown more personally involved (through the use of the first singular personal deictic) when they referred to topics concerning the teaching of bilinguals (thematic strand 3 and 4: e.g. *“I can’t do such a good job [with bilingual students] as a bilingual teacher could do”*).

Finally, regarding epistemic modality, in most of their responses, interviewees avoided using some modal item in order to signal either their certainty or doubt about the views they expressed. In this way, they tended to make categorical assertions (as Halliday 1994, p. 89 puts it: *“you only say you are certain when you are not”*), and therefore they made their ideas become naturalized. Interestingly, the greater number of categorical assertions was made with respect to the definitions of bilingualism (e.g. *“a bilingual person is somebody whose mother or*

father comes from another country from which they live”), and thus student teachers made their subjective judgements (and even misconceptions) about what bilingualism involves to seem as universal truths. In contrast, they expressed doubts through the use of some epistemic modal item in more controversial issues, such as the school performance of bilingual students (e.g. “they may be better than monolinguals, I do not preclude it, but usually

this isn’t the case”), or their readiness to teach bilingual children (e.g. “I don’t feel like accepting this responsibility [to teach bilinguals]”).

Table 5: Appearance of linguistic items in interviewees’ responses

<i>Thematic strands</i>	1. Definition of bilingualism		2. Differences related to school performance between bilingual and monolingual students		3. Bilingualism & educational/teaching practice		4. Teaching readiness	
<i>Evaluation</i>	(N)	(F%)	(N)	(F%)	(N)	(F%)	(N)	(F%)
Positive evaluation	74	53.6	257	33.0	103	53.9	15	26.8
Negative evaluation	64	46.4	522	67.0	88	46.1	41	73.2
Total	138	100.0	779	100.0	191	100.0	56	100.0
<i>Personal deixis</i>								
Impersonal style/ no reference to interviewee	26	92.9	61	92.4	285	53.2	50	28.6
Personal style/ reference to interviewee	2	7.1	5	7.4	251	46.8	125	71.4
Total	28	100.0	66	100.0	536	100.0	175	100.0
<i>Modality</i>								
Epistemic Modality	171	38.3	434	47.9	243	43.2	84	42.6
Absence of epistemic modality	275	61.7	472	52.1	320	56.8	113	57.4
Total	446	100.0	906	100.0	563	100.0	197	100.0

4. Concluding remarks

The present study provided a wealth of qualitative data that informed us about student teachers’ beliefs concerning the cognitive and linguistic development of bilingual students and revealed certain misconceptions, as well as their lack of confidence to treat children coming from different cultural and linguistic context. Despite

the fact that student teachers acknowledged various cognitive advantages in bilingual thinking and proposed a variety of teaching strategies to make advantage of bilingualism, they (especially the students who do not attend any courses related to bilingualism and multicultural education) expected bilingual students to have communication problems and show lower performance in language skills.

Childhood bilingualism was reported by the student teachers to show academic advantages over monolingualism. In optimal circumstances of learning, these advantages are related to cognitive, linguistic and communicative sector. These findings are in line with those of previous studies examining and indicating the communicative sensitivity and metalinguistic ability of bilingual children or issues on L1 in L2 acquisition (Griva & Chostelidou 2011, Skourtou 2005, Stamou & Dinas 2009, Sutton 2006). The factors perceived as significant in bilingual acquisition encompassed L1 development, social context, practice in L2, parental involvement and teaching methodology, factors that have already been revealed to promote bilingual attainment in previous studies (Sutton, 2006).

Bilingual students' school attainment was mainly esteemed as low and closely associated with language proficiency level (see also Skourtou 2000, 2002). On the contrary, most of them believed that students' language capabilities do not affect their performance on mathematics. Among the practices and strategies that student teachers reported using as effective means of teaching bilingual students, activation of students' bicultural background, paraphrasing and cooperation with an assistant bilingual teacher were the most favourite.

Nevertheless they showed lack of confidence when called to indicate effective teaching strategies for bilingual pupils, as the majority of teachers who were surveyed by Kamabenick & Clemens Noda (2004). For this purpose, they stressed the needed for receiving effective education and training on issues related to bilingualism and bilingual/multilingual education (Alexander et al., 1999). Although the present study is limited in scope, the data indicated the need for including core courses related to bi/multilingualism and bi/multilingual education in the syllabi of Tertiary education.

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TEACHING AND LEARNING ENGLISH GRAMMAR: THE ALBANIAN STUDENTS' VIEWS

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Abstract

This paper discusses the findings of a study recently undertaken to investigate the students' perceptions on grammar instruction at the English Department of the Faculty of Philology and Education of "Fan S. Noli" University in Albania with the purpose of considering them in teaching the English grammar. The paper presents the general organization of the grammar courses of English department of 'Fan S. Noli' University and students' views on the importance of grammar for an accurate written and spoken use of language, and on the pedagogy of grammar. The results obtained indicate that the students value grammar in their study of English. Their assessment of the grammar courses is positive. Theoretical and practical approaches to grammar study are highly rated.

Keywords: *grammar, importance, teaching activities, students' views*

1. Introduction

1.1. The general organization of the grammar courses at English Department:

This piece of research emerges as the result of my dissatisfaction with my own and my learners' work development in teaching and learning English grammar at the English language program of "Fan S. Noli" University. Our students show imperfect mastery of English in written and particularly spoken communication. The grammar courses include morphology course and syntax one. Each of them consists of 75 classes. They are mainly concerned with the study of basic concepts in grammar, the standard grammatical description of the language including the structure of words, phrases, clauses and sentences. The methodological procedures used are mainly lectures, critical reading of the given lecture and some descriptive grammars (Quirk et al. 1985, Burton –Roberts 1986, Leech et al. 2006, Greenbaum 1989), some practical written and oral exercises (using Hewings 2000, Eastwood 2006, Vince 1998; Pagoulatou-Vlachou 1995, Graver 1997) and writing essays. Each grammatical issue is presented in the lecture session and it is further discussed and practised in the seminar session by using a variety of techniques: brainstorming, elicitation,

discussion, question and answer, group work, pair work etc. We try to involve the students in both lecture and seminar sessions. The students' progress is evaluated through written tests, observation and self-assessment of their essays. Their results have not been satisfactory. That is the reason for undertaking this survey. By exploring their views on grammar teaching and learning, it is aimed to reconsider our future approaches to grammar teaching as to help the students learn and use English effectively and accurately in both written and spoken communication.

Before presenting the study it is important to make a brief introduction of the general approaches to language and grammar teaching. They help the reader to understand the past and the recent views on grammar and its pedagogy in foreign language classes.

1.2. General approaches to grammar teaching

Historically, there are 3 general approaches to the teaching of grammar (Nassaji & Fotos 2011: 1-14).

The traditional approach focuses on forms. It is represented by grammar-based methods which conceptualized teaching with a focus on grammar: grammar-translation, audio-lingual, oral and situational, silent way, total physical response and presentation-practice-production. They all emphasized the role of grammar in learning a foreign language. This approach is based on the assumption that language consists of grammatical forms that can be acquired sequentially and additively. The classes were organized based on the study of grammatical rules (explained explicitly) and structures, and the analysis of language forms, with little focus on language functions. The rise of structural linguistics shifted the focus from the study of the parts of speech to a description of its structural and phonological components. Audio-lingual method still focusing on learning grammar structures viewed grammar teaching as a deductive and linear presentation of the rules (Richards & Rodgers 2001).

Grammar based approaches have been found inadequate in communicative needs of learners. As a result, a new approach developed, focus on meaning. It was based on the assumption that learners are able to analyze language inductively. Thus, communication-

based methods focused on an exposure to meaningful communication by using meaning-based activities (with no attention to form). They led to a shift from a focus on language forms to a focus on meaning and language use in communicative contexts. They developed syllabi based on functional use of language. Communication-based methods differ from one another in terms of the degree to which they allow a focus on grammar forms. The strong version claims that language is learned through communication: notional-functional curriculums emphasized language functions (greetings, requests, etc.), content-based focused on integrating language and content, task-based language teaching emphasized engagement in meaning-focused activities. A weak version claims learning in a more controlled manner by using and practicing it in communicative contexts (Thornbury 2008).

But even these approaches are found inadequate. Some type of focus on grammatical forms is necessary to develop high levels of accuracy in the target language. "If the goal of second language learning is the development of communicative competence, enabling learners to use language for communicative purposes, then grammar and communication must be integrated" (Nassaji & Fotos 2004: 131). For this reason, many authors have supported the recent approach to grammar teaching 'a focus on both grammar and meaning'. They have developed frameworks for grammar teaching incorporating a focus on form into meaningful communication. Several proposals have recently been made on ways to combine grammar instruction with the opportunities for communicative input and output; the challenge is to identify the best ways of doing it (ibid.). Larsen-Freeman has proposed a communicative model of grammar teaching that includes 3 dimensions: form, meaning and use (the development of knowledge about the formal structure of a language, knowledge about meaning of a language and knowledge about when, where and how to use that form) (Nassaji & Fotos 2011: 12).

2. The study

2.1. Objectives

The aim of this study is to find out our students' attitude and preferences for grammar teaching

and learning in order to involve them in our grammar teaching.

2.2. Methodology

The participants in this study were 32 students of the third course of English Teaching Study Program of the Faculty of Philology and Education, at "Fan Noli" University. They are from these areas of Albania: Korca, Pogradec, Devoll and Perrenjas. The students of the third course were purposively selected on the assumption that a) they have finished all grammar classes and language skill classes in which they were supposed to apply grammatical knowledge they had studied; b) they have finished the methodology class in which they were supposed to understand the foreign language learning and teaching processes. A questionnaire, adapted from Palacios (Palacios 2007), was used to obtain the data related to the students' views on English grammar teaching and learning. The data was collected at the end of the last academic year (June 2012). The questionnaire consisted of two parts:

The first one contained 6 open questions. Students were asked to provide their own definition of grammar and state their views on English grammatical areas considered to be the most interesting and most difficult for them. It was also questioned on the general organization of the grammar courses of the English language Bachelor's degree, which included an assessment of their contents, strengths and weaknesses.

In the second part, students had to rate a list of 14 different statements on a scale from 1 to 5 according to their degree of agreement or disagreement. The first four statements concentrate on students' views on the importance and value of grammar in learning English and for an accurate written and spoken English use. The other statements are connected with the pedagogy of grammar: their preferred approach to grammar (explicit or implicit), the usefulness of teachers' explanations and contrastive analysis between English and Albanian, importance of rules and practical exercises, discovery learning tasks in the study of English grammar, relevance of contextualized practice and grammatical terminology in learning it, the role of bibliographical references and sentence parsing in understanding it.

They answered the questionnaire in their own time and returned them anonymously.

2.3. Results and discussion

2.3.1 Views on grammar definition, the most interesting and most difficult grammatical areas, and the organization of grammar courses

Analyzing students' answer to the first question (What does the grammar of a language mean to you?) it is provided the result that only some students have a prescriptive viewpoint of grammar defining it as a set of rules of a language important to construct a correct sentence (Examples of students' answer: 'a set of rules that govern the language; written rules that help us to learn better the language'). Most of the students combine a prescriptive view point with the descriptive one considering grammar as a set of rules that helps them to use the language correctly and effectively in communication (some mentioning written communication, some others oral communication, others both of them: 'Grammar includes rules that help us to speak and write well', 'Grammar is a set of rules important to convey the right meaning of a sentence /... to speak effectively/ ... to communicate.'). It is evident that the study of grammar is seen as an instrument to use language correctly and effectively. Learners are concerned with grammatical rules, the study of the form of language for the practical use of the language.

The results from the second question (What aspect of the English grammar is the most interesting and attractive for you?) showed that a large number of students referred to morphology (or grammatical aspects studied in morphology such as verb tenses, verb forms, prepositions, nouns) as their preferred area. The fact that I taught them Morphology may have conditioned their replies. Some others referred to lexis and phonology; none of them referred to syntax or text/discourse analysis.

Referring to the answers of the third question (What aspect of the English grammar is the most difficult for you?), syntax was mentioned as the most difficult area of English grammar by most of the students. Many students' answers included grammatical aspects as conditionals, passive sentences and constituents; a small number of students referred to phonology, prepositions and idioms.

Questions 4, 5 and 6 elicited the students' evaluation of the grammar courses and the

organization of grammar teaching: 'How do you think the courses of English grammar (Morphology, Syntax) are organized in the present curriculum of English department? What aspects would you change?', 'Do you consider the contents of the English grammar courses adequate? What changes would you make?', 'Indicate three positive and three negative aspects of the English grammar lessons in this year; if you cannot think of any, leave it blank.' Generally all the students gave a positive evaluation of the grammar courses. The majority of the students shared the opinion of well organized courses, clear explanation, a variety of activities and adequate contents. A small number of students stated that more activities are needed to practice grammar sufficiently and make lessons simpler because of the difference of the students' level of language proficiency.

2.3.2. Views on the Importance of Grammar Teaching

As shown in table 1 below, the students' view on the importance of grammar in English learning

process was very high; it is rated with the highest values (4.71) on a scale where the top value is 5. The result related to the students' view on the importance of grammar in communication was lower, 3.46; the students may have referred to being able to communicate effectively rather than expressing themselves with accuracy. Lower results were obtained for the two following statements 'which are expanded versions of the latter (Palacios 2007)': 2.28, 2.4. A small number of students (8) support the possibility to speak and write well English without mastering the grammar. Most of them tend to correlate grammar with written and spoken communication strengthening their view that grammar plays an important role in speaking and writing well. Referring to the lower results, we agree with Palacio guessing that referring to speaking and writing well, the students may mean 'being able to communicate effectively rather than expressing themselves with accuracy in writing and speech' (ibid.).

Table 1: Students' view on the importance of grammar in English learning and use

Nr	Statements	Responses					The scaled result
		Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree or disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	
1	Grammar plays an important role in the study of English.	26	4	1	1	0	4.71
2	The knowledge of English grammar is indispensable for using the language to communicate.	3	17	8	0	4	3.46
3	It is possible to speak English well without any grammatical knowledge.	3	5	4	6	14	2.28
4	It is possible to write English well without any grammatical knowledge	2	4	8	9	9	2.4

2.3.3. Views on the techniques and activities for the teaching and learning of grammar

The students' views concerning with different techniques and activities for the teaching and

learning of grammar are shown in table 2. The results show that studying the rules of grammar, syntactic analysis of phrases and sentences, lecture's explanations are considered very important in English grammar teaching and learning as they are rated with the highest values

(respectively 4.37, 4.28 and 4.25). This finding is supported by the quite high average (3.34) obtained for the importance of studying terminology in learning English grammar as such knowledge is needed to be active in the above activities. Contrastive analysis of English with Albanian and reading bibliography about English grammar are viewed as useful in the study of grammar and understanding of the language system; though they are rated with the lowest figure (3.25), it is closer to the positive end than to the negative. Practical exercises and self-

discovering activities are also considered useful activities in English grammar teaching and learning as they are rated higher than 4 (respectively 4.12 and 4.09). This finding is supported by the quite high values (3.81 and 3.53) given to the importance of contextualized grammar practice and implicit teaching rather than explicit teaching.

These figures evidently denote that the students are interested in both grammatical theory and practical use of grammar.

Table 2: Students' views on the techniques and activities for the teaching and learning of grammar

Nr	Statements	Responses					The scaled result
		Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree or disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	
1	Lecture's explanations are in general useful for the study of Grammar	12	16	4	0	0	4.25
2	The teaching of grammar must be done implicitly rather than explicitly	5	8	18	1	0	3.53
3	Contrastive analysis of English with Albanian is useful in the study of grammar	5	6	16	2	3	3.25
4	Contextualized grammar practice is relevant in the learning of English Grammar	8	15	5	3	1	3.81
5	Studying the rules is important in learning English grammar.	16	12	4	0	0	4.37
6	Activities for discovering grammatical phenomena are truly effective	7	21	4	0	0	4.09
7	Practical exercises are important in the study of English grammar	14	11	5	1	1	4.12
8	The Study of terminology is important in the learning of English grammar	2	9	19	2	0	3.34
9	Syntactic analysis of phrases and sentences helps immensely to better understand English grammar	13	15	4	0	0	4.28
10	Reading bibliography about	3	10	11	8	0	3.25

Nr	Statements	Responses					The scaled result
		Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree or disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	
	English grammar helps immensely in understanding it.						

3. Conclusion

Students' involvements in the course design will make them feel more responsible and autonomous and more motivated to learn English. The findings of this study revealed that the third-year students of English Teaching Study Program of "Fan S.Noli" University basically viewed grammar very important in their study of English. The most useful activities for understanding English grammar were studying the rules of grammar, syntactic parsing and lecture's explanations.

Knowledge of grammar is also viewed important in spoken and written communication despite of a lower result. It is supported by quite high figures obtained from the other statements in the questionnaire. Students regarded as important practical exercises, self-discovery learning activities, contextualized grammar practice, implicit to explicit teaching - characteristic techniques of communicative approaches. These techniques increase students' autonomy in the learning process. But a number of popular grammar practice books are characterized methodologically by the provision of descriptions of grammatical points and controlled production exercises (Ellis 2002). The use of Internet and working with general and learner corpora can be useful tools for teaching grammar implicitly (Palacios 2007: 135).

The findings of the present study indicated that students are interested in theoretical, prescriptive and formal perspectives to language teaching and learning as well as in practical, descriptive and functional approaches, as the basis for a fluent and accurate use of the target language. It is our responsibility to find and apply alternative methods to the teaching of grammar focusing on both form and meaning.

Since this study focuses on the perceptions of English teacher training students with quite limited respondents from a single course and

department, future study can probably be carried out by covering a larger number of students from various courses and non-English departments; it can help us as teachers and researchers in our daily teaching practice. Studies can also be carried out to investigate lecturers' view on grammar teaching in English classes.

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THE POWER OF MARVELOUS IN THE FAIRYTALES

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Abstract

The marvelous has always been the core of plenty of artful books, exciting the reader to delimitate whether the fantastic element in the text may have its own real explanation. This paper is orientated towards the fairytales as the closest genre to the marvelous, and its objective is first, to distinguish between the perceiving and encountering of the fairytales by both the children and the adults and then to indicate the aspects of how the power of the miraculous in the fairytales is used for educative and commercial purposes. Pointing to these supernatural, stunning marvelous elements and their influence on the children's fantasy, the paper combines a brief analysis of the fairytales of the Grimm brothers to the following issues: the confirmation of the fantastic and magic elements in the fairytales and the development of the imagination of children based upon the influence of the media; the moral message from the fables; how adults should narrate the fairytales to the children in order to keep their attention and make them think of wonders. The results of the research regarding the children's interests, daydreams and fancies which point to imaginative ideas for the future adaptations and writing of the fairytales are presented in the paper.

Keywords: *children literature, moral message, fantastic, magic, imagination, media*

1. Introduction

Since ancient times people wanted to narrate and re-tell various events which either really happened or they fantasized about and dreamed of. In fact, it is in the very core of the human to dream, to languish and to aspire, to imagine and to share it with the other people. This is how the stories became the first literary genre, being communicated from one generation to another.

The dreams and imagination of the people are mostly for something incredible, inexistent and distant: something unseen before. Therefore, most of the stories are abound with fantastic elements, magic, miracles and wonders. It is perhaps for these elements that many old stories sustained to the time and are still being narrated. On the other side, because of the fantastic elements, but also, their simple and rich in symbolism language, the stories belong to the

literature for children. As such, they could be immensely useful if they are appropriately used for educative purposes because of their positive influence over the imagination and creativity of children, the growth of their personality and moral behavior.

This paper is directed towards the stories and its purpose is to briefly present them and their attractiveness for the readers.

2. A brief aspect on the fairy-tales

The fairy-tale is a short story which, because of the language on which is written and its structure, is primarily intended to be a literature for children. On the other side, the myths and the legends are as well ranked in the genre of fairy-tales. Depending on the way on which they are interpreted, as well as the simplicity of their language, these types of literature units can be classified as fairy-tales for children or myths and legends which are closer to the adults.

In fact, since ancient times, people loved to talk and narrate events which were entirely or only partly true. In time, the narration of such events was only being enriched with exceptional and fabulous elements in order to be more applicable and interesting. This is how the myths and legends were created, while by adding more fantastic elements, the fairy-tales emerged as well. Because of the fact that the fairy-tales include fantastic elements linked to the main protagonists, the animals and other strange creatures which could talk, or the incredibly shiny and magical lands, they are considered to be literature for children.

Almost every fairy-tale starts with the phrase: "once upon a time..." and has a happy ending. The main activity of the fairy-tales usually takes place in a castle, forest or a distant and magic land. There are good and bad characters in every tale, but the good always wins; the main protagonists in the tale are mostly princes and princesses, beauties, wise men but also villains, and other fantastic beasts and animals. All these elements are very significant for the development of the fantasy at children; listening to the story, they imagine a different world than the one they live in, and they develop their imagination and creativity. The children are enthralled by the tales mostly because of the magic elements that they contain.

"With a flick of the magic wand the pumpkin turned into a sparkling coach and the mice became six white horses, while the seventh mouse turned into a coachman in a smart uniform and carrying a whip. Cinderella could hardly believe her eyes."¹

This is how they come closer to the invisible, the inexistent around them, but somehow very true and objective. Led by the actions of the good characters inside the story and identifying with them, the children construct their behavior believing that it will be noticed by the people in their surroundings; and it really is noticeable, mainly because children learn plenty of moral and ethical messages which are significant for their overall development. The happy ending of the fairy-tale influences the child's perception of the world- to believe that the justice and the kindness are indispensable human characteristics, and that only by applying them, every child can eventually grow up to become a respective citizen in the society.

But, to what extent are the fairy-tales interesting for the adults? Have you questioned yourself how many adult people keep a record of their favorite tale in their home library- and even more, how often they read it again and again? On what way do the adults perceive the tale with all its fantastic elements- and how important it is for them in order to realize the meaning of life?

The fairy-tale has a totally different perception in the mind of the child and in the mind of the adult. It will bring a tranquil dream to the child who innocently will believe in all its miracles and wonders. But, the adult person will have various interpretations of the story- starting from its moral thought through the wise message for the life and the essence of living.

"The Vessel of Birch Bark" is a tale by the Macedonian writer Vidoe Podgorec and this used to be my favorite story which I re-read many times. The story circles around the four-member family of squirrels who assiduously collect food together in order to have sufficient stock for the winter; and in doing so, they get help from some other animals, the woodpecker, the beaver, and so on. But, when the spring comes, the two little squirrels Dolgoskok and Runoopaska leave their home, waving hands to their parents, and starting a new life on their own. This story has a happy ending, however, it

¹ An extract of the story for Cinderella

was something that couldn't just remind me of happiness for years- because, yes, the four squirrels managed to go through the fierce and cold winter and survived, but the brethren left the place when the first spring sunshine arrived. My mother tried to imbue me to the real meaning of the life, its fluctuation and motion because of the laws of the nature, but it was not until I had to leave my mother's house that I realized the true story within the story.

2.1. Teaching through the fairy-tales

As mentioned above, apart from the fantastic elements that they contain, the fairy-tales always have a hidden moral thought within them. Because of that, their usage for educative purposes is enormous. There are many filmed versions of the fairy-tales as well. However, as part of the literature, the fairy-tales may be used among the students from the higher classes as well, primarily because of the didactics and the positive psychology which they transfer. As an example, a story by the Grimm brothers will be differently analyzed at the kindergarten and at the primary school students. For the kindergarten children it will be sufficient to just narrate the story by themselves, thus showing that they have understood it either orally or visually, by drawing a cartoon for it. On the other side, the students from higher classes will focus on the language which the story is written on, a detailed analysis of the main protagonists, the theme and idea of the story and perhaps its adaptation in the today's world thus developing their writing abilities and creative minds.

Though it might be hard to imagine that the good always prevails over the bad, it truly happens. From the other side, there are the Aesop short stories which are somehow a must for every home library. The moral messages of these stories have a significant meaning for the human relations, in particular in today's time. I do believe everybody can recognize these morals and the story behind them: "Outside show is a poor substitute for the inner worth", "Any excuse will serve a tyrant", "Do not have sorrow not over what is lost forever", "United we stand, divided we fall", "Love can tame the wildest", "Words can be deeds".² Aesop through his short stories teaches various life wisdoms, using the animals (mostly snake, fox, wolf, dog,

grasshopper and ant) as the main protagonists. In fact, they are such short stories and their size is simply their magic- to transfer the positive thought in only a few lines; and to make a picturesque presentation of a real life situation, so that the readers will just identify with it.

On the other side, the stories for Cinderella, the Snow White and the Seven Dwarves, The Sleeping Beauty are of a different thematic. Here, the main characters are always vulnerable, and there is a need for a lot of courage and positive energy from the other marvelous creatures in order for them to be saved; but this fantasy moves from the flying angels, to dwarves, pets which talk, birds which clean the houses and wizards who make magic. The core of these types of fairy-tales is the presentation of the people, the human relations, and the value of the unity and the family.

Therefore, the method of narration of the fairy-tales is very important. Their primary goal is to be used for educative purposes and to impact the appropriate psychological development at children. This is why they should be very cautiously used for other purposes, like marketing because besides the plenty of filmed versions of the fairy-tales, they are used as a basis for advertisements as well. Just for an example, a telephone company broadcasted an advertisement based on the story of the Redhead and the wolf just the last year in the Republic of Macedonia. The advertisement obtained extremely high rating and popularity, but the story of the Redhead and the wolf was contemporarily adapted and presented in only one minute, thus bearing a hidden immoral message with sexual connotation. As a result, the academic and marketing representatives entered into a profound discussion for the values and the final results of the action mainly because of the influence it has on the youngest population and TV viewers.

2.2. The language of the fairy-tales

As we mentioned above, the language of the fairy-tales is slightly different from the one used in the popular literature. This is mainly because of the plethora of stylistic figures, epithets and word coinages, even a usage of new, magic words, in order to envisage the story.

"Snow White in the dark forest began to cry bitterly. She thought she could feel terrible eyes spying on her, and she heard strange sounds and

² End-notes of the Aesop tales

rustlings that made her heart thump. At last, overcome by tiredness, she fell asleep curled under a tree. Snow White slept fitfully, waking from time to time with a start and staring into darkness round her. Several times she thought she felt something or somebody touch her as she slept. At last, dawn woke the forest to the song of the birds, and Snow White too, awoke. A whole world was stirring to life and the little girl was glad to see how silly her fears had been. However, the thick trees were like a wall round her, and as she tried to find out where she was, she came upon a path. She walked along it, hopefully. On she walked till she came to a clearing. There stood a strange cottage, with a tiny door, tiny windows and a tiny chimney pot. Everything about the cottage was much tinier than it ought to be. Snow White pushed the door open"³.

Therefore, it is really important to narrate the story on the most appropriate way for the children. In this context, children are mentioned because the fairy-tales belong to the genre of children literature. So, it is very useful if while reading the fairy-tale, the reader uses variations in the voice, that is, a type of a more dramatic reading to be applied with a slight increase or decrease of the voice, or to make it sound more profound and deep when the dialogue with the wolf is read, or an interrupted and decrepit speech when the old wise man talks. In this way, though dramaturgy, children will easily learn the story, the imitation of the characters, but in the same time they will also experience it more truly. In fact, every next time while the story will be narrated, when they will hear a different tone in the voice they will easily point to the possible characters of the story, thus invoking their critical thoughts and logic.

3. The research

The objective of the research in this paper was to determine the factual situation for the relation between the children and the fairy-tales today, that is, to what extent the children love and enjoy the fairy-tales, how they perceive them and what type of stories are their favorite. This was important because with the change of generations the wishes and appetites do change as well, so having in mind the fact that

contemporary children have an access to computer, TV and various video games from their early age, it was important to have an ear for their wishes and requests.

The research was conducted at pre-school children (age 3 to 5) who regularly visit the kindergarten. The researched sample was representative. For the objective of the research of the paper, the method of theoretical analysis and the descriptive method were used, as well as systematic analysis and group interview with the children. Because of the age of the children, the questions of the interview were asked to them in a group; this is how we believed that the best answers would be given without the need to ask sub-questions. The questions from the interview are given in Annex 1.

The results of the research point to the following:

- Children at the age of 3 seem to truly believe in magic and miracles; they love almost every type of fairy-tale and want to have them narrated before sleep. They could narrate the story through questions; they give short answers on the questions related to the story, thus showing that they are familiar with it. During their play, they would use phrases from a fairy-tale or a cartoon, but they do not play computer games only on their own, though they have tried;
- Children at the age of 4 partly believe in magic and miracles; they are more interested in cartoon and computer games, then in fairy-tales, though they like them. They are more likely to hear a more real story or watch a dramaturgic version of the fairy-tale. They do play computer games mostly connected with adventures (the boys) or Barbie girls and princesses (the girls).
- Children at the age of 5 believe in magic, but not in fairy-tale miracles. They watch cartoons and play computer games on their own (the thematic of the computer game is just like the children at the age of 4). Besides cartoons, they also watch other programs on TV intended for children. They love to hear a fairy-tale and they could narrate it. They mostly love stories about aliens and other Sci-Fi thematic.

³ Extract from the story for Snow-White and the Seven Dwarfs

4. Conclusion

According to the survey of the literature used for this paper, as well as the personal knowledge from a literary aspect, the general conclusion is that both the children and the adults enjoy reading fairy-tales. The filmed versions of the fairy-tales are among the most favorite movies/cartoons as well.

As it was indicated above, the fairy-tales could have a huge positive impact over the development of the children if they are appropriately used mostly in the educative purposes. Their theatre performances may be useful as well. As a literary genre they could be elaborated during the lessons with the students from the higher classes as well as with the children, though there will be a difference in the methodology.

The results of the research within the paper briefly point to the aspiration and ideas of the children for the fairy-tales, but also to the fact that the new authors need to follow the children's imagination while writing new fairy-tales, because depending on the life-style and the technological availability, the topics of the fairy-tales should be modified but adopted to the youngest readers.

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Annex

Interview questions

These questions were carefully chosen for the needs of the research within the paper "The Power of Marvelous in the Fairy-tales" and they are intended for the children attending the kinder-gardens at the age of 3 to 5. The answers on these questions will give a clear picture of the children's aspiration for fairy-tales and to what extent do they enjoy in them, but also, it will open perspectives for new, more modern thematic for fairy -tales which is of interest for the children. Because of the methodology applied in the kinder-garden, and the age of the children, the interview will be held in groups during their usual daily activities in the kinder-gardens.

1. *How old are you?*
2. *Do you like fairy-tales?*
3. *What is your favorite fairy-tale?*
4. *Can you tell it to me shortly?*
5. *How do you imagine the (main protagonist) of your favorite fairy-tale?*
6. *Why do you like it?*
7. *How often does your parents/grandparents/nanny read you a fairy-tale?*
8. *Do you watch cartoon on TV? Which is your favorite?*
9. *Do you play/ like to play video/computer games? Which ones?*
10. *What kind of fairy-tales do you like?*

THE RATE OF LISTENING SKILL INTEGRATION IN TEACHING EFL. A CASE STUDY IN SCHOOLS OF KORCA

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to look into the importance listening as a skill has in English language teaching and comprehension, the place it occupies among other skills and the implementation of listening strategies by our English teachers at present. Besides the theoretical part of the paper where the reasons for listening instruction, the techniques and activities throughout its stages and listening strategies are involved, this paper mostly relies on the results that come out from a survey conducted with the English teachers of the 9-th grade and high school teachers of our city on listening skill. The research is based on a listening strategy questionnaire, where 50 English teachers were required to complete it considering the place listening occupies in their English teaching classes and the frequency of different activities and techniques used in listening process. The results of the study indicated that there is still more to be done by teachers of English on listening teaching in general and its strategies in particular to successfully and effectively improve students' ability in listening comprehension.

Keywords: *Pre-listening, post-listening activities, input, top-down and bottom-up strategies*

1. Introduction

It is widely known that English language acquisition relies on four productive skills; reading, writing, speaking and listening. But are these skills taught in an integrative way by English teachers? Are the four skills the focus of teachers' attention in the process of English language acquisition?

Although listening is one of the greatest challenges with English language learning and one of the most complex skills required to be developed in English acquisition, it has turned to have a second-hand position. Our teachers of English are aware of the influential role this skill plays but still neglect it in a way or another. Greater attention is given to speaking, reading and writing as effective skills in English language mastering, while listening is believed to be a skill acquired by students themselves.

In this article, we have tried to show the position listening as a skill occupies among other skills in English language teaching, the role it has

and should have in language acquisition and the strategies used in developing this skill in order to give it the deserved place.

- a. Listening is the most common communicative activity in daily life, according to Morley (Morley 1991: 82), "We can expect to listen twice as much as we speak, four times more than we read, and five times more than we write."
- b. Listening affects other skills such as speaking and reading. Without listening we cannot reproduce or reply. It is gaining more and more weight in English language classes because as Rost says "listening is vital in the language classroom because it provides input for the learner. Without understanding input at the right level, any learning simply cannot begin. Listening is thus fundamental to speaking."
- c. Listening is the ability to understand what is said. It is one of the fundamental language skills (Brown & Yule 1983) and one of the most difficult activities when learning English as a foreign language. During the process of listening, (Rost 1991), a listener needs to discriminate between sounds, recognize words, identify grammatical grouping of words, identify expressions and sets of meaningful utterances, connect linguistic cues to non-linguistic and paralinguistic cues and to use background knowledge to predict and then confirm meaning.
- d. Listening involves a sender (an instructor, a speaker, radio, television), a message and a receiver (the listener). Listeners have to process messages as they come, without stopping to track back or to think what is coming after.
- e. We must not forget the fact that the receiver (the student) is listening something said in second language contexts, where his overall knowledge of language is not complete.

All these reasons make the listening process more complex. So, it is advisable for English language teachers to help their students become firstly good listeners and then good speakers. This necessity requires from them to recognize and develop listening strategies and provide

practical situations and activities inside and outside the classroom.

1.1. Three stages of listening

The process of listening is divided into three stages according to McDonough, Shaw (1993) and Rost (1991):

1. *Pre-listening activity* – the purpose of listening task is given at this point. It is otherwise known as "guess-what-it-is-about" task where students, based on the name of the text or some of its key points, try to find out what they will hear and what they are expected to do. It is realized by predicting the content from the title, or asking questions on the opinion the students have on the topic. It serves as a warm-up activity
2. *Listening itself* – comprehension is the main target of this stage, which is achieved by some activities, such as giving the main idea, topic, setting, and summary. The setting and environment should be appropriate. Listening in this stage needs to be repeated.
3. *Post-listening activity* – its aim is to check comprehension and listening skill, and the effectiveness of listening strategies. A set of activities are organized by the teacher in this stage, as "follow-up-work" such as; multiple-choice questions, true/false or general questions, discussion on main points of the text, etc. It can also serve as a topic for later writing or extension, for practice of new vocabulary and pronunciation, group discussion etc.

1.2. Strategies for listening

In English classes, students are usually given practice in listening but they are not actually taught listening. Practice is not enough. Students need to know how to listen to English while teachers need to teach them the language system, (the knowledge of language: grammar and vocabulary etc.) and the use of the language system, (the skills of language use). (Mili Saha & Md) It is exactly the use of listening strategies that will help students develop their listening skills and enhance their English language learning in general.

According to the research studies carried by

Bacon (1992) and O'Malley et al. (1989) two direct cognitive strategies have proved to be the most common types. They are known as top-down and bottom-up strategies, named under the processes listening activity goes through. (Rubin 1994)

Top-down strategies involve usage of the listener's background knowledge. It requires prior knowledge of the topic, context, and type of text as well as knowledge of language so that the listener can interpret what is heard and predict what comes next.

The aim of this type of strategies is to:

- listen for main idea,
- predict what is going to happen,
- draw conclusions,
- summarize.

In *bottom-up processing*, students make use of their linguistic knowledge; from the smallest linguistic unit as phoneme (bottom) to the largest one as complete text (top). They consider the sound, word and grammatical structure altogether to gain the meaning of the text.

The bottom-up process is used to:

- listen to special details,
- recognize cognates,
- cognize patterns of word-order.

Based on the variety of tasks the teachers set in listening classes, students have to decide on which strategies they should use, "top-down" (the knowledge on the topic, context, the information on the long-term memory) or bottom-up" (sounds, words, their grammatical relationships and their lexical meanings) processes.

In this article, listening is viewed as a decisive ability in comprehension in particular and in learning English in general, so we consider as very important the fact that students need to have both prior and linguistic knowledge of the context to achieve this goal. Therefore, teachers need to prepare the students for listening, to help them organize their thoughts, to activate appropriate background knowledge for understanding and to make predictions, according to the purpose of the task. This significantly reduces the burden of the comprehension for the students. (Byrnes 1984)

Planning and teaching listening

Considerations for teachers

Listening exercises need to be well-designed by the teachers in order to build up students' confidence in listening ability. Teachers should set tasks for listening activities in order not to overburden the concentration of the students. They are:

- Define the activity's instructional goal
- Check the level of difficulty of the listening text
- Use pre-listening activities to prepare students for what they are going to hear
- Match while-listening activities to the instructional goal, the listening purpose and students' proficiency level (activities even after listening)

The purpose of this study is to see what place listening classes occupy among other skills, if the teachers of English are aware of the importance listening activities play in comprehension, if listening strategies are recognized and used in English language teaching and to look into the instruction of listening strategies and activities carried by the teachers of English in the schools of our city.

2. The study

2.1. Methodology and sample

Method applied for the study is based on a questionnaire completed by the teachers of English in all schools of our city, where English is taught as a secondary language.

Table 1: Generalities on teachers involved in the survey.

School System	Nr.	%	Work experience (1-5 years)	%	Work experience (6-10 years)	%	Work experience (11-15 years)	%	Work experience (16+ years)	%
9-th grade school teacher	24	48	14	28	9	18	-	-	1	2
High school teacher	26	52	10	20	11	22	2	4	3	6
Total	50			48		40		4		8

50 teachers of English language completed the questionnaire; 24 of them teach in the 9-th grade schools while 26 teachers at high schools of our district. 48 % of them have been teaching for about 5 years, while 40 % have been teaching for about 10 years. The figures show that most of them have considerable teaching experience.

The results on the table above shows that nearly all teachers (84 % of the teachers; 42 out of 50) are fully aware of the importance listening has in comprehension in particular and learning English in general.

3. Results

Table 2: Teachers' awareness on the importance of listening skill in percentage

Fully (100 %)	Not fully (75 %)	Rather (relative ly) (50 %)	Partially (25 %)	Unaware 0 %
84 %	10 %	2 %	4 %	-
42	5	1	2	-

Table 3: The place listening activities occupy among other skills in %; (reading, writing and speaking)

Listening	Reading	Speaking	Writing
18 %	34%	28%	20%

Being asked about the part listening activities take among other skills, it resulted that listening is given the least time (18 %) in comparison with the other skill activities in English classes. Reading takes the first place followed by speaking and writing.

Table 4: Activities on setting instructional goals by the teachers.

Frequency	Always (100%)	Usually (75%)	Often (50%)	Sometimes (25%)	Never (0 %)
Recognizing the goal of listening comprehension	42 %	20 %	26 %	12 %	0 %
	21	10	13	6	0
Determining the major facts (topic, text type, setting)	42 %	40 %	12 %	6 %	0 %
	21	20	6	3	0
Main idea comprehension	32 %	30 %	24 %	14 %	0 %
	16	15	12	7	0
Identifying supporting details	44 %	32 %	16 %	8 %	0 %
	22	16	8	4	0
Reproducing the message orally or in writing	34 %	28 %	24 %	14 %	0 %
	17	14	12	7	0

About half of the teachers (42 %) always help students identify the goal of listening activity, but a quarter of them (24 %) do not often set any goal on listening comprehension.

About half of the teachers (42 %) always help students in determining the topic, type of text and setting, but still there are some teachers (9 out of 50) who do not give importance to facts

concerning the passage. The main idea is usually defined (30 %) but 38 % of the teachers practice this activity less.

A considerable number of teachers (three fourth of them, 38) help students comprehend

listening by presenting supporting details. 38 % of the teachers do not ask students to reproduce the message either orally or in written form.

Table 5: The level of difficulty of the listening text checked by the teachers.

Frequency	Always (100%)	Usually (75%)	Often (50%)	Sometimes (25%)	Never (0 %)
How the text is organized, (in a chronological order)	30 % 15	36 % 18	20 % 10	14 % 7	0 % 0
How familiar the students are with the topic	46 % 23	30 % 15	18 % 9	6 % 3	0 % 0
Does the text involve multiple individuals and obj.	28 % 14	36 % 18	18 % 9	18 % 9	0 % 0
Does the text offer visual support to aid in the interpretation	32 % 16	36 % 18	20 % 10	12 % 6	0 % 0
Total	34 %	34 %	19 %	13 %	0 %

This part of the questionnaire reveals how teachers of English check the difficulty of the listening text/s. It is quite noticeable that only one third of the teachers (34 %) set tasks to ease students' text comprehension, while 22 % of them only sometimes help students to define the type of text, the individuals and objects involved and the visual aids used. The most popular task used by the respondents is that of

the familiarity with the topic. 76 % of the teachers always or usually check the level of difficulty by identifying how familiar students are with the topic. In conclusion, there are still teachers who do not give proper attention to this strategy, although it is considered to be of great importance for listening comprehension.

Table 6: Pre-listening activities

Frequency	Always (100%)	Usually (75%)	Often (50%)	Sometimes (25%)	Never (0 %)
Assess students' background kngl. of the topic	46 % 23	26 % 13	16 % 8	12 % 6	0 % 0
Provide students with the background knowledge	50 % 25	26 % 13	14 % 7	6 % 3	4 % 2
Provide opportunities for group or collaborative work	20 % 10	48 % 24	20 % 10	12 % 6	0 % 0
Total	39 %	33 %	17 %	10 %	1 %

Considering the results above, it is clearly seen that half of the teachers involved in the survey (50 %) provide students with the background knowledge necessary for text comprehension, but less attention is given to the

activities for group or collaborative work (10 % or ten out of 50). Since students are little involved in class discussion activities, teachers may find it difficult to fully assess their background knowledge of the topic.

Table 7: During and after listening activities to the instructional goal, the listening purpose and students' proficiency level

Frequency	Always (100%)	Usually (75%)	Often (50%)	Sometimes (25%)	Never (0 %)
Ask students to complete a written task during or after listening	16 % 8	34 % 17	30 % 15	20 % 10	0 % 0
Keep writing to a minimum during listening	16 % 8	26 % 13	20 % 10	30 % 15	8 % 4
Use questions to focus students' attention on crucial elements of the text	32 % 16	20 % 10	34 % 17	14 % 7	0 % 0
Use predicting to encourage students to monitor their comprehension	24 % 12	34 % 17	26 % 13	12 % 6	4 % 2
Give immediate feedback whenever possible	20 % 10	26 % 13	20 % 10	32 % 16	2 % 1
Refer back to the script to check listening compreh. Details	24 % 12	30 % 15	26 % 13	18 % 9	2 % 1
Work with difficult listening patterns when over	20 % 10	22 % 11	18 % 9	32 % 16	8 % 4
Teach listening strategies to help their listening comprehension	40 % 20	30 % 15	18 % 9	12 % 6	0 % 0

Based on the findings of the table above, it results that:

32 % of the teachers ask students to complete a written task during or immediately after listening. I think that written tasks to be completed by the students during listening should be avoided as much as possible, as this would attract their attention from listening comprehension. Still there are a considerable number of teachers, half of them, (25 teachers out of 50) who still give written tasks to students during listening.

The use of questions and predictions to draw students' attention on crucial elements of the text are used by most teachers (28 % – 29 %), as it shows that teachers are aware of these important strategies. As for the feedback immediately given after listening, the respondents seem to pay less attention. 27 teachers out of 50 only sometimes or never give feedback to listening comprehension, so the teachers do not receive the necessary information in response to the assignments set, and consequently do not find out the difficulties students have encountered during listening.

Moreover, 52 % of the teachers sometimes or never refer back to details or difficult patterns when listening is over, it means listening comprehension is not totally realized successfully. In conclusion, it can be asserted that only 35 % of the teachers surveyed do teach listening strategies to help students' listening comprehension.

Table 8: The difficulties teachers encounter in teaching listening in English language classes

a) Lack of equipment	84 %	16 %
b) Lack of students' interest	22 %	78 %
c) Lack of authentic materials	82 %	18 %
d) Students' inability to understand the speaker	58 %	42 %
e) Different linguistic competence of students	66 %	34 %

Even though most students show interest in listening classes, they find it difficult to understand authentic materials and native speakers; a fact which is evident for our students in general, as they are little involved in outer class intercourses. We need to highlight also the fact that language competence of students is

another barrier which makes listening comprehension somewhat difficult and sometimes neglected by teachers.

4. Conclusions

Listening is one of the most important modalities used in English learning. Listening activity involves the interpretation of what is heard, as well as the background and linguistic knowledge of the students. So it is essential for English language teachers to help their students become effective learners, i.e. to use listening strategies in teaching and provide listening practice in authentic situations for their students. By raising awareness of teaching listening strategies and techniques, teachers would be able to maximize students' comprehension in English language.

This article presents theoretically the reasons why listening should be taught, the three stages of listening process and the strategies that should be used throughout listening activities. As for the research on the teachers' use of listening strategies, it seems that they are aware of their importance but not good appliers of these strategies. Strategies instruction seems to be partially neglected by teachers since only a quarter of them do teach them.

The research also helped us see how English teachers enhance students' listening ability by pre-, during and after listening techniques and activities. As pre-listening activities seem to be well employed by most of the teachers, especially those of providing students with background information; little is done on focusing students' attention on crucial elements of the text, giving feedback, referring back to the script to check listening comprehension details and difficult listening patterns.

Thus, the present study can help to contribute to our English teachers' understanding of the listening strategies instruction in order to give this skill the proper attention in language learning as a skill that should be integrated into language analysis.

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THE REPRESENTATION OF MADNESS IN MODERN. GREEK SHORT STORIES

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Abstract

We will be making an effort to decode the representation of madness in Modern Greek short stories, in the field of fiction, both in terms of "exclusion" and "otherness". The study of the representation of madness in literature is included in the field of study of "otherness" in education, under the terms of multiculturalism, in prospect of eliminating discrimination by implementing policies that will make visible, fair and legitimate the expression of the "difference" and "minority". The research method used is the qualitative content analysis. The research material consists of twenty-eight short stories (published between 1884 and 1995). They have been classified in four conceptual categories: (a) etiology/ interpretation of madness, (b) symptoms, (c) phenomenology of madness, (d) "Eutopia" and "Dystopia" of madness. Our key research questions are: (a) static or non-representation of madness (b) marginalization, inclusion or exclusion of the madmen (c) presence of stereotypical behavior and characteristics in its appearance and (d) deconstruction of the social representation of madness in fiction, undermined or otherwise of the registration of otherness. Our final comments are summarized as follows: (a) the madness of multiple connotations, such as a degeneration of logic (fixation, stagnation, regression, infancy) or as a super-truth (surreal version), ends up in a meaningful "void", on which our primitive fears and worries about normality and deviation are projected, and (b) the fiction (short story), trapped in a "compulsive" realism that does not manage to extract us from the excruciatingly defined world of madness (symptoms, phenomenology, etiology) and lead us to the unsolved mystery of its mental pain.

Keywords: *representation, madness, psychosis, short story, discourse, psychiatry*

1. Prelude

The present paper does not deal with the psychological estrangement of Greek litterateurs, but with the madness, as it is described throughout their work. Madness, which «in literal terms, is what the scientific community calls psychosis or insanity, in earlier times. The term includes schizophrenia, paranoia and manic

– depressive or emotional disorders. These conditions are all characterized by a surreal conception of the world around us, a conception that ruins the relations of the individual with its surrounding environment and pushes the individual to do and say things that appear irrational, weird, outrageous» (Hartocollis 1999: 87–88). We will not be going down the road of a logical, strict psychiatric diagnosis of our literary heroes, on the basis of their mythical symptomatology. We will also not deal with the synthesis of a social history of madness, based on its literary depiction.

By denying every reproach of late romanticism, we try to decode madness in modern Greek narrative with terms of prohibition and variation. A presence ... «multivalent, unsettling, hauntingly familiar, a fundamental element in every language, will pose basic questions regarding our human substance... it will remind us the connection of a human being with its fantasies, its inevitability, its shadows and the frightening gaps of his reason, with its overflowed pain» (Tsalikoglou 1991: 17).

Nevertheless, despite the time-consuming efforts of defining and categorizing madness in the frameworks of speech (discourse), «... it surpasses knowledge and experience and resides in the sphere of the fantastic. The experience of madness is still inconceivable to us. What we can conceive are its representations» (Tsalikoglou 1991: 17). The knowledge of the “absolute truth” is considered to be utopic. It is impossible for us to bypass speech; we cannot avoid depiction (Foucault 1987). A representation that cannot be researched with diagnostic textbooks at hand, but has to be pinpointed at the map of rhetorical schemes and narrative techniques. To – sadistically- paraphrase Wittgenstein, «The limits of my world are the limits of my representations».

The link between the text, the world outside the text, the fiction and the reality has been a literary issue since the ancient times. Pindarus, in a different context, states that “*Σκιᾶς ὄναρ ἄνθρωπος*” (man is the shadow of a dream). They can be connected with a variety of representations – inscriptions, when codes, conventions and symbols appear between the writer and the reader, which change and evolve from time to time (Anagnostopoulou 2007). Representation is a key element of literature

because, although it is a fictional creation, it is also a comment on reality – an external reality – which it mimics in a selective and partial way (Hawthorn 1999: 171). It is not just a simple picture or a register – reflection of reality, but it is a complex nexus of conventions, points, ideas and symbols that provides us with condensed feelings, perceptions, traces of experiences, fantasies, cultural interests, all through linguistic images; it is not a copy of the real, but it is a web of views of the reality, imbued in a pool of fantasy. The portrayals are accentuated through literary texts through fiction, or as images of factual people and poetic objects, the relationships between them and the ideas they present (at a significant and signified level) in a narrative plot context (Anagnostopoulou 2007: 14).

The portrayal (even more, the portrayal of madness) «simultaneously penetrates knowledge and speech, body and sex, reality and metaphor, narration and its conscious limits, its psychic elements ... it is a mask that hides or reveals, inside the textual universe and through the transformation games, a different reality which has nothing to do with the outer reality... it is not a reproduction, but an endless re – creation ... it is a linguistic image, filled with symbolisms, through which society and people see, think, fantasize and register themselves and the Others» (Tsalikoglou 1991: 14-15).

Through the fantasy, symbolization, language and reality we can pass messages which, at the same time, get deformed. Through fiction and portrayals, literature articulates and builds different sides of the identity «... we establish new images of the Other’s variations... through intra – textual depictions – registrations, we manage to discern the options, the rebuttals, the phobias, the rejections, the specializations that constitute the image of the Other» (Tsalikoglou 1991: 15-16). We will try to detect all of the above in the present “philological psycho – research”, and especially the riveting subfield concerning madness. Using our own personal recreations as a ‘guide’, we manage to cross the two ‘discourses’, madness and literature.

The presence of madness inspires feelings of awe, animosity and a primitive fear, an emotional residue of times past, that still hangs on to the meta – modernistic society, which cannot understand and rejects anything that is

defined by a different way of life. The marginalization and stigmatism that follow certify on an unconscious collective level the normality of the wider social group. The non – normality, madness, is boxed out in another “space”. Its importance as a fundamental element of all of us is cancelled, due to the fact that madness is presented as a characteristic capacity of a “different” category, made up by us, «... it is not me, it's always the other guy, the threatening and subconsciously desirable other guy, whose dramatized presence guarantees my own precarious normality... And, as in a dream, our desires are projected under disguise, so that the dreamer may continue dreaming, the social construct of the madman, through its mythology, makes possible the unhindered prolongation of a soothing and undisturbed sleep» (Tsalikoglou 1987: 15-56).

The concerns of the audience and the decisions of the experts, in every place and every time, constitute (or at least, try to) the symptom of an endless repetition in front of the question of madness, which is basically the same as the question of death (Tzavaras 1991: 28). The age old stress of madness reminds us of the agony of death. In order to successfully manage both of them, and especially the unpleasant feelings they cause, societies have invented over the years, images – representations – inscriptions, as well as stratagems and mechanisms. However, the human mind is far from being just a sentence – producing organ, according to the rules of “speech”. It is often led to arbitrary estimates of reality, especially when under extreme stress and fear, for the eventual benefit of an emotional balance. The reasons of the society and the reasons of the scientists regarding madness are never the same. The more cumbersome social representations collide ex officio with the “temporary” reasons of the experts. Madness is incurable, contagious, hereditary and organic, while, at the same time, it is curable through religious and external interventions (Tzavaras 1991: 29-30).

When it comes to fiction, is the representation of madness static or ever changing? The madman will be marginalized, accepted or rejected? Are there stereotypical characteristics in his behavior and appearance? Through fiction, is the social representation of madness torn apart, and are its variations undermined? Finally, is it possible to represent

the “logic” of madness through literature, or is it impossible to express it, and «...it constantly lapses into an unreal – non authentic representation?» (Karakitsios 2000).

Through the decoding of the representations of madness, we will attempt to accentuate the social, the historical, the cultural and the psychological traces of its inscriptions in the field of fiction and the way literature, according to Ricoeur, perceives and interprets the world.

2. History

In the field of fiction, the representations of behaviors and persons that deviate from the “normal” forms have had a constant charm. The feeling that rules the contact of people with madness has always been that of ambivalence. It is a contact affected by numerous constructions and turnovers of myths, which try, time after time, not only to control madness, but also to get acquainted – accustomed to it. In every era, *mutatis mutandis*, the mad person is considered to be the carrier of a terrifying, and at the same time, alluring meaning.

Ever since the Middle Ages, the faith in good and bad spirit that captivate the human existence in an endless struggle, grants madness its metaphysical exterior, which will be preserved until the beginning of the 18th century. The madman is cast to the holy fire, in order to be purified from his demons. During the 15th century, madmen stacked in ships (as depicted in paintings by Hieronymus Bosch) will waste their un – reasonable lives in the quest for logic, and will be thrown out of the cities. Nevertheless, up until the 17th century, madness «...roams free, as an integral part of the decorum and the common language» (Tsalikoglou 1991: 20). Madmen are essential in the midst of society, as the latter feels the need to mirror its negative elements through madness in order to painlessly survive; at the same time, madmen are blocked as their reasoning is always cancelled, either as an inarticulate exclamation and a speech deprived of sense, or becomes acceptable as an expression of super – logic, a logic more logical than logic itself (Tsalikoglou 1991: 21). This explanation is close to the surreal representation of madness, which will come to pass much later (Breton 1981).

Little by little, the concept of mental illness takes the place of madness, as the psychiatric

science gets established, with a familiar cognitive basis. The phrenologist Ph. Pinel will release madmen from their chains and will propose a new method of treatment, the “moral treatment”, whose main characteristic is the respect of their personality. However, the aforementioned rational progress actively cancels any kind of dialectic relationship between a reasonable man and a crazy madman. There are solid walls erected between reason and madness and clear boundaries between madness and reason (Karavatos 1991: 15-16).

The discovery and strengthening of psychoanalysis at the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century comes to dispute the reason of biologic psychiatry, «... the immune silence tends to explode. Madness is not a foreign intruder to the psyche of man... it is not an alien external experience; it is inevitably tied to the structural existence of the subject. It is the result of a dynamic, through which not only the body and the brain of the patient take part, but his entire being, his personality, his relationships with other humans, his internal collisions... the mentally ill finally acquires a face, finds his lost story, the lost meaning of his symptoms, the reasonable validity of his mental pain. It is the search for the complex and unsettling adventures of the subconscious which reinstates the barren quest for morbid symptoms» (Tsalikoglou 1991: 23).

Between the “ontogenesis” and the “psychogenesis”, psychoanalysis, through its peculiar and concrete frames and despite its tightly therapeutical margins, has made significant contributions in tackling the problems of the psyche. «Freud gave back to the subject the domination of the circumstantial and the defensive, a conscious and an unconscious story» (Stefanatos 1991: 37). This story belongs to the subject, even if the subject does not own it, even when, for extremely complex and special reasons, it did not gain access to the field of symbolism, continuity and history. The outcomes of the subject’s story, the painful and often outrageously obvious demonstrations, as well as their psychological derivations lead to the anonymous and wasting field of the pathological and weird. This opinion was supported before Freud, and some scientists believe that it is still supported to this day. The Freudian discovery that “... the delirium is, on one hand, an attempt of self – healing, and on the other hand, it is an

extremely organized and complex psychic creation that subjects to peculiar reasoning and follows its own defensive agendas” was of outmost importance (Stefanatos 1991: 38). Of paramount importance are the concepts of the unconscious, the libido and the neurosis.

Despite the Freudian “eutopia”, the positive approach of the subjectivity of madness still exists, imbued with the spirit of physical sciences and is enclosed to the unavailing dipole of cause and causality. Therefore, it becomes obvious that the time of punishing madness has gone by and we are going through the times where madness is gently suppressed. Madness does not have to be confined in psychiatric units and general hospitals. «...the madman roams the sterile hallways of little psychiatric units, in day hospitals and foster families» (Tsalikoglou 1991: 16).

3. Methodology

The research method we used is the context analysis (qualitative context analysis). Our material consists of twenty eight short stories (Soldatos 1994) (Table 1). The registration and analysis unit is the totality of the short stories. The semantic categories in which we ranked our material are as follows: a) reasoning / definition of madness, b) symptoms of madness, c) phenomenon of madness. The short stories we studied cover a timeline of approximately one hundred years, with the first one being published at the end of the 19th century (“The consequences of an old story” by G. Vizyinos, 1884) and the last one in 1995 (“The Siamese cat” by E. Aranitsis).

Table 1

Nr	Short story title	Writer
1	The crazy wit red lilies	Xenopoulos Grigorios
2	Karavelia	Grabalis Athanasios
3	The mad woman	Eftaliotis Argyris
4	The engine of the madman	Paroritis Kostas
5	The mad kid	Grigoris Gerasimos
6	Night with delusions	Pittas Triantafillos
7	The son of the moon	Zarkos Giorgis
8	My life in	Filyras Romos

Nr	Short story title	Writer
	Dromokaitio	
9	A crazy	Mitsakis Michael
10	Shrew mother	Papadiamantis Alexandros
11	Madman	Nirvanas Paul
12	Obedient daughter	Papadopoulos Alexandra
13	Madman	Gonatas E.Cr.
14	Mad woman	Klimis Joseph
15	From the notes of a madman	Tanagras Angelos
16	The Ravaged village	Patatzis Sotiris
17	Give way to madmen	Potamianos Themios
18	The monk painter	Valtadoros Giorgos
19	The madman of Athens	Kabouroglous D.Gr.
20	I, the frog	Stamatis Stefanos
21	«According to the Geneva convention»	Koutsoukos Elias
22	The consequences of an old story	Vizyinos Geogrios
23	Night history	Karagatsis M.
24	What was best?	Voutyras Demosthenes
25	Ladies hairdresser	Skaribas Giannis
26	The seniorita of Egaleo	Soldatos Giannis
27	The Siamese cat	Aranitsis Eugene
28	The reasonless	Pratikakis Manolis

We decided to use short stories instead of novels, as they are short and strictly structured narratives. The prevailing characteristic of a short story is the narrative tale of an event with a concise and precise manner. It depicts a part of life, while the novel depicts life itself. Moreover, they have the structure of oral speech (Pratt 1994: 99 – 101), therefore they are more likely to present the “quality – individuality” of the words of madness. The short story does not present a full story, but mostly expresses a feeling, records a scene or an episode, focuses on the characters and their psychosynthesis and not on the evolution of the plot; it lacks the conventional plot (Kalogroulis 2012: 11) Unlike the novels, which usually deal with collective and complex meanings, collective memories and

experiences, national and idealistic dimensions of the Greek reality circa the 19th century, the short story does not depict collective entities, such as nation, people, society, but represents the person (Tziovas 2007: 71 – 75). The role of memory and invasion of reality in a short story limits the importance and the functions of imagination and waves a scripture ready to serve realism (Karakitsios 2000).

4. Analysis

In order to mark the normality of reason, it is necessary to ostracize the non – normality, the madness, either as a silent prohibition, or a dubious suppression of those who threaten this supposed unity and compassion (Tziovas 2006: 16). Regarding our specimens, the effort of solving the afore mentioned problematic ranges between “an integrated marginalization” (the madman is a part of the society, but every effort of giving meaning to his behavior and his words is cancelled and the subject of madness has been “objectified”) and “a mediated rejection” (institution and disfunction of asylums and other places of ghettos, such as churches, monasteries, magi, healers, exotic treatments etc.) (Tzavaras 1991: 29-30). The madman of the village or of the neighborhood occupies an intermediate position, between the familiar and the different. His existence positively depends on the rules of acquaintance (family, kin, neighborhood, friends, village, and community) but his behavior is still unpredictable and provocative and causes stress, fear and shame to the family and his social surroundings. By enacting an almost legislated role, he is the “scapegoat”, either for his inbred aggression of those who reason or for the projection of their immorality. His presence in a framework of “embedded marginalization” is very important for the bipolar of madness – sanity. In the framework of “intermediate rejection” he takes the place he deserves, usually at the edge of the city. So close, and yet so far, as it is elegantly described at the short story “I, the frog”: «You ignored my mother’s cries; you tied me up and threw me at the back of your car». When madness was certain, because of the first institutionalization, «... This time my parents protested, when the wise men let me go. So, I came back to my parent’s house, but I noticed that every night, before they went to bed, they

locked their door...».

The asylum is everywhere and is described in full detail. It is an ideologically charged notion, fantastically invested in many ways. Either as a “charitable foundation”, on the footsteps of a “romantic psychiatry” from the end of the 19th century, appropriately constructed as to tend for its inmates, such as in the short story of Vizyinos: “The consequences of an old story” or the threshold of Hades, “a different place altogether” as in the short story of Filyras, “My life in Dromokaitio”.

When studying the causality of madness, we discover the importance of loss; either as a symbolic loss, a lost love, a rejection, a non – response, a deprivation of the object of our passion, a love object, an abandonment, a betrayal, or even as a real loss, like death. This representation is clearly close to the folklore / traditional apprehension of madness, but it is also close to the official views of psychodynamic psychiatry, especially when it comes to depression, melancholy and mourning. In the pretext of madness, fiction re – negotiates two dominant meanings, those of love and death, the instincts of love and death. The short stories that talk about madness are used as study objects for death and life, loss but also, erotic relationships and betrayal. The feeling that surpasses all others is that of madness; madness, as a demonstration of extreme sensitivity.

When it comes to diagnostic categorization, schizophrenic psychosis is dominant, with delirium tremens, manic – depressive psychosis and melancholy as fundamental characteristics. Obviously, there can be short stories in which the character is mentally disabled. Hysteria, the research field off Freudian discoveries around the beginning of the 20th century, is completely absent from our short stories. The mad hero can be recognized by his detachment from the social life and the reveling in his own raving reality. In some short stories that were published after the ‘40s, the representation of madness is dominated by an exhausting lining up of raving illusions, in the framework of a surreal problematic. The madman is constantly delirious, incoherently ruining his ideas and speech; nevertheless, he has moments of surprising clarity, before he lapses back to his insane reasoning. The walls between madness and logic are temporarily lowered.

The necessary narrative convention of the

realistic depiction prefers the description of the most obvious characteristics of a madman, for the sake of convenience (Ziras 2009: 63). As Karakitsios characteristically mentions, «The appearance and the confirmation of short stories has been connected with an effort to record the space and the customs of life of people living in the country and has favored the realistic representations of the external characteristics of men... It appears that, by selecting specific details from the looks and the image of the hero, the writer will make clear, but also prepare the reader for a smooth acceptance of the madman, as something different, to say the least» (Karakitsios 2000: 18).

The mention of the madman’s eyes is of the utmost importance, as well as their color and their movements. A mirror of madness, danger, inner turmoil, «... he opened his mouth wide and stared...» the eyes of Gravalis’ hero in the short story “Karavelia”. In rarer occasions, eyes may even contain the last drop of sanity, «... his eyes had kept their deep blue color, and they were wet and dreamy, with their youthful sparkle and that weird, undetermined expression. Had I seen him outside in the street, his eyes would be the only thing I would have recognized...» by Ksenopoulos.

However, this emphasis starts to deviate in recent short stories, from the description of details to the expression of speech. The speech is interrupted and based on incoherent sequences. The text itself is now delirious, «... the dimension of madness cannot be represented with images and drawings, but it unfolds, phrase by phrase, through the incoherent, concessive or judgmental, acidic speech of the insane and through frequent dialogues, where the language of madness, the language of deviation is spread throughout the entire narration. The reader’s interest is now led towards madness and not towards the meaning, and the reason of metonymy is being replaced by metaphors and similes, as it is shown in the works of Pratikakis and Aranitsis» (Karakitsios 2000: 16 – 18). We could add Skaribas to the list.

In all of our short stories, madness is considered a non – reversible process. Its only ending is death – melancholy, or/ and suicide. Madmen of every social cast, origin, age group and educational level, parade through the stories indiscriminately. In at least four stories, we can discern a whole new category of

madness. Its cause is the extreme love for literature. From this afore mentioned category, there are no women appearing in the stories. They usually go mad from love!

The madman of the village or of the neighborhood (in cases when the story takes place in a city) is a stable and dominant pattern, in a significant number of short stories. His characteristics are routine, predictability and a repeated and fixed behavior. He is poorly dressed, lonely and weird. His variations – that stem from his childhood, his innocence or his super – truth – validate his detachment from the communal whole. He usually is sympathetic, in a sense of “contained marginalization”, but he still remains static and typical; he does not communicate with his surroundings. His opinions are accepted with condescendence, but are immediately cancelled due to the lack of logic.

Papadiamantis (Shrew mother) and Gravalis (Karavelia) accentuate the childness of the madman, by transpiring innocent images of his memories (in the island of Skiathos and Aivali). The madness of the protagonists, along with its innocence, is eventually a “cheerful” type of madness. The perseverance of the narrative heroes in the innocence of their childhood does not come without a price (Erasmus, 1970). Every desire (mostly sexual) cannot be met. All life passions are put out. They ignore love, but death as well; the decay of death. Their penalty is madness. Mitsakis and Nirvanas present a contrast between the innocence of the mad hero and the brutalization of the civilized, urban society, in which the madman suffers. The madman, as a scapegoat, is sacrificed in order to defuse «... the inherent cruelty of childhood and the complete lack of compassion» (Nirvanas). The purpose of the symbolic “sacrifice” of the madman is «...the catharsis of violence, namely its “deceit” on victims that will not have the will for revenge» (Girard 1991: 67). When a sane person exceeds his behavioral limits, he is led to ferocity and sadism. «The handsome youths of high school tested the strength of their forearms on his back» (Mitsakis). The madmen are often cast to the role of victims, something obviously caused by the fact that “...they are an easy sacrifice to the altar of cruelty; this can also be connected to the fact that – like the smell of blood that awakens the need to hunt – the complete lack of resistance from the part of the madman intrigues the imagination and leads it

to a desert, where brutality, free from boundaries and restrictions, exceeds the norms” (Musil 1992: 21- 22). In Karagatsi’s “Nighttime story” the innocence of madmen is in contrast to the guilt of the pure Greek countryside, caused by murders and births of illegitimate children; the madmen of the village, gifted with innocence, authenticity and “natural existence” are a sort of countermeasure to the hypocrisy and the guilt of the sane ones (Delivoria 2004: 52).

The classic typological distinction between the city and the countryside (village) is constantly on the background. They are two different meanings with two different significances. As Tsirimokou successfully stated «... the narrow spaces of the city, instead of comprising a zone of protection and security, have a negative effect; the urban lifestyle is an undetermined threat. On the other hand, the open spaces of the countryside, instead of causing a fear of the unknown, have a positive undertone; the rural scenery, in which childhood or adolescence took place, is an “open” space. In reality, it is the strict and familiar outline of a nostalgic past. Therefore, in our case, Athens is perceived as an open, defenseless city, hostile and scary, a trap or a spider web of a city, while the village and nature, as an enclosed, reassuring and friendly space...» (Tsirimokou 2000: 90). Madness, weirdness and crankiness are completely acceptable in the countryside – village, always in a state of “contained marginalization”. A taste of the big city creates problems. For example, Paroritis, in his short story “The machine of the madman” is being rather clear about it. The mad scientist, despite all the weird looks he gets from his fellow islanders, does not have any issues. When he attempts to contact the King to show him his invention, he ends up at the mental hospital.

In most of the short stories we used for our research, the representation of madness has a double entendre, the one of madness itself, as a dark, no man’s land, and the one of female nature, which, from the time of Hippocrates to the time of Freud, is shrouded by mystery, the result of both the bodily changes of her reproductive system (menstruation, pregnancy, nursing and menopause) and its unstable and volatile nature. So, our heroines are both mad and female. The female desire, either as a loss or as an exaggeration, has the danger of madness.

The only right thing to do is to remain within the moral rules and her social role, to stay reasonable and to avoid feelings. In the case of the "Obedient daughter", the commitment of the mad heroine is double, her upbringing and the guilt of deviating from the "path of the mother". From her father's bed, to the bed of her husband and finally to the mental hospital. She is always obedient to her mother and to her lover, without ever thinking about her own needs. This romantic theme, love and death, love and madness, madness and death, is an element of a woman's passion. The only solution for the "Ophelia's complex" is suicide; she drowns in her own emotions. The madwoman of Eftaliotis, when faced with the fateful revival of the original traumatic experience (her husband's death by drowning), dies. For Clara, of the Vizyinos' story, it is the trauma of abandonment that leads her to madness. An imperfect existence as, without her husband to support her, she cannot survive. Her only solution is death – madness.

In half of the stories, the title is intra – textual, which means that it is included in the context. The reader, or the researcher, is being warned about what is going to follow. The psychiatric terminology, as well as the use of valued and current psychological terms (conscious, unconscious, libido, stress etc.) is absent, though it would add a more desirable plausibility to the story. The terms used include obsolete therapeutical practices (electrical shocks, straitjackets, needles). There is no effort of treatment whatsoever. Not even the use of pills. As a therapeutical practice, the stories suggest institutionalization, isolation in special mental institutions, in order to cure the mad and protect the sane. These efforts are often covered with a veil of compassion. This practice is even portrayed in more recent stories, like "The machine of the madman" by Paroritis, which was published around the end of the '90s.

We are now faced with a stereotypical representation of the madman who barely changes, despite the fact that there has been a 100 – year time frame since the first and the last fictional story. There is absolutely no effort in "modernizing" madness. The narrative heroes remind us, in whole, of the madmen that appeared at the end of the 19th century in Greek literature, the traditional madmen of our lore. The production of short stories during the time

frame we are currently examining, cannot incorporate the new scientific breakthroughs concerning madness; the clear change in scientific hypotheses that appeared in psychoanalysis, psychology, psychiatry, sociology and even history, first in the western hemisphere and then – with a little delay – in ours, since the 19th century. It cannot incorporate the encounter of personal desire and opportunity, the possible causal links of madness and society, in the world of narrative fiction. There are only few exceptions of writers, which had either personal or professional relative experience (Vizyinos, Filiras, Zarkos, Pratikakis). In the short stories of Aranitsis, Pratikakis and Skaribas, there is a different representation of the madman, close to surreal demands. Here, madness holds the reign, and not the miserable logic. The mental experiences, no matter how painful, are being romanticized. The madman, as well as his speech, is broken and shattered, both physically and mentally.

5. Comments – Observations

Madness, with its multiple declarations and its "situational" incoherence, ends up (both in and out of the world of fiction) in a meaningful "void", which our primitive fears and worries about normality and deviation are projected on, the fundamental fear caused by something different, and, more precisely, madness. In the short stories we examined, madness seems to preserve its enigmas, either as a sort of super – truth, or as a degenerated form of logic.

One would expect that the representation of madness should be amended, in accordance with the evolution of psychiatric knowledge. However, its fictional representation leads to over – simplification, as a constant "collage" of symptoms, from the schizophrenic and manic – depressive and melancholic behavior, to an obsession with the description of simple behaviors or outward thinking, that "provoke" the reader.

In some of the stories, clear psychoanalytical readings of madness lie (causality, phenomenology, and symptomatology). In Papadiamanti's "Shrew mother", the castrated crazy – Zachos is caught in the web of the dangerously phallic Zogara, never reaches mental adulthood, he adopts the "harmless" role of the surrogate father and he plays his

instrument, the bouzouki below the window of the young school teacher; inside this unsolvable Oedipus complex, the absence of the father leaves the son unprotected to the sadistic claws of his mother. The “dark side” of motherhood in all its glory: the boys run away from her without ever coming back, hiding somewhere between the Pacific Ocean and Polynesia. Her daughters die before their time. As for unlucky Zachos, madness becomes his refuge. In the case of the “Madwoman” written by Eftaliotis, her melancholy can be interpreted as a suppressed aggressiveness for a love object that was lost. Instead of enduring the painful process of letting go of her idealized beloved, she refuses to accept the reality of the loss and turns her sadness – in the form of aggression – on herself. Melancholy replaces the inexistence of a world that has lost its appeal, with an inexistence of her that sometimes borders with suicide (Freud 2005: 120-124). However, the psychoanalytical view just “crawls” between the lines of the texts. The romantic aspect of a suicidal death or the naiveties of the mad hero respectively, are being promoted.

All in all, the registration of madness as a reflection of its reality through (re) presentation collides with its own “situational singularity”; it is nothing, if not simple. It also collides with the situational limitations of the story itself, concerning the realistic representation of every reality, and even more when it comes to the (non) reality of madness, as an absolute variation. As a humble conclusion, the chosen short stories of our study cannot represent madness; they stay in the surface of naivety or at the depths of a surreal depiction.

Fiction is encased in a “compulsive” realism – the accurate reference of every detail of things or scenes, the description of the things we understand. It does not manage to extract us from the excruciatingly defined world of madness (symptomatology, phenomenology, etiology) and lead us to the unsolved mystery of its mental pain. Even the surrealistic representation of a delirium speech, renders the reading too familiar, “...up to the point when we are ready to swear on its authenticity” (Preisendanz 1990: 107). Fiction is unable to familiarize itself with the unfamiliarity of madness.

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TRACING (DIS)CONTINUITIES BETWEEN CHILDREN'S LITERACY PRACTICES AT HOME AND IN THE KINDERGARTEN: A CASE STUDY¹

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Abstract

Several studies have identified the central role of mass cultural and media texts in the shaping of young children's out-of-school literacy practices (e.g. Browne 1999, Marsh & Thompson 2001). Although it is often supported that early childhood educators need to take account of the home literacy practices of their students, they tend to be negatively disposed towards mass culture, expressing concerns about its content and educational value (e.g. Dyson 1997, Seiter 1999), and thus the sociocultural experiences which are closest to the child are rarely included in the literacy events he/she participates in the nursery (e.g. Dyson 2001, Marsh 2000a, 2000b). As a result, a dissonance between out-of-school and schooled literacy practices of children is often detected, with important consequences especially for those coming from the lower socio-economic strata. Focusing on the kindergarten of a socially unprivileged suburb of Thessaloniki (Diavata), we explore young children's (aged 5-6 years old) access to and use of mass culture and media at home and in the nursery as well as teachers' perspectives about the use of mass cultural and media resources in early childhood settings. Qualitative data were collected from a range of sources, including semi-structured interviews with children and teachers, questionnaires with parents and unstructured observations in the kindergarten classroom. Results indicate that children's literacy practices at home were focused on television, whereas in the kindergarten a focus was given on the reading of books with scientific, mythological or religious content. Teachers were found ambivalent about the inclusion of mass culture at school, while parents tended to under-report their children's use of mass cultural texts at home.

Keywords: *mass culture, media, out-of-school literacy practices, early childhood education*

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1. Introduction

Over the past decades, technological developments have led to significant changes in the ways by means of which we communicate and undertake daily tasks involving reading, writing, and production of texts. The impact of this digital revolution on the lives of young children is rarely considered, although they are

engaged in the social practices of the 'new media age' (Kress 2003), along with the older children, adolescents and adults who surround them. Young children are immersed in practices related to popular culture, the media and new technologies from birth. They are growing up in a digital world and developing a wide range of skills. Moreover, they live in a media-saturated world in which texts have multiple connections with others, since their favorite popular heroes appear in a wide range of objects such as toys, books, comics, clothes, food packaging and others (Kinder 1991). Through their engagement with the media and technology from very young age, children develop 'media literacy', which refers to the ability to access, understand and create communications in a variety of contexts (Ofcom 2004).

As a result, mass culture plays a central role in the shaping of young children's out-of-school literacy practices. Even at very young ages, children tune into programs that can influence their literacy development (e.g. Fish 2004, Marsh et al. 2005). If children are encountering these texts in a wide range of media outside school, then it makes sense for them to be able to analyze, understand, respond to and produce texts using these media at school. Watching educational content on TV typically relates to more positive outcomes for children, such as greater gains in academic skills and higher achievement. With respect to literacy in particular, educational programs drawing upon the media have been shown to positively impact specific early literacy skills, including letter recognition (Ball & Bogatz 1970), narrative skills (Linebarger & Piotrowski 2009), vocabulary, and other early literacy skills. Hence, some researchers have argued that the media should be viewed as a potential benefit to learning (Marsh et al. 2005, Robinson & Turnbull 2005). Alvermann et al. (2003) showed how educators who integrated students' everyday literacy practices and popular culture interests managed to teach successfully language arts concepts and critical literacy skills. For instance, a kindergarten teacher designed a course about animals based on students' rich background knowledge and keen interest on *Pokemon*, a cartoon and video game about animals with super powers which are enhanced by their users-'trainers'. These animals are similar to those living in the natural

world, and thus the teacher, building on the students' knowledge of *Pokemon*, used an interactive writing strategy to help them grasp the concept of comparing and contrasting and gain some knowledge about animals.

Although recent approaches to literacy studies have stressed the importance of children's out-of-school literacy practices in their literacy development in general and their school success in particular (Hull & Schultz 2001), educational institutions have not always valued the cultural practices of childhood (Dyson 1997 Marsh & Millard 2000). Pushed to the margin of the classroom life, popular culture and the media have been seen to pose threats to the educational attainment of children. Despite the fact that there have been few studies which have explored the attitudes and experiences of early years practitioners in relation to the use of popular culture, the media and new technologies, the limited existing research suggests that early childhood educators tend to be negatively disposed towards mass culture, expressing concerns about its content and educational value (Dyson 1997, Seiter 1999; for the Greek context, see Kyridis et al. 2006). Makin et al. (1999) found that although many parents expressed favorable attitudes towards their children's engagement with popular culture, teachers did not, by complaining that the media have a corrupting and negative influence on children. There has been a series of 'moral panics' (Cohen 1987) about the perceived negative impact of the media on children's emotional, social and cognitive development, in addition to worries about the way in which children are positioned as economic targets by multinational companies (Kenway & Bullen 2001). However, Arthur (2005) conducted a study and found that educators who have moved on and acknowledged the role that popular texts could play in the curriculum enjoyed the increased engagement in learning that they brought. It is vital that educational institutions respond to these wider social and cultural changes so that they offer children opportunities to develop skills, knowledge and understanding which will be of value in the new knowledge economy (Luke & Carrington 2002).

Consequently, home literacy practices are rarely included in schooled literacy practices, since, as we move closer towards the child's

inner circle, fewer literacy practices are underlined (Dyson 1998, 2001, Marsh 2000a, 2000b, Kenner 2000). As a result, a dissonance between out-of school and schooled literacy practices of children is often detected, with important consequences especially for those coming from the lower socio-economic strata, who tend to be closer to mass culture and more distant from schooled literacy practices (see also "the home-school mismatch hypothesis" proposed by Luke 2004).

In light of the above, in the present study we attempted to map young children's everyday literacy practices at home in comparison with their literacy practices at school, with the aim to explore potential (dis)continuities between children's practices at home and in the kindergarten. Specifically, we investigated young children's (aged 4-6 years old) access to and use of mass culture and media at home and in the kindergarten, as well as teachers' perspectives about the use of mass cultural and media resources in early childhood settings. Being part of a larger project, in the present paper we report the findings of a case study, which took place in a socially unprivileged suburb of Thessaloniki (Diavata).

2. Methodology

The sample consisted of children attending the kindergarten of Diavata, as well as of their parents and teachers. Specifically, 28 children aged 4-6 years old participated in the study. From them, 60.7% were boys and 39.3% were girls, 60.7% were Greeks and 39.3 % were immigrants (54.5% originating from Albania). Moreover, 28 parents were surveyed. The majority of the respondents were high-school graduates (82.1%), women (85.7%) and housewives (75.0%). Their general low socio-economic and educational status could be explained by the location of the school in which the study took place, while the predominance of the female gender of respondents was due to the fact that mothers were the ones who came to the school more frequently. Finally, the two female teachers being appointed on a tenure track to the kindergarten also participated in the study. The one was 45 years old, was graduated from a two-year Pedagogical Nursery School, and also served as the principal of the school. The

other teacher was 35 years old and was graduated from a four-year Department of Early Childhood Education.

For the aims of the present research, both quantitative and qualitative data were collected by using a variety of instruments, i.e., semi-structured interviews with children and teachers, questionnaires with parents, and unstructured observations in the kindergarten classroom. Therefore, we were able to investigate how children perceive their literacy practices related to mass culture and the media and compare them with their parents' views. On the other hand, through teachers' interviews, we had the opportunity to explore their perspectives on the use of mass cultural texts at school, while our own observations were able to shed more light on how children engage in mass culture and to what extent (as well as in what terms) mass culture is exploited in the kindergarten.

Interviews with children and questionnaires with parents referred to the following common topics:

- a. Views on children's literacy practices related to mass culture and the role of the family (e.g. ownership and access to media)
- b. Views on children's patterns of mass culture and media use (e.g. preferences related to books/ comics, TV, advertising, theater and cinema)

Children's interviews also explored their ideas about their literacy practices in the kindergarten (e.g. book readings, references to mass culture).

Teachers' interviews covered the following topics:

1. Views on children's literacy practices related to mass culture at home (e.g. preferences to TV, books/ comics etc.)
2. Views on children's literacy practices and use of mass culture in the kindergarten (e.g. book readings, educational use of mass culture)
3. Views on (dis)continuities between children's home and schooled literacy practices (e.g. whether the curriculum makes/ should make references to mass culture)

Unstructured observations in the kindergarten were made by the first researcher

(Katerina Maroniti), who worked at the time as kindergarten teacher in the particular school. Hence, the researcher had a daily contact with children and could systematically observe their discussions about mass culture, as well as the involvement of mass cultural texts in their play and the artifacts they made. Moreover, an inventory was constructed containing a list of the books found in the shelves of the school and of the technological equipment (e.g. television, computer, DVD player) being available and employed in the kindergarten.

Interview data were analyzed through the use of qualitative data analysis (Miles & Huberman 1994). On the first level of data reduction, interview transcripts were classified into smaller units according to the conceptual framework and the research questions of the study. Next, sentences and clauses that expressed a certain meaning were grouped together. In this way, codes carrying an operational definition were derived. On the second level of reduction, codes were grouped together for the formation of broader thematic categories, depending on the research aims of the study. Finally, categories were classified into much broader common thematic strands. Questionnaire data were processed quantitatively. The Pearson's chi-squared test (χ^2) test was used, in order to detect significant differences in the parents' responses according to their ethnic origin (i.e. Greeks vs. immigrants).

3. Results

3.1. Children's results

From the analysis of interviews, 98 codes emerged, which were grouped into 14 categories and classified into 4 thematic strands. According to their responses, children have access to a wide range of media and technologies. The overriding majority of children watch TV on a daily basis (96.4%). Except for cartoons (100.0%), the majority of them claimed that their favorite TV programs are adult ones, such as commercials (96.4%), TV series (78.6%) and films (71.4%). It is noteworthy that children mentioned that they watch TV with their parents' permission.

Most children are exposed to printed media, since they answered that their parents read newspapers and magazines (71.4%), while there

are books in most of children's houses (85.7%). Moreover, they have their own books and answered that their parents (mostly their mother) read them some book (89.2%) before they go for sleep. According to their responses, their favorite books are fairy tales (71.4%). According to their responses, these mainly include classic fairy tales (e.g. *The Sleeping Beauty*, *The Little Red Riding Hood*, *Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs*) and illustrated books with pop cultural heroes, such as Barbie.

Most of the children claimed to have access to a computer (78.5%) and an Internet connection (60.7%). They also answered that they use computers with their parents' permission (64.2%), mostly during their leisure time (e.g. weekends).

In the question if they discuss at school about their favorite films, TV series or pop cultural heroes, 64.2% of children answered that they never discussed about these topics. Only 21.4% of them responded positively, but they couldn't give any concrete examples.

On the other hand, according to the responses of immigrant children, some of them have access to books written in both L1 (i.e. mother tongue) and L2 (i.e. Greek) (36.4%), while others possess only Greek books (36.4%). Similarly, they claimed that their parents read them either in both L1 and L2 (45.45%) or exclusively in L2 (36.4%). It is noteworthy that none of them responded to have or be read books only written in L1. Considering television, though, the majority of them answered that they watch TV programs in both L1 and L2 (81.8%).

From the qualitative analysis, some tendencies were observed in terms of the gender and the ethnic origin of children. More specifically, immigrant children and girls seemed to have more limited access to computers and the Internet than Greek children and boys. On the other hand, gender differences were observed regarding children's favorite pop cultural hero/ine. Boys tended to refer only to male characters, while girls mostly to female ones. Specifically, boys preferred well-known superheroes (e.g. Superman, Batman) and "masculine" cartoon characters (e.g. McQueen), while girls opted for heroines inspired by their dolls (e.g. Barbie) as well as for "feminine" (e.g. Tinker Bell) and more "gender-neutral" cartoon characters (e.g. SpongeBob).

As emerging from our own observations, children's interest in popular culture was intense. We noticed that children tried to relate their activities in the kindergarten to what they saw on TV. They played roles from ads (e.g. "Kitsos & Tassoula" by Vodafone ads), they sang songs from popular culture (e.g. "ai se tu pego"). It is noteworthy mentioning the following incident: girls were interested in Disney's princesses, so they connected a book (its content related to a princess) with their interest and they called it "the book with Disney's princesses". As a result, children tended to link their out-of-school to their in-school literacy practices.

3.2. Parents' questionnaires

All parents declared that they read fairy tales to their children (100.0%). Moreover, Greek parents tended to also read them some encyclopedic and educational books (68.75%), whereas immigrant parents to read them some comics (57.1%).

When asked about what kind of books best reflect the interests of children in the kindergarten, Greek parents mentioned fairy tales and educational books (93.75% and 68.75%, respectively), while immigrant parents reported that only fairy tales represent children's interests (92.9%). Comics were rejected by both (but especially by Greek) parent groups as non-appropriate material for the classroom (rejected by 93.75% Greek and by 64.3% immigrant parents).

Moreover, all parents claimed that their children mostly watch cartoons on TV. Interestingly, compared with their children's responses, parents (and especially immigrants) under-reported adult TV programs to be watched by their children (62.5% of Greeks and 14.3% of immigrants referred to these programs), such as TV series, while they (but especially Greeks) over-reported documentaries (50.0% of Greeks and 35.7% of immigrants reported this program).

3.3. Kindergarten

Mapping the media equipment in the kindergarten, we found that children had limited access to mass culture and new technologies. According to our inventory, we observed that TV, DVD-player and CD-player were rarely used by teachers. TV and DVD player were locked in a big closet, ignoring their existence. Throughout the whole school year, these media were never used

by the teachers. CD-player was rarely employed by the teachers, usually when there were school celebrations. There was only one computer, located in the principal's office. Emphasis was given on reading books with scientific, mythological or religious content. Fairy tales were clearly limited and the lack of comics was visibly noticeable.

3.4. Kindergarten teachers' interviews

From the analysis of the two interviews, 53 codes emerged, which were grouped into 8 categories and classified into 3 thematic strands. According to their responses, it seems that both educators were facing the use of mass culture in the kindergarten with caution, or even with hostility. Specifically, both teachers reported to mostly use in their classes books with scientific and mythological content, as well as fairy tales, while they claimed to use mass cultural texts such as songs, magazines or newspapers very limitedly. Also, both early childhood educators did not use any films.

When asked what criteria they choose to the texts they read to their pupils, the responses of the two educators differed considerably. The older teacher claimed to select them based on the proposals of the school counselor, through bookstore lists, but also depending on the desires of children. In contrast, the younger educator answered to select books based on the front page, the illustration, the topic, and to some extent, on the wishes of children.

With respect to the question as to which mass cultural texts they consider to be more useful for the development of children's communicative skills, both teachers responded that all texts are useful as forms of communication for children, although they put a particular emphasis on the educational value of fairy tales. Moreover, the younger educator mentioned children's newspapers and the animated films of Disney.

Nevertheless, the educators were found ambivalent about the inclusion of mass culture to schooled literacy practices. The younger educator answered that mass culture should be used, because it helps children's socialization and literacy development. In contrast, the older teacher was negative towards the use of mass culture at school because of its low educational value and children's over-exposure to such texts

at home.

Consequently, the two teachers held conflicting views on whether they should discuss about popular cultural texts with children. The older educator answered that she systematically refrains from discussing, since she considered that children are over-exposed to such texts at home. The other teacher responded that she tries to discuss about such texts with children, but always with the stimulation of children. Moreover, she showed a preference for informational rather than entertaining genres, such as documentaries, news and weather forecast. On the other hand, she admitted her ignorance about many of the favorite popular cultural characters of children.

Regarding the potential (dis)continuities between children's home and schooled literacy practices, their views were also diverging. The older teacher argued strongly that the school provides higher quality literacy practices than those children are exposed to in their homes. Conversely, the other teacher expressed the belief that there is a convergence between schooled and home literacy practices, and even she claimed that this is mainly achieved through the institution of lending library.

4. Concluding remarks

This case study revealed that young children are immersed in literacy practices related to popular culture (mostly TV), media and new technologies from birth. They are growing up in a digital world and develop a wide range of skills, knowledge and understanding of the world. Parents seemed to support their children's interest in popular culture through the provision of resources and interactions with children (e.g. reading of fairy tales). They tended to under-report, though, that their children are watching adult TV programs, such as TV series, and to over-report the watching of documentaries.

The present study also revealed some differences in children's digital literacy practices depending on their gender and ethnic origin. Gender differences in computer access and use could be explained by the so-called digital divide thought to exist between men and women (e.g. Bimber 2000, Livingstone & Bovill 2000). On the other hand, the ethnic differences in the technoliteracies of children could be justified by the

Bourdieu's concept of "cultural capital" (Bourdieu 1990), according to which the divergences observed in the ownership of types of media between social groups cannot be simply explained by income. Hence, families with high income and level of education are more likely to own more books and have access to the Internet than other families with the same income but lower education, who are more likely to demonstrate higher levels of ownership of screen entertainment media (Marsh et al. 2005).

On other hand, the present study confirmed that the kindergarten tended to neglect children's cultural capital brought from home, since children's interests in popular cultural were largely excluded from the educational process. Specifically, it was observed that the preference of children for popular culture was not taken into account by the kindergarten teachers, but instead remained untapped. In this way, children experience more intensely the incompatibility of home literacy practices at school. Instead, as previous studies (Dyson 1997, Marsh 2000a) have indicated, allowing children to bring popular culture from their home experiences to the classroom can have an electrifying effect on children and orient them to schooled practices, since they feel that their interests are recognized as important.

The exclusion of mass culture from the kindergarten could be partly explained by the views teachers held about the role of mass culture and the media at school. Both teachers expressed concerns about the content and educational value of these texts. Also, they seemed worried about the perceived amount of time children spend on these activities. Even though the younger teacher expressed the view that mass culture should be included to the curriculum, she attempted to direct children's interest to more "educational" and "useful" texts, such as weather forecast or documentaries, namely to texts which children seem to prefer the least. Despite the fact that she recognized that fairy tales and popular Disney's films could help children's communicative competence, in fact we observed that she never included such texts to her teaching. In conclusion, the teachers of our study expressed, more or less, the dominant view, also detected in other studies (Dyson 1997, Kyridis et al. 2006, Seiter 1999), that popular culture is

detrimental to children's literacy development and that the school should provide them with higher forms of culture (Alvermann et al. 2003).

As a case study, the present research poses certain limitations regarding the generalization of the findings. In the future, an attempt will be made to map children's literacy practices on a larger scale, in order to trace in a more systematic way differences in terms of the gender, the ethnic and the social origin of children. Further attention should be also paid to the needs of early years teachers with regard to the development of content and pedagogical knowledge about the use of mass media and culture.

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VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT THROUGH CONCORDANCES IN A GREEK ESP CONTEXT

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Abstract

Vocabulary development and acquisition have always been one of the core activities in foreign language learning, whether it is for general purposes or for specific/ academic ones (Swales, 1983). For this reason, this paper makes an attempt to present an alternative way of approaching vocabulary instruction within a Greek ESP context through a computer software (concordancer), which analyzes electronically gathered reading texts (corpora) for the discovery of regular patterns and lexical sets, an approach called Data-Driven Learning (DDL). This pilot study took place at the University of Western Macedonia, Pedagogical Faculty, Department of Primary education, Florina, Greece. Before implementing this pilot project 40 students' needs were identified by using a questionnaire exploring their difficulties, deficiencies and teaching preferences related to all four skills in learning vocabulary. In DDL (Tim John's coinage) the learning process is no longer based solely on the teachers' initiative and the explicit teaching of rules, but on the learner's own discovery of rules, principles and patterns of usage in the foreign language, so learning is driven by authentic language data. The specific approach proved to be quite promising, since the use of technology contributed to simulating students' motivation as well as to developing academic vocabulary.

Keywords: *ESP, needs analysis, DDL, concordancers, corpora, collocations*

1. Introduction

1.1. Data-Driven Learning (DDL), concordances and corpora

DDL (Data Driven Learning), which may be regarded as a subdivision of CALL (Computer-Assisted Language Learning), is an approach to language learning whereby the learner gains insights into the language that he/she is learning by using concordance programs to locate authentic examples of language in use. Sinclair (1997) views it as a new horizon in CALL, because it offers the foreign language students opportunities to engage in authentic tasks in a low-risk environment, truly interacting with authentic texts, and using appropriate tools.

In DDL the learning process is no longer

based solely on the teachers' initiative or their choice of topics and materials and the explicit teaching of rules, but on the learner's own discovery of rules, principles and patterns of usage in the foreign language, so learning is driven by authentic language data. DDL is actually an approach to the use of corpus data in language teaching and language learning (Johns 1986, 1991) and these data can be manipulated to display the concordance word (key word) in complete sentences or to show frequently occurring words (collocations) that occur on the left or on the right of the key word. Hadley (2008) explains that this gathered linguistic information can be used by teachers to provide hard data to back up their subjective judgments on difficult questions of grammatical nature while students use them for error analysis or as an aid to improve their reading and writing skills.

1.2. Concordances and corpora

A concordance is a software program designed to analyze a corpus (a collection of texts stored in a database) and when a user searches for a word in the corpus, the concordancer returns all the occurrences of the word within the context of use and the list of examples is called Key Words in Context (KWIC)¹. More specifically, concordances aim at furnishing evidence on the actual use of whatever word/string of words is problematic for the language learner. As the concordancers show so many examples in the context of the same word, language students will be able to deduce the meaning and the patterns of the word and many grammatical features of the word are immediately clear if students analyze several examples of the word². Many researchers such as Cobb (1997), Levy (1992), Owen (1996), Tribble and Jones (1997) regard it as one of the most promising recent ideas in CALL.

Bower and Pearson (2002: 9) describe a corpus as "a large collection of authentic texts

that have been gathered in electronic form according to a specific set of criteria". Corpus linguistics can thus contribute to rendering learning a foreign language more effective since students will be faced with real language. Corpora-based materials reveal the most frequent lexical items, significant common syntactic patterns and important functional/notional areas which are needed for the target situation and which can be incorporated into the syllabus and teaching materials (Lehmann, 1993, cited in An-Nayef, n.d.)

General or established corpora include texts from a wide variety of different genres and these pre-packed corpora offer advantages in terms of reliability as it is likely to give more reliable results and be reasonably representative of the population it aims to cover (Biber, 1993). They generally provide better documentation and include meta-textual information about individual texts and their sources and many of them come with specially designed interrogation software (Aston, 2002).

Compiling specialised or "home" corpora have a number of advantages, as well. Firstly, because they are carefully targeted, the data they consist of is likely to represent the target domain more faithfully than corpora which set out to capture everything about a language as a whole. Secondly, specialised lexis and structures are likely to occur with more regular patterning and distribution, even with relatively small amounts of data. Thirdly, the pedagogical goals in terms of how they are used and applied are likely to be easier to define and delimit.

2. Pilot project

2.1 Purpose and objectives

The main purpose of this pilot project is to inspire learners' study motivation by using an alternative and more motivating way of teaching and developing ESP vocabulary. Corpus-based concordances can be an effective tool for second language learning as Hunston (2002) and Sinclair (2004) ascertain, as by analyzing concordance lines students are encouraged to investigate their own questions and therefore become more independent readers. An extensive linguistic corpus is a gold mine of authentic language use and mining that through KWIC concordances can

¹As explained by Sinclair (1991), concordances are typically exploited in the form of KWIC-formatted concordances and this full format prints a whole line of text with the word under examination, i.e. the node, in the middle of the line and with extra space on either side of it. The surrounding text at both sides of the node constitutes its verbal environment and it is commonly referred to as co-text, thus the node is offered to the researcher/learner for examination within its original context.

²These contexts can be displayed in a line or in a sentence or in a paragraph.

provide students with multiple contexts, from which new vocabulary can be learned. Tribble (1990: 11) draws on the same idea by maintaining that what the concordancer does is to "make the invisible visible" while Stevens (1991) repeats once more that language learners can benefit from teaching materials promoting inductivity, authenticity and learner responsibility for learning.

3. Sample

The participants of this ESP course were students of the first semester of the University of Western Macedonia, Department of Primary Education, Faculty of Pedagogy, in Florina. 69, 6% of the sample were females and 30, 4% were males while 18 students (78, 3%) were enrolled in the first year of their studies, 2 (8, 7%) in the second, 1 (4, 3%) in the third and 2 (8, 7%) in the fourth. The majority of the students (19, 82, 6%) were registered in the second semester while there is 1 student (4, 3%) in the third semester, 1 (4, 3%) in the fourth and 2 (8, 7%) in the eighth one. Their age varied from 18-25 years.

The English language is a core subject in the two semesters of the department which engages students in reading relevant authentic materials, helping them increase both linguistic and academic skills, enhance their subject knowledge and develop English language skills. The teaching methods used are traditional teacher centered lectures, vocabulary is taught via translation and synonyms, whereas assessment methods are written exams and mini assignments.

4. Material design

4.1. The needs analysis questionnaire

The importance of carrying out a needs analysis for developing ESP/EAP courses is emphasized by Fultcher (1999) and according to Iwai et al (1999) the term needs analysis generally refers to the activities involved in collecting information that will serve as the basis for developing a curriculum that will meet the needs of a particular group of students. Following Mundy (1978) and Yalden (1987) needs analysis is the starting point for course design and Stevens (1977: 155) emphasises the importance of determining students needs as "a movement towards learner-centred instruction where

teaching should be designed to meet the precise need of the learner".

The particular questionnaire consists of four conceivable parts, each one covering different needs and providing different information. Part A generally focuses on respondents' personal facts, part B seeks information about respondents' present level of the target language, their attitude towards English course and their target language needs while part C explores difficulties and deficiencies related to all four skills in learning vocabulary. Part D is regarded as the most crucial as it investigates valuable information concerning learners' preferred class activities, teaching experiences so far and their learning/ teaching needs.

4.2. The results of the questionnaire

The total number of questionnaires administered to students was 40 but unfortunately the number of completed and returned ones amounts to 23. The detailed quantitative data gathered from these 23 respondents are presented in tables while the researcher has analyzed the data and the variables with the SPSS statistical program.

14 students (60, 9%) have answered that they have studied English for 10-8 years in public schools, 4 (17, 4%) for 8-6 years, 3 (13%) for 6-4 and 2 (8, 7%) for 4-0 15 (65, 2%) respondents have also studied English in private sector for 7 years, 6 (26, 1%) for 5 years, 1 (4, 3%) for 3 years and 1 (4, 3%) has never attended private classes. Further results inform us that 18 (78, 3%) of them have already got a certificate of English language (namely 11 (47, 8%) the Proficiency certificate, 6 (26, 1%) the First Certificate, 2 (8, 7%) the KPG certificate and 4 (17, 4%) none, while 1 (4, 7%) is still studying in order to obtain one). Their attitude towards the English course is explained by that 11 students (47, 8%) attend this course in order to be in contact with English language, 7 (30, 4%) claim that they will need it in the future while only 5 (21, 7%) admit that they do so because it is obligatory, while 17 (73, 9%) students have already felt the necessity for good command of English language, 4 (17, 4%) seldom and 2 (8, 7%) never. As far as the reasons for such necessity 16 (69, 6%) of them have included the use of internet, 10 (43, 5%) the lyrics comprehension 12 (52, 2%) the English spoken films (table 12.3, p. xx), fortunately only 5 (21, 7%) referred the TV but unfortunately only

6 (26, 1%) the English literature, and 9 (39, 1%) the newspapers and magazines. 11 respondents (47, 8%) have also mentioned the web surfing only 7 to read articles 13 (56,5) for personal communication, only 7 (30,4%) respondents refer their participation in European programs, while only 6 (26,1%) to attend conferences or seminars.

Regarding the skills to be developed in the English course, 7 (30, 4%) students referred terminology acquisition (reading), 6 (26, 1%), communication (speaking and writing), 5 (21, 7%) conversation (speaking), 4 (21, 7%) and 1 (4, 3%) literature (reading). As far as their difficulties in reading are concerned, the majority mentioned the reading of journals (11 respondents, 47, 8%) while 6 (26, 1%) mentioned terminology. Their difficulties in writing focuses on writing assignments (15 respondents, 65, 2%), in speaking concentrates on descriptive procedures (14 respondents, 60, 9%) while in listening they focus on attending conferences (13 respondents, 56, 5%). Examining learners' difficulties in vocabulary acquisition 12 (52, 2%) students referred terminology, 5 (21, 7%) phrasal verbs, 4 (17, 4%) synonyms and 2 (8, 7%) other reasons.

The fourth part focuses on learners' preferred activities; 16 (69, 6%) respondents neither liked multiple choices, nor (13, 56, 5%) gap-filling exercises, 18 (78, 3%) disliked T/F questions and translation in their mother tongue (16 respondents, 69, 6%), 20 (87%) respondents also did not favor written summaries but surprisingly 13 (56, 5%) of them liked reading comprehension. 16 (69, 6%) of them had no preference in matching exercises half of them (11 respondents, 47, 8%) liked working in groups, 14 (60,9%) were positive in visual/audio aids and finally 18 (78, 3%) showed obvious favor in the use of a computer lab. Traditional ways of vocabulary and grammar instruction have been used so far, as 10 (43, 5%) referred direct translation, 8 (34, 8%) grammar rules and 5 (21, 7%) memorization. The teacher was encouraged for her future decision since 22 respondents (95, 7%) were positive towards the use of computer lab in their instruction and only 1 (4, 3%) was not sure. 18 (78, 3%) as expected, have never heard about concordances, 2 (8, 7%) were not sure and only 3 (13%) were informed about them. A quite optimistic information for the teacher is, as 11 (47, 8%) believed that collocations and studying

whole sentences (10, 43, 5%) would offer better results in vocabulary development while only 2 ((8, 7%) respondents have chosen the "other" choice. Finally, 11 (47, 8%) students preferred teacher's feedback to be given at the end of their activities, 10 (43, 5%) right away with them and only 2 (8, 7%) at their meeting sessions with their teacher.

4.3. Choosing software

The writer after having conducted an extended internet research she decided to use WordSmith Tools 5 concordancer for the particular project. This freeware software package is published by the Oxford University Press, was developed by Mike Scott, it was downloaded from <http://www.lexically.net/wordsmith/index.html> and is accompanied by a thorough and informative manual. It provides a wide range of functions relevant to corpus linguistics in the form of an all-in-one suite whereas its functions are grouped in three main categories: Concord, Keywords and Wordlist. As the names of the categories suggest, the program can create concordances, perform keyword analyses and compile word-frequency lists. Since it is free downloadable, this demo version only presents 25 concordance lines but the writer considers that they are adequate for the study purposes. The Wordlist tool will let the students see a list of all the words or word-clusters in a text, set out in alphabetical or frequency order whereas the concordancer, (Concord), will give them a chance to see any word or phrase in context and with KeyWords, as suggested by the name, they can find the key words in a text. They can also identify collocations and in language processing systems, the presence of collocations can often provide the contextual information necessary to disambiguate words. Tribble and Jones (1990: 13) characterise this software as "in-memory text concordancer" as it reads the whole text into the computer's working memory and then operates on it to show different types of information as desired by the user(s).

4.4. Compiling the corpus

Being influenced by Aston (2002), who supports that these corpora can be specifically targeted to the learners' knowledge and concerns, the teacher decided to use the internet as a researching and retrieving source. Watson Todd

(2001) also advises that in order to build a specific corpus texts within the chosen area can be found in the Internet and downloaded. This is a quite time consuming task while Pearson (1998) suggests several factors when building a special purpose corpus, such as size, setting and topic, text type, technicality, audience and intended outcome, as the selection of the topics depends on the learners' field of knowledge. Kennedy (1998: 70) generates that "the optimal design of a corpus is highly dependent on the purpose for which it is intended to be used" so ESP teachers have to make learner-oriented decisions.

Thus, the teacher had gathered and saved 41 thematically related to her specialty downloadable articles containing 600-3000 words each, so all together this experimental corpus contains approximately 60.000 words and as the titles of the stored texts suggest, they concern pedagogical and methodological issues. She also took into consideration Zhang's (2008) suggestions about self-building a mini corpus³ and followed Tribble and Jones's (1990, p.14) suggestions that "a corpus of 50.000 words should be very useful for classroom purposes". According to Lewis (2000), cited in Watson Todd (2001), this is a corpus of specific genre of text, being compiled by academic and newspaper/journal feature articles.

5. Implementation

5.1. Teaching procedure

First step to be accomplished in order to prepare students to work with corpus linguistics is to give them some training on how to use computers for learning purposes and not for fun. They must be familiarized with the software they will be working on, using specialized linguistic corpora. Following Sun's (2003) suggestion that learners should receive a brief overview of the purpose and function of the concordancer, the teacher dedicates the first lesson on describing and explaining the steps to be followed in order to work with concordancers. Students observe the

teacher's demonstration on how to use concordances tools they gain hands-on experience and hopefully demonstrate capability in concordancer research. So they are ready to start their inquiry in their next meeting in the computer laboratory of the University.

When they meet again for the second class the teacher hands out the instruction and activities sheet. The main aim is to enhance learners' vocabulary development by concordancing authentic material, where objectives to be achieved are presented in analytical lesson plans. In the *pre-phase* students sitting in pairs, repeat the whole procedure being demonstrated by their teacher in the previous session by following the written instructions. Thus, learners get acquainted with the search and retrieval techniques used in concordance software. Learners are divided into two groups. Students of the first group⁴ type the word EDUCATIONAL and see the concordance results. Using the tool Concordance the students can analyze the stored texts and observe the key words and collocations easier and they further practice their computer and concordance skills. They consult the source and original instances of a word's use by double clicking on the retrieved word and go back to the original text and turn themselves to researchers.

During the *while-phase* students identify the key words and their collocations and following Kennedy (1998) they discover collocational and colligation features, they manage to make "the invisible visible" (Tribble, 1990: 11). Students further work on their activities prepared by their teacher, they summarize their findings and conclusions, and they share them with the pair sitting next to them. Thus, they promote inductivity, authenticity and responsibility for learning (Stevens, 1991) and become more independent readers. They follow the same retrieval procedure for the word EDUCATION and they try to infer rules about the lexical behaviors of the two words (adjective and noun). They report their results to the whole class.

In the *post-phase* students practice the collocation patterns analyzed in the former phase and complete their gap filling exercises. Looking at this exercise format one is at first sight very much reminded of simple gap filling

³ Namely a mini-corpus should be learner-oriented (the texts collected must be of learners interest or concern), understandable and difficulty suitable (so as students will not be frustrated by the non comprehensible instances of the corpus. It should be fully analyzable, easy to become familiar with and clearly patterned (collocations and other words associations must be self-evident).

⁴ Students of the second group work with the pair words of PEDAGOGICAL-PEDAGOGY

exercises built around one-line concordance contexts. However, by allowing learners to gradually access five contexts for a given item, the importance of thinking in terms of contextualized concepts and the need for cross-referencing becomes apparent. This puts learners in a position where they have to apply and practice various strategies while at the same time acquiring a much wider and diversified understanding of the item to be entered into the gap (Oppenheimer, 1997). Stevens (1991: 38) also suggests selecting "the most revealing contexts for the same word" from concordance outputs for making gap-filling exercises with multiple contexts, which is argued to reduce the chances of error and increase student confidence and improve performance. After students are familiar with how concordances can be generated, they can be directed to self-access vocabulary study by running what Stevens (1993: 10) calls "exploratory concordances".

Finally, students also word process the results of their findings and conclusions in order to compile a useful glossary concerning pedagogy and teaching disciplines, organizing thus "(huge) amounts of language data" (Stevens 1993: 11). For analytical teaching procedure, general aim and objectives see lesson plans I.

Alternatively, after the completion of a series of lessons a post needs analysis questionnaire can be administered to the students to evaluate the results of this computer enhanced learning and teaching procedure.

6. Discussion and concluding remarks

DDL, concordancers and corpora literature review have been described so far and the particular teaching situation has been presented, as well. A needs analysis questionnaire as a more appropriate data collection instrument has been designed and administered by the teacher, aiming at discovering problems or deficiencies in the teaching of ESP vocabulary. A thorough presentation to illustrate the appropriateness of its design elements and the relevance of its content to the pre-set research aims has been achieved. Having analyzed students' needs results, some interesting facts have emerged regarding their responses towards computer mediated learning and vocabulary instruction. The writer has been concerned with the choice of the suitable concordance software; the

compilation of a specialized corpus has been analyzed while sample teaching procedure and activities have also been described.

Summarizing all the above and as Mc Enery and Wilson (2009) concur, concordances can help teachers and learners of languages in the following ways: Teachers on the one hand, can use a concordancer to find examples of authentic usage to demonstrate features of vocabulary, typical collocations, and grammar points and they can generate exercises based on examples drawn from a variety of corpora. Students on the other hand, can work out rules of grammar or lexical features for themselves by searching for key words in context. Depending on their level, they can be invited to question some of the rules, based on their observation of patterns in authentic language. They can be more active in their vocabulary learning since they discover new meanings, observe habitual collocations and relate words to syntax. Learners can discover rules by retrieving instances of similar language usage or they become critical of dictionary entries. They can also be invited to reflect on language use in general, based on their own explorations of a corpus of data, thus turning themselves into researchers.

Since no method or technique is perfect, a number of problems would probably arise by using DDL and the major one might be the amount of data the learners could be exposed to. Some students may become quickly overwhelmed and demotivated if they are provided with too much data and may not receive sufficient exposure to the grammatical or lexical items. Another serious problem is the difficulty of the concordance material since even if the focus of the concordance was at the level of the students, the vocabulary and sentence structure which collocated with the key words would often be beyond their level ability. In this case the teacher should face the dilemma either to simplify the concordance material and lessen its authenticity or to maintain the authenticity and risk demotivating some students because of the difficulty of the material. Preparation and development of the material on the other hand, takes a lot of time but hopefully the conscientious use of corpora would be a valuable, exciting and challenging teaching resource aiming at students' motivation, raising their interest to work with authentic material data and improving their reading/writing skills.

Some other limitations that DDL might poses are that corpus use may not lead the learner to "pedagogically appropriate generalizations", as Aston (1997: 52) and Bernandini (2002: 166) refer, since students need to be trained and use the resources correctly. Moreover, Hunston (2002) and Sinclair (2004) complain that for a variety of reasons, corpus –based pedagogical materials are not widely used by teachers and learners both in ESL and EFL contexts, partially because teachers are often unaware of how to incorporate effectively the benefits of corpus-based concordances into their instructional modules.

Foulds (1991: 47-53) cited in Ma (1993) points out the value of concordancers in "monitoring and adjusting linguistic features" in pedagogic texts. As with any application of new technology in the classroom or in research, both the researcher and the students are likely to get excited with it at the beginning.

The writer wishes her proposal to be a useful pedagogical tool, subjected to serious experimentation in different situations, using students of different backgrounds and levels.

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WRITING IN ENGLISH AS A SECOND / FOREIGN LANGUAGE: A LONGITUDINAL STUDY FOCUSED ON STUDENTS WITH SPECIFIC LEARNING DISABILITIES OF 5TH AND 6TH ELEMENTARY SCHOOL GRADES: A PRELIMINARY ANALYSIS

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Abstract

The present study is concerned with eliciting information about the errors made and the difficulties encountered as well as the strategies utilized by students with specific learning disabilities while writing in English as a second/foreign language. More specifically, the study aims at:

- identifying the errors made and the difficulties encountered by the students of the fifth and the sixth grades of primary school when they perform a writing task;
- recording the range of the cognitive, metacognitive and socioaffective strategies they employ in the writing process and
- identifying the possible differences between students with and without specific learning disabilities in their using of writing strategies and in their making of errors.

The sample consisted of 88 students with and without specific learning disabilities aged between 11 and 13. The data for the study were selected through the following instruments: (a) a variety of writing activities to be done by the students in order to gather data concerning the detection of errors and difficulties in writing, (b) thinking aloud reports to investigate the students' writing strategies in the pre-writing, while-writing and post-writing stages and (c) retrospective interviews to understand the students' writing sub-processes. The data have been collected and we are in the process of analyzing them. Both quantitative and qualitative approaches will be adopted for the analysis of the data. The findings of the study are expected to contribute to the discussion of research on the writing difficulties students with specific learning disabilities meet with.

Keywords: *specific learning disabilities, writing, foreign language, longitudinal study*

1. Introduction

Researches in the area of second or foreign language learning as well as in the area of bilingualism and multilingualism conducted over the last decades have revealed that second or foreign language learning enriches and enhances the linguistic, cognitive and social development of the learners, thus exerting a positive impact on their personal, academic and professional life (Baker 2001).

As a result, one or more foreign languages were added to the Educational Curricula worldwide in an effort to promote language learning (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages 2011). In the Greek context, English is one of the modern foreign languages added to the mainstream curriculum as a compulsory subject with a view to provide students with linguistic and cultural equipment to communicate successfully both orally and in writing.

During the initial stages of foreign language learning, the focus is on oral language acquisition; writing is not neglected though, as it is one of the basic components of literacy development and a necessary pre-requisite for success in both school and employment setting and in society (Graham & Harris 2004, Graham & Perin 2007).

Writing in English as a foreign language starts to be taught from the third primary grade; yet, there is a great number of students who find it difficult to acquire or fall short in producing texts appropriate to their grade levels according to the teachers' judgments based on observation and testing. The problem is more intense among students with specific learning disabilities (LD), who experience difficulties in perceiving, processing, remembering and expressing information (Graham & Harris 2004). As a result, they are inhibited to become competent foreign language users; besides, they feel excluded from the foreign language classroom since they cannot cope with the demands of the curriculum.

The term 'learning disabilities', as defined by the National Joint Committee on Learning Disabilities (1990), refers to a heterogeneous group of disorders manifested by significant difficulties in the acquisition and use of listening, speaking, reading, writing, reasoning or mathematical abilities. Children with specific learning disabilities may show problems in all these areas or only in one or two.

The disorder of written expression usually appears in conjunction with other reading or language disabilities (Panteliadou & Botsas 2007). It is estimated that writing disabilities affect 10% of the school-age population worldwide (Lyon, Fletcher & Barnes 2003). According to the American Psychiatric

Association (2000), the essential feature of disorder of written expression is "writing skills that fall substantially below those expected given the individual's chronological age, measured intelligence, and age-appropriate education". Another criterion is that the disturbance must interfere with academic achievement or daily activities that require writing skills.

Students classified under the specific learning disability category are usually qualified for special education services involving additional support, materials and intervention procedures (Barnes, Fletcher & Lynn 2007); in the Greek context though, students with LD receive special education services only in the Greek language and mathematics. In relation to English as a foreign language (EFL), they attend the regular classes and do not receive additional support by a special education teacher of English.

This situation impedes foreign language acquisition, especially writing acquisition, which is a complex process (Kay 2003). It also creates the need for the state schoolteachers of English to be informed of (a) the difficulties the students with LD encounter in the process of writing and (b) their possible differences in comparison to peers without LD

in order to be able to identify them and plan differentiated writing instruction to meet the needs of the students and improve their writing performance (Mulroy & Eddinger 2003).

Studies focused on writing and written expression have revealed that writing is a multifaceted cognitive process. It includes practices that range from the more mechanical or formal aspects of writing down, letter, word formation, sentence or text structure, spelling, punctuation, capitalization, to the more complex act of composing, developing and analyzing ideas (Graham 2010, Hadley 1993).

When composing in their first or second / foreign language students need to

- a. plan and generate ideas, being aware of the audience and purpose, searching memory for sociolinguistic information and content knowledge,
- b. transform intended meanings into the form of the message by applying language rules,
- c. generate language in sentences using

- production systems,
- d. revise and check what has been written using metacognitive strategies (Flower & Hayes 2003, Kellogg 1999).

These stages are done recursively, shifting focus from form to content, from product to process (Tribble 1997). All this implies that when students compose, they need to have various fully-functioning memory (Anderson 1995, Swanson et al. 2004) and cognitive-linguistic processes (O' Shaughnessy & Swanson 1998) in order to retrieve vocabulary, spelling rules, grammar and syntax rules as well as organizational, planning, and sequencing processes in order to produce meaningful written discourse. In addition, the students' ability to activate and control the neurological functions which manage the muscles that ensure proper pencil grip and hand movement, precise hand-eye coordination, and grapho-motor movements to form letters is crucial (Levine 2002).

Considering all these assumptions, it is concluded that the demands of writing may be a stressful experience, especially for those who are struggling writers, like most students with learning disabilities, even when composing in their mother tongue (Graham & Harris 2004). The demanding processes of writing, the large percentage of students with writing disabilities and the increasing number of English as a second/foreign language (ESL/EFL) learners worldwide shifted research interest in the study of ESL/EFL writing development.

2.Theoretical framework

2.1. English as a second/foreign language writing development

The two concepts, 'second' and 'foreign language', seem identical considering them in terms of sequence of acquisition, since they both start to be taught before or after the acquisition of the mother tongue (Klein 1995). However, a distinction is often made between 'second' and 'foreign language' in usage (Chambers 2010). The former is a language that becomes another tool of communication alongside the first language and is acquired in a social environment in which it is spoken; the latter is considered a

language acquired through instruction in an environment where it is normally not in use (Klein 1995).

Despite the considerable variation in usage, theories developed to help second language acquisition have formed the basis for the development of approaches to the teaching of foreign languages (Mitchell & Myles 2004). Research into second language acquisition illustrated that *cognitive factors* -general intelligence and language aptitude-, *affective factors* -attitude, motivation and egocentric factors-, *native language*, *personal characteristics and instruction* affect the mastery of a second language (Russel 2009).

With reference to the development of ESL writing, studies indicated that language proficiency in L2 is fundamental (Myles 2002). Writers' positive attitudes, motivation and concrete goals reinforce language proficiency (Brown 2000, Ellis 1997). According to the formalist approach combined with the functionalist approach, language proficiency is defined by the knowledge of the writing conventions of the target language and the communicative application in different contexts (Bialystok 1998). Consequently, knowledge of the socio-cultural conventions of the target language and strategy use to compose a text along with linguistic knowledge are the prerequisites for quality writing (Grabe & Kaplan 1996, Kern 2000). In addition, metacognition -the writers' capacity to monitor their thinking processes- is prominent in ESL writing (Baker 2002).

Another factor that affects significantly the process and product of ESL writing is L1 writing competence (Angelova 1999). Writing skills developed in L1 can be transferred in L2 (Cumming 1989). Skilled writers in L1 with a certain proficient level in L2 can adequately transfer skills from L1 to L2. In contrast, poor writers have a small repertoire of strategies in L1 that cannot contribute to their L2 writing development (Sasaki & Hirose 1996); besides, language transfer may be negative transfer and cause of errors at the lexical, structural or phonological level in case the writers lack the necessary linguistic information in L2 and are strongly dependent on their L1 which differs linguistically from L2 (McLaughlin 1988).

As aforementioned, strategies and language

use are significant factors of ESL/EFL acquisition. Much of the current research has focused on the strategies that the learners use to understand, learn, remember and process new information. "Learning strategies" as Chamot (2004) states "are conscious thoughts and actions that learners take in order to achieve a learning goal". Studies indicated that strategic learners have metacognitive knowledge, which enables them to activate their planning, monitoring and evaluating strategies to accomplish a task (Israel 2007).

In education, strategic knowledge and metacognition separate successful from less successful learners. (Beare 2000, Victori 1995). Similarly in the area of writing, as research has shown, proficient writers take a greater variety of the appropriate actions to cope with the demands of the writing process related to text structure and selfregulation, and to keep themselves motivated in order to generate quality writing (Khaldieh 2000).

Research on strategies has dealt with issues that can affect second/foreign language like

identification procedures of learning strategies, terminology and classification of strategies (Cohen 1998, O'Malley & Chamot 1990), the impact of learners' characteristics (Wharton 2000) as well as the influence of culture and context on strategy use (Keatley et al. 2004). Other issues stemmed from research concern strategy instruction (Harris 2003), models for instruction (Chamot 2005), transfer of strategies to new tasks (Harris 2004).

Accordingly, the research findings illustrated that self-report is the way to identify learners' mental processing, which is for the most part unobservable (Chamot 2004). Regarding the issue of terminology and classification of strategies, scholars proposed various classification systems (O'Malley et al. 1985, Oxford 1990, Stern 1992, Wenden & Rubin 1987), which, despite their different standards, include more or less the same sub-categorizations under the headings: *cognitive, metacognitive and socio-affective strategies* (table 1).

Table 1: Classification of writing strategies according to Oxford's (1990) taxonomy

DIRECT STRATEGIES		INDIRECT STRATEGIES	
Memory	1. Creating mental linkages 2. Applying images and sounds 3. Reviewing well 4. Employing action	Metacognitive	1. Centering your learning 2. Arranging and planning 3. Evaluating
Cognitive	1. Practising 2. Receiving and sending messages 3. Analysing and reasoning 4. Creating structure for input and output	Affective	1. Lowering your anxiety 2. Encouraging yourself 3. Taking your emotional temperature
Compensation	1. Guessing intelligently 2. Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing	Social	1. Asking questions 2. Cooperating with others 3. Emphathising with others

Although the findings on other issues have highlighted the usefulness of strategy instruction in ESL/EFL and offered insights into strategy instruction, much still remains to be investigated in this field (Chamot 2004).

2.2. Learning- disabled writers' characteristics

In relation to learners with learning disabilities, most studies concentrated primarily on writing in the writers' first language examining areas like:

- a. errors concerning the mechanics of writing (Spantidakis 2004)

- b. differences in text generation in comparison to peers (Porpodas et al. 2008)
- c. use of strategies for problem-solving tasks (Harris 2004) and
- d. the effect of motivation on strategy use (Khaldieh, 2000).

Comparative studies between proficient writers and writers with LD revealed deficits for writers with LD in all areas of writing:

- a. transcription skills –difficulties with spelling, punctuation, handwriting or keyboarding;
- b. language skills –limited size of vocabulary, difficulties in applying grammar rules, difficulties with sentence structure;
- c. self regulation -less effective strategies for planning and monitoring the final product;
- d. affection area - limited motivation, anxiety, less attention to socio-cultural conventions.

In contrast, proficient writers have more discourse knowledge, transcription skills and self-regulation abilities. As a result, they are more actively and more metacognitively involved in the writing process (O'Malley & Chamot 1990, Stern 1992).

These findings have increased the widespread concern for examining how schools can help learning disabled students improve their performance. As a result, the research indicated that early intervention procedures, effective writing instruction tailored to students' needs as well as identifying and addressing roadblocks to writing are of great help though not sufficient (Graham, Harris & Larsen 2001). A study tested the effectiveness of extra handwriting and spelling instruction along with planning-strategy instruction for primary grade students and illustrated that handwriting and spelling instruction influenced young struggling writers' development of content generation and sentence construction; likewise, the planning-strategy instruction enhanced their knowledge of writing, their motivation and the quality of writing across genres (Graham & Harris 2005).

All this strengthens the assumption that learning-disabled students may improve their writing performance in a second/foreign

language even when they attend the regular English classes provided that their deficits are identified and adequate instruction is planned for them.

Taking all this into account, it is concluded that there is extensive research in the field of second/foreign language writing (Brown 2000, Ellis 1994, Myles 2009). There are also studies in the area of writing and writing instruction focused on learning disabled students (Graham & Harris 2005, Graves 1985). However, most of them deal with English as the writer's first language. A smaller but significant body of research concentrates on students with LD and foreign language learning (Schneider & Crombie 2003), and also on L2 writing acquisition (Valdes 1992).

In Greece there are studies dealing with the problems the students with LD face in writing in the first language context (Panteliadou & Botsas 2004, Spantidakis 2004), and with the writing instruction for learning disabled students (Nikolaraizi & Panteliadou 2001). There is also a corpus of data concerning writing strategies for bilingual students learning a second language or a third as a foreign language (Griva, Alevriadou & Geladari 2009, Griva, Tsakiridou & Nihoritou 2009); however, there is a deprivation of research data regarding the area of writing in English as a second/foreign language for Greek students with LD.

2.3 The purpose of the study

With a view to add new information and contribute to the discussion of research into the field of writing disabilities, a longitudinal study was conducted to answer the following research questions:

1. What kind of difficulties do the Greek students with and without LD face and what errors concerning the mechanical aspects of the language, spelling, punctuation, grammatical and structural correctness, vocabulary use, content organization do they make when performing a writing task in EFL?
2. What kind of strategies do they employ when composing a text in English?
3. What are the possible differences between students with and without specific learning disabilities in their using

of writing strategies and in their making of errors?

4. How does native language transfer influence errors making and strategy use in L2 writing?

The longitudinal method allows the researcher to study the development of the same group of individuals over an extended period of time, thus excluding time-invariant unobserved individual differences (Bond 2002, Hsiao 2003), and making observing changes more accurate. A drawback of longitudinal studies is that they often have only a small group of subjects, which makes it difficult to apply the results to a larger population. This disadvantage has been addressed in the current study by examining a considerable number of participants.

four are students without LD and they constitute the control group. The experimental group is composed of 31 boys and 13 girls, expressed as a percentage of 70.5% and 29.5% respectively; the control group is composed of 18 boys and 26 girls, creating a percentage of 40.9% and 59.1% respectively (table 2). Since more male students are identified as having disabilities than female students, it was easier for the researcher to find more learning-disabled boys than girls (Oswald et al. 2003). In the experimental group the average age of boys and girls is 11.58 (sd=0.497) and 11.23 (sd=0.429) respectively. In the control group the average age of the boys is 11.55 (sd=0.503) and that one of the girls is 11.38 (sd=0.491) respectively.

3. Method

3.1. The participants

The sample consists of a total of eighty-eight fifth and sixth primary school grade students. The average age of the participants is 11.46 (sd=0.499). Forty-four of them are students with learning disabilities that constitute the experimental group. The remaining total of forty-

Table 2: Participants' demographic characteristics

Experimental group				Control Group			
Gender	Number of students	Average age	Standard deviation (S.D.)	Gender	Number of students	Average age	S. D.
Females	13	11.23	0.497	Females	26	11.38	0.503
Males	31	11.58	0.429	Males	18	11.55	0.491

Half of the participants have been learning English as a foreign language at the primary school for two years and the other half for three years (table 3). Most of them attend English as a foreign language classes in private schools. In fact only two of the students without learning disabilities and only six of those with learning disabilities do not attend classes in private schools.

Table 3: Participants' profile

Experimental group			Control Group		
Gender	Studying EFL in Greek State Schools	Number of Students	Gender	Studying EFL in Greek State Schools	Number of Students
Females	2 years	10	Females	2 years	16
	3 years	3		3 years	10
Males	2 years	13	Males	2 years	8
	3 years	18		3 years	10

The students in the experimental group were selected from twenty-four classrooms in twelve state primary schools in the Regional Directorate of Primary and Secondary Education of West Macedonia in Greece. They were all assessed as learning disabled by an interdisciplinary team composed of a clinical psychologist, a social worker and a special education teacher who work in the Differential Diagnosis Centers and Support for Special Educational Needs (KEDDY) (Γ6/136087/19-12-2002 Ministry of Education).

Although their intellectual capabilities were assessed to be within the normal range, the participants were diagnosed with difficulties in writing as they scored deviations below the mean on the norm-referenced writing tests (Flanagan et al. 2006) administered to examine writing disorders. All of them were diagnosed as having dyslexia with disabilities mainly in writing; they were also qualified for special education services (Graham, Harris & Larsen 2001). Nevertheless, all the participants in the experimental group attend the regular classes in English as a foreign language.

In order to select the experimental group the researcher also took into account the state schoolteachers' evaluation for the participants' school performance in the English class and the other subjects based on testing and observation. Although the teacher's evaluation is not based on standardized tests (Stewart & Kaminski 2002), it may give reliable information because evidence on student learning outcomes collected during instruction over an extended period of time is more holistic, authentic, contextualised and closely related to curriculum framework, characteristics which allow valid assessment necessary for effective interventions (Good & Salvia 1988).

The selection of participants in the control group was random. However, it was helped by the teachers' judgments since an attempt was made to exclude students with very high performance or students with other disabilities.

3.2. Instruments and procedure

The study follows a qualitative and quantitative approach of data collection and analysis. In order to gather data concerning the detection of errors and difficulties in writing, a writing test was developed on the basis of the existing literature in the area of writing development (Graham 2010, Hadley 1993). A pilot study was conducted to investigate the validity of the test and made adjustments to match the test items to the test objectives (Brown 1996, Green 1998). Also, experienced teachers of English were asked to make judgments about the degree the test was related to the curriculum frameworks (Linn 1998).

The basic instruments for collecting data concerning the range of the cognitive, metacognitive and socioaffective strategies and behaviors the participants employ in the writing process were the students' think-aloud reports and retrospective interviews (Cohen 1998). In retrospective interviews, the students are asked to describe their mental processes after they have completed the task. This technique provides insight into the participants' metacognitive knowledge; however the limitation is that they may forget some of the details of their mental processes (O'Malley & Chamot 1990). In contrast, the main advantage of the think-aloud method is that the reporting is nearly concurrent with the processes being described and reveals the writers' strategic

processes during the text production (Pressley & Afflerbach 1995). Therefore, we used both techniques to increase the credibility and validity of the results through cross verification.

- a. Initially, the students were examined on the writing test composed of three activities (table 4). The first activity required each student to write a four-paragraph story, based on four pictures (appendix 1). The text, each one has composed, is assessed by the presence or absence of some aspects of "writing", that is accuracy in spelling, punctuation, grammatical correctness, vocabulary use and content organization. In the second writing activity the student had to put the words given in a jumbled order in the right one to construct six sentences (appendix 2). With this activity orthography and structure are evaluated. The third activity demanded the student to put the sentences given in a jumbled order into the right one to construct a correct paragraph for the researcher to assess the sequence of the sentences (appendix 3).
- b. Verbal report data were collected from the participants while writing a text. The researcher worked with each student one on one during each data-collection session. Every student was asked to compose a piece of writing under the topic "Write your first e-mail to a pen-friend who lives in Great Britain. Give him/her information about you and your family or your friends, your place, your school, your likes and dislikes". Students had knowledge of the topic since it was related to the curriculum framework. The think-aloud reports were used in the pre-writing, while-writing and post-writing stages. Each participant was requested to say aloud all the techniques and procedures used while performing the task.
- c. The retrospective interviews were held with each participant after the think-aloud sessions. The semi-structured interviews consisted of 15 questions (Griva et al. 2009) that allowed further insight into the participants' usual approach to writing, the strategies they employed and the perception on their strengths and weaknesses in writing (Chamot 2004) (appendix 4).
- d. The same procedure was repeated a year later and the same instruments were used to collect data to make results more reliable as well as to investigate the temporal evolution of the participants' writing processes (Maxwell 2001). The think-aloud reports and the retrospective interviews were all tape-recorded.

Table 4: Instruments to detect writing difficulties

Writing Test		
Activities	Task assignment	Assessment criteria
First activity	Students are asked to write a four-paragraph story based on four pictures.	Accuracy in spelling, punctuation, grammatical correctness, vocabulary use, content organization.
Second activity	Students are required to re-arrange jumbled words to make meaningful sentences.	Accuracy in orthography and structure.
Third activity	Students are required to re-arrange jumbled sentences to write a paragraph.	Sentence sequence

3.3. Data analysis

The verbal data have already been transcribed and are to undergo qualitative analysis starting with data reduction. This procedure involves first and second encoding of the transcribed verbalization, (Ericsson & Simon 1993), which will result into categories, labeled by a specific name. Codes and categories will result from the theories based on literature in the area of writing and Oxford's (1990) taxonomy of language learning strategies (table 1). Categories will be grouped into theme strands that will enable the researchers to draw inferences.

Moreover, a statistical analysis of the verbal data will be used. In relation to writer's difficulties while composing, each subcategory will be rated on a scale of ranging from 0 to 2. 0 corresponds to 'no difficulty', 1 corresponds to 'mediocre difficulty', and 2 corresponds to 'great difficulty'.

Frequencies and percentages for all categories and subcategories will be obtained. The differences in strategy use and the difficulties encountered between students with LD and students without LD will be assessed by means of the techniques of one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), t-test and chi-squared test.

specific learning disabilities, writing, foreign language, longitudinal study The data analysis of the present study is expected to provide useful information on a field not yet sufficiently been investigated, especially in Greece, the field of writing in EFL for learning disabled students. This information, whether it confirms or supplements or modifies the findings of the previous research, will be used for pedagogical implementation.

More specifically, students' deficits in strategies and metacognitive knowledge once identified may help the teachers of EFL plan strategic instruction to reinforce the learning-disabled students' cognitive processes, make them get insight into their writing procedures and improve their metacognitive knowledge. Becoming aware of the possible differences between students with LD and non-disabled students, the teachers of EFL might be able to plan adequate writing instruction and implement differentiated teaching, tailored to the students' needs.

Additionally, the error analysis of the formal aspects of the language –vocabulary, grammar,

sentence structure, spelling, punctuation, capitalization- is expected to illustrate what causes these problems and lead to the development of intervening procedures with a view to enhance quality writing. The improvement of the students' writing performance might result in raising their self-esteem and, thus, anxiety may be diminished and motivation may increase.

With regard to the previous studies in the area of writing in EFL and writing problems of students with LD, the findings of this study are expected to throw more light into the area of native language transfer. This expectation is based on the fact that the Greek language differs considerably from the English language in morphology, syntax, grammar and phonology. Consequently, there may be differences in language transfer, either positive or negative, which may result in more or fewer difficulties and errors in transcription skills and text structure.

Yet, we should not neglect that this study is not deprived of limitations. The number of eighty-eight participants allows the researchers to draw reliable inferences but impedes generalization of results. Another point worth mentioning is that the writing test administered to elicit data for this study is not a standardized one (Phelps 2007). As mentioned above, its construction was based on the existing literature on writing development, the requirements of the Greek state school curriculum, the knowledge of EFL fifth and sixth primary grade students are expected to have obtained and the teachers' experiences on the primary students' evaluation.

Nonetheless, the writing test can be an impetus for further research with a view to develop a valid screening device that will facilitate the identification of errors and difficulties in EFL writing along with the strategy use for the Greek state school students with LD, in order to implement adequate writing instruction and improve their writing skills and processes.

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APPLYING SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY FOR UNDERSTANDING AND MANAGING SOCIAL PROBLEMS AT SCHOOL

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Abstract

Students' failure at school, violence, disinterest and other problems need to be clarified, highlighted and analysed, in order to suggest ways of action, possible solutions and improvements. The consequences of these problems will affect not only the individual well-being of the students but will have implications for the society as a whole. Training students in education faculties about school problem management serves the professional and practical formation of the teachers of tomorrow, by reducing the gap between theory and practice. The application of social-psychological principles at school can help increase the student involvement, make more positive their attitudes toward the school, reduce their feelings of failure and negative emotions and increase their level of aspiration and performance. Self-concept, stereotypes, social context of the school, dynamics and social interactions, have many powerful implications on students' performance. These are some issues that will be object of this article, where we give some recommendations for teachers in training, in order to prevent and help resolve the social problems of their future students.

Keywords: *Social problems, attitudes, stereotypes, social context, student performance, education*

1. Introduction

The evolution of societies and the resulting problems require new concepts and reflections on the school. There is an emergent need for building a school capable of educating active people, rich in formation - a school which reinforces the sense of responsibility and makes its students conscious of perceiving problems and acting to implement changes, of understanding and opposing social injustice and violence, of being able to overcome life's challenges.

That, undoubtedly, requires the professional training, both theoretical and practical, for the students of the faculties of education, who will be the teachers of tomorrow. This training needs to be undertaken in relation to contemporary topics and practical situations that teachers commonly encounter in their school realities. These problems may have

to do with the student as a person, the group – the class, the learning process (motivation, difficulties etc.), the assessment of performance, conflict management, the attempts against violence, the relation to parents, cultural diversity etc.

Are these issues fully considered in the teacher's training initial program? Do the training plan contents prepare the students for these realities? Such issues and problems should find a considerable space in the initial teacher training program. It is urgent to update training practices at universities, based on effective practices of a large number of teachers from a diverse set of schools. Such a change would regard what is actually done every day in the school reality. Consequently, we advocate in this paper that forming the educator, teacher and parent with such visions, and new competences, can be done via the assistance provided by applied social-psychology.

In addition, this contribution may be regarded as "an invitation" for possible changes that are highly important in their job. This presentation opens several perspectives, and aims at boosting and motivating, through its different issues, the power of reflection. We suggest several ways of action as well as some possible solutions. Applied-social- psychologists begin from the problems encountered in the school environment, the challenges they bring forward and how they relate to the missions of the school. Subsequently, the aim is to contribute to the solution and improvement of problematic situations. School problems can be understood and resolved based on recent social- psychology research as well as on the analysis conducted in the reality of the classroom context.

To help teachers and parents in their path to teaching and educating in order to make their students or children progress and develop a positive educational experience is a real challenge in itself. Although there are many books guiding teachers, principals, and parents in their role, recipes and recommendations, - wonderful imaginative solutions to school problems- we believe that there can be offered many new opportunities on a more grounded social-psychological perspective.

School is a source of genuine renewal. The classroom as the basic unit of our educational

system is the place where many general social-psychological phenomena take place. The application of many social-psychological principles in the classroom will enable the fulfillment of educational purposes, the increase of student engagement in learning in order to make their school attitudes more positive, to reduce their feeling of failure related to their negative emotions, to improve the level of aspirations as well as their results etc.

Education can be considered, at least partly, applied social-psychology. During the past three decades, many researchers contributed to building the bridge connecting social-psychology to education, which results in the birth of a new scientific field, the so-called the "socio-psychology of education" or "social – psychology of education" or sometimes "social education psychology" (Huguet & Kuyper, 2008).

Is this field simply a social – psychology applied in a special area of interest, or is it a sub-discipline of the field of education as seen from the perspective of the social- psychologist?

The most appropriate answer is that it is an amalgam of the two fields. It is neither simply social – psychology nor mainly educational one. This new field is a combination of the two fields which have produced a number of theories, research and data related to the interests of educators and psychologists. (Feldman 1986).

It would be impossible to present in a single paper all of the issues of interest which characterize this combination. In fact our goal is to focus on a limited number of social-psychological concepts and phenomena related to the Self, engagement, classroom climate, assessment, adaptability and non-adaptability.

2. The Self and the student performance

Very often students tend to believe that their performance, in a wide range of tasks, is constrained by innate abilities and that they cannot change their level of intelligence.

Are these beliefs another important determinant of academic achievement?

In addition to that, very often the students develop a negative or positive attitude of their skills in specific academic fields, which are an integral part of their "Self" concept.

Is this concept influential and how?

The students belong to different social groups and can sometimes suffer from negative stereotypes associated with these groups.

Are these negative stereotypes a real problem for the students?

In fact, the students who perceive intelligence as an innate characteristic, which "people might have or not" suffer particularly from some repeated assessments of their performances. Each grade is perceived as an indicator of their intelligence level and causes a lot of anxiety. The more the student thinks the intelligence is a set of constant skills which cannot be improved, the more he finds no reason to insist on his learning.

If, on the contrary, the student outlines his intelligence as an emerging potential, he can hope on a reward for his efforts. This is, of course, true provided that the compliments given should highlight not his assessment in essence through such expressions as: *"You are a good student."*, *"I'm proud of you."*, or *"You're really a good mathematician"*, but his attempts and the processes through which the student has progressed. *"You understand something more today, bravo."*, *"This has been done better, you've used a good method."* etc.

Therefore the bias children have on the results, the obsession on their explicit or implicit classification can often influence on their reduced performance especially when this self image is reinforced by learning characteristics. For example, the results in mathematics for many students depend on the level of difficulty and the personal level of intelligence. In different situations, after the teacher poses the problem, he asks the student, *"The one who has got an answer, raise his hand"*. The student finds it difficult to solve the problem and at the same time to control the image of oneself. Students' biases on intelligence, not only of their own intelligence, but as a mental skill in general, play an important role on their learning and on the way they engage themselves in it (Toczek & Martinot 2004). The social-psychologists realize that when a student accomplishes a task, he performs it on a social context, where several dynamics apply with a strong social impact. Examining the context of learning, as one of the factors of many social interactions, is not an easy task, because of the complexity of real situations, daily practice and multiple

fragile consequences.

Equipped with convincing instruments from the social-psychology, the teachers can be more efficient and can favor a "pedagogy of engagement" which is nothing more but a propel pedagogy and one of responsibility (Toczek & Martinot 2004).

2.1. Classroom climate

Classroom climate, another important determinant of students' performance and behavior, is the perceived quality of the class. It refers to the atmosphere of this special environment. Therefore, classroom climate results from the combination of multiple factors – physical, material, organizational, economic, social and cultural. It also varies from cold and hostile to welcoming and supportive, and may change on a daily basis throughout the academic year. How students view themselves and how they behave and react in the context depends largely on the classroom climate. The achievement of the educational context, of the type of relations established between students, as well as of the words used may have a real impact on school performances, on the acquisition of knowledge and thus on the students' success.

We are focusing here on some of the practices teachers can adopt, which can make this climate useful or stumbling for the learning process. In a study surveyed in Netherlands (Huguet & Kuyper 2008) conducted at the same time in some schools in Elbasan, Albania, several students of the secondary school were asked which of 10 different subjects from the curriculum they liked best. A month later they responded to a questionnaire, where they were asked to show the subject they preferred and to judge on each teacher based on a set of criteria.

Judgments on the "expected preferences" were taken into account to reflect on the student's previous history concerning the subjects chosen. It was expected that the student who liked math in the primary level would like it in the secondary as well. It resulted that the correlations between expectations and preferences registered a month later were very low, rarely exceeding 0.30. On the other hand, the correlations between expressed preferences and the data concerning the judgment on the teachers were very high, over

0.85.

The results illustrate that the characteristics of the teacher's job determine to a large extent which course is preferred. In other words, a month teaching from a very good teacher (or perceived as such) can influence on all the negative experiences held in different courses. Vice versa, a month teaching from a weak teacher, (or perceived as such), can influence on all the positive experiences gained from the past. Both studies show that the students rarely love or hate teachers in themselves. It is the climate such teachers establish which should be regarded totally or partially responsible for the classroom environment. To reduce the risk of disrupting classroom climate, the teacher should try to minimize competition. This can especially be done through the listing of those activities where students, given the academic position, can work together, can exchange opinions, articulate problems together and discuss on the proposals and conclusions for their best "solutions". (Huguet & Kuyper 2008)

At the same time, this kind of interactive pedagogy helps students learn some of the basic social skills, such as taking into account the various conflicting views, a process that is known to play a key role in cognitive development. (Doise & Mugny 1998).

2.2. Social comparison and student academic performance

Assessment, an important psychosocial aspect, is part of education as well as learning. Class, in particular, is the place of multiple assessments, both positive and negative. A great part of these inferences come from the teacher, but they can also be self- assessments based on interpersonal comparisons that students constantly make with one another. Today it is clear that the social comparison contributes to students' academic achievements.

Social comparison is present everywhere. It appears as an inevitable element of social interactions. Each individual tend to assess his/her opinions, attitudes and actions. Whenever the individual is in doubt concerning his abilities (*Are they sufficient or not?*), his opinions (*Are they right or wrong?*), there begins the process of social comparison in order to eliminate or reduce this uncertainty, for

affective and cognitive reasons. Hence, in the absence of objective criteria, this assessment is performed by comparing the attitudes and opinions of the others.

The tendency to compare would be less possible if the difference between the individual and the ones being compared is big enough. At the same time, the avoidance the comparison with the others would be accompanied by the desire to humiliate them. To make assessments of oneself as stable and pleasant as possible, one prefers to opt for comparison to those individuals whose attitude and opinion are similar. The situations where the others have different attitudes and opinions tend to be avoided. Therefore, the individual prefers to be compared with his peers (Festinger 1954).

Social comparison does not involve all attitudes, all opinions, but only those which at a certain moment and under a certain situation are important for oneself and for the group belonging. Based on its nature, social comparison stimulates the search for consensus and favors conformist attitudes. The social comparison is held in family or social situations which are conditioned by the norms and values.

The studies and surveys conducted in some schools in Albania show that the student's

cognitive activity is influenced not only by the characteristics of the teaching material and the teacher's work at class, but also by the social conditions especially by the comparing situations where he conducts this activity. The social comparison serves as a springboard for the students' individual cognitive processes. Through the social comparison there is outlined the differences among students' learning values, attitudes, knowledge and abilities (Gjini 2008).

Blanton et al. (1999) clearly illustrate that individuals who serve as comparative targets are important in the lives of the students, and in most of the cases those who have close psychological ties (the good friends). Referring to (Buunk & Ybema 1997), individuals generally avoid to be identified with the bad guys, those who bear contrasts, especially when their self-esteem is threatened, and try to identify themselves with the good ones (they see the latter as being similar to them). The comparison is motivated by the desire to improve themselves. (Wood 1996).

Huguet et al. (2001) advocates that the

majority of the students show that in the future their performance in most of the courses will rise depending on the most successful comparative targets. The comparative situations should be the object of special care for the study and application of pedagogical actions, in particular for those related to the ways of interactive organization and competition in various class circumstances.

While growing up the child becomes more and more capable of interaction. This is a social report which supposes reciprocity between individuals who know how to make a distinction among views. Interaction is objective discussion, work collaboration, exchange of ideas, mutual control, and coordination of views or actions of different individuals.

Interaction is the starting point for a wide range of behaviors relevant to the formation and development of logic, which, in a psychological level, is not accomplished in a unique way. Scientific studies concerning interactive learning show the positive effects of explanation from another person, if the subject is involved itself in the attempts to find a solution and actively acquire it. At the same time, the expounder itself benefits from this explanation. Despite the supremacy of the socio-pedagogical interactive structures to competitive structures there should never be removed the competitive situation within the classroom where there is accomplished a social comparison. The race should be the scope of the acquired skills and no social basis of their profit.

Interaction is a philosophy of education rather than a teaching and learning strategy. It has an impact on the school culture, which presupposes interaction between teachers, a democratic organization of the authority within the school and shared responsible awareness for the success.

The pedagogy of interaction assumes the creation of useful conditions for learning keeping in mind that all of the students are capable of learning, that in favorable circumstances all of them will learn, and that emotions are an important learning factor. This pedagogy is passionate and promotes interactive learning through interaction.

2.3. Some suggestions for the prevention of violence in schools

The family and the school are two social environments in which the child will be integrated for a longer period of time. Child psychology and social psychology give answers to a great number of problems related to the family and school adaptation. There exist certain tendencies and attempts to analyze and explain these problems.

One of such tendencies consists in studying the factors of child adaptation about their mode of operation, their personal history and family. The other tendency puts emphasis on the institutions themselves, analyzing their operation, and shows that the non-adaptation of the child to an institution may often be described as a misfit of the institution to the child. Are the violence and crime an expression of a dysfunction of the social structures rather than the "shortcomings" of the individual? These two tendencies are not independent of one another and deserve to be taken into account in the study of adaptation modalities, the interaction between the individual and the social system, revealing, therefore, specific models of analysis.

The studies conducted by Blomart & Timmermans (1999) have focused on improving the development of the children's pro-social behavior rather than on the violent performances and their causes displayed in the school environment. The proposed program is related, on one hand, to the child support for awareness of sensations, feelings, needs and the promotion of attitudes of respect, listening, tolerance to oneself and the others, and on the other hand, to patterning communication and conflict-managing techniques which allow us to act appropriately in conflictual situations. The results were promising. The assessment of students' behavior has identified improved pro-social actions (coordination, promotion, and control unit) and a decrease in inappropriate behavior. Such a program permits not only training for managing conflicts peacefully, but also improving children's personal development.

In this context, another study, conducted by Meram (1999), shows the importance of evaluating the self, as an important protective factor against violence and risky behavior.

Violence protecting actions are often undertaken during adolescence. Keeping in mind that in reality, at the age of 10 or 12 years old, many pre-adolescents have consolidated behaviors, and consequently interventions and preventive measures are more difficult, they suggest a program which can begin at the age of 5 or 7. The applied program "We are well", (On est bien), is intended to enhance children's personal resources and relational competences by developing self assessment and confidence through three kinds of attempts: i) learning to know oneself, ii) affirming the relations with the others, and iii) identifying and expressing expectations.

Other research on violence prevention suggests a synergetic development of the emotional and cognitive sources in order to enrich the "internal language" of the children. This language has a regulating and balancing function which allows behavior control and the development of some sources (knowledge and identification of personal and others' emotions, the expression of the needs and a knowledge on how to negotiate, their realization through language) (Favre, 1999).

3. Conclusions

Resolving and preventing social problems in the society and at school needs changes in attitudes, values, behaviours and life styles. Social psychology can play an important role regarding this issue. The first step is to identify the problems, based on the particular school reality, then comes the phase of estimating the procedures of efficacy and special intervention. Understanding what are the causes and contexts of the manifested behaviours is crucial in order to give effective long-term solutions for social problems encountered in the classroom and beyond.

It is necessary to think about alternative solutions, a set of possible tracks that allow the improvement of the situation, by taking into account observational data and scientific literature. A key issue is the assessment of the effects of intervention, by discovering which are the most successful and appropriate intervening programs for a situation, and how can we implement and improve them.

All these issues require renovation in the

teachers' way of thinking and therefore training. Professional competency is not sufficient on its own to be a good teacher. Many more skills, especially, in relation with valid models of social awareness, behaviour and psychology are needed. This new vision and attention for the role of the school and the educator as a balancing player in society has important implications in the well-being of a society as a whole. The relational context variations and its influences on the school performances, on the class environment, on the exercise of authority and discipline, on the male-female relationships, on violence prevention and the promotion of cooperation are very powerful.

As Toczec and Martinot (2004), put it: "Classroom situations can be both a source of behavior influences and a regulator of the students' performances and social behaviors. We can reasonably consider them as action gears favoring the success of all students". The acceptance of this conclusion becomes a challenge in itself for the education stakeholders. Finding an efficient way to push this gear to modify such infinite educational behaviors that define the context of learning is another formidable challenge.

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CREATING TABLES FOR EVALUATION OF THE MOTOR CAPABILITIES OF PUPILS AT AGE OF 7 YEARS OLD IN SKOPJE

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Abstract

Evaluation of pupils in the class of physical education can be objective if it is a product of following three basic elements: educational component, pedagogical component and the condition of the motor capabilities of the pupil. The goal of our research was the third component of the evaluation, in other words, to measure the motor capabilities of the pupils and to construct a universal table of evaluation for pupils at age of 7 years old in Skopje. The sample for this research of transversal character was consisted out of 120 pupils (m/f) at age of 7 years old (age of 7 \pm 6 months) that regularly visited classes of physical education in 6 primary schools in Skopje. The pupils were tested by 8 motor tests that were realized by the methodology of Kurelic and the collaborators. After the statistical data processing of the results, as a base for establishing the normative tables for pupils (m/f) helped the obtained frequencies of the distributions as well as the results from the calculated percentiles. From the obtained results we constructed a table in which the pupils can test their capabilities in 7 tests, while the 8th test was eliminated because of its large irregular distribution.

Keywords: *motor capabilities, physical education, pupils*

1. Introduction

In general, evaluation presents complex procedure to which is given an important pedagogical, communal and psychological meaning. It is very difficult to maintain the objectivity of the evaluation in the physical education because evaluation itself is always a subjective act, which is determined by the judge himself to whom influence a large number of factors. Teachers have dilemmas like is the effort and the devotion of the pupil more important, his progress, his regularity and love towards the subject or the evaluation should reflect the level of pupils motor capabilities and his technical accomplishments.

The increase of the high grades on the class of physical education often has counterproductive effect by covering all his unrealized tasks that was supposed to achieve in the name of his personal health and regular growth and development.

The evaluation can be objective if it is a product of following more components important for realization of tasks and goals of the teaching process of the physical education.

When it's about concretizing the elements of the final grade, many experts on teaching methods agree that the evaluation has to contain the following three basic elements:

- The first part of the grade includes technical education. The teacher creates it from the adopted knowledge and habits of pupils who follow the teaching program of physical education for that year (educational component).
- The second part of the grade includes the educational character of the pupil towards the teaching process (regularity, sports equipment, hygienic habits, relations towards his friends, devotion, activity and the interest of the pupil towards the teaching process).
- The third part of the grade presents a condition of the motor capabilities, which has to be confirmed with adequate motor tests.

The subject of our research was the third component of the evaluation, in other words, to establish the motor capabilities as a base for constructing tables for evaluation of the physical capabilities of pupils from the first grade, as a part of the general grade in physical education.

2. Methodology of the research

For this research we encircled 120 pupils (m/f) from 6 primary schools in Skopje, at the age of 7 years old \pm 6 months that regularly visited the class of physical education.

With the pupils we realized the following motor tests: Tapping with the better hand-TAP, throwing a ball in a goal-FTC, long jump-SDM, deep forward bending-DPK, arm bended hanging-VIZ, 20m running-20VS, equilibrium with eyes closed-RZO, coordination with a stick-KOP.

The tests are measured by the methodology of Kurelic and the collaborators.

All the results from this research were processed with the usual procedure for obtaining information of central and disperse parameters for all variables in the shown space.

For establishing the normative tables for

every sub sample in addition to their sex and age, we considered the obtained frequencies of the distributions as well as the results from the calculated 17 percentile classes.

The final table for evaluation of results is obtained with reduction of the percentile classes:

- Over 90 percentiles, excellent (5)
- From 70-80 percentiles, very good (4)
- From 40-60 percentiles, good (3)
- From 10-30 percentiles, sufficient (2)
- 5 and less percentiles, a bad grade (1)

3. Results and discussion

From the results in the table 1, in which are given the basic statistic parameters, it is noticeable that at most of the tests the values of the standard deviation and of the KV% are in the zone that considering Brogli presents a acceptable homogeneous sample. Excluded are the tests FTC and VIZ that with their values show a large heterogeneous in all shown statistic parameters. By the obtained results, these two tests cannot be included in the representative table for evaluation of the motor capabilities for the first grade-m.

The test for estimating the equilibrium-RZO that also has a big variability (KV=54.4%), could be used in the tabular evaluation. With in this test it can be noticed that the $X > \text{mediana} > \text{mod}$, which makes the empiric distribution asymmetric on the left that is indication for a difficult test.

The table 2, shows that with the results scored by the girls from the first grade, highest level of homogeneity, or lowest coefficient of variability are seen with in the tests 20m of fast running and long jump, which with variability of 10-12% by Brogli, presents homogeneous sample. In the tests TAP, DPK and KOP, the KV% is also low with a treatment of an acceptable homogeneous. Similar to boys, girls also showed a high coefficient of variability in the tests RZO, VIZ and FTC.

Except the tests FTC that we excluded from the tabular scale of evaluation, the other 2 tests with high KV% were put in the table for with a recommendation that these tests should be used.

Table 1: Basic statistical indicators and evaluation table for male pupils

testovi	X	SD	KV%	Min	Mak	Sk	Ku	ocena				
								1	2	3	4	5
TAP	23.2	3.27	15.6	17	34	.71	.89	17 i pomalku	18-20	21-25	26-28	29
FTC	7.78	5.80	94.6	7.73	53	-.19	.24	.				
SDM	120.2	15.17	12.6	93	160	.41	-.57	99 i pomalku	100 - 109	110 - 125	126 - 135	136 i pove}e
DPK	19.83	4.10	20.7	11	33	.35	1.13	13 i pomalku	14-17	18-22	23-26	27 i pove}e
VIZ	12.85	11.55	89.9	2	50	1.71	2.59	3 i pomalku	4-6	7-12	13-24	25 i pove}e
20 VS	5.29	.66	12.5	3.70	6.50	-.30	-.39	6.1 i pove}e	5.7-6.0	5.2-5.6	4.8-5.1	4.7 i pomalku
RZO	15.30	8.33	54.4	3	42	1.02	.60	5 i pomalku	6-9	10-15	16-21	22 i pove}e
KOP	31.88	8.46	26.5	0	59	-.18	3.75	19 i pomalku	20-24	25-32	33-39	40 i pove}e

Table 2: Basic statistical indicators and evaluation table for female pupils

testovi	X	SD	KV%	Min	Mah	Sk	Ku	ocena				
								1	2	3	4	5
TAP	25.3	3.35	13.2	19	32	-.20	-.78	19 i pomalku	20-22	23-25	26-28	29 i pove}e
FTC	2.70	2.87	106.3	0	13	1.31	1.76					
SDM	118.0	13.46	11.4	88	164	.72	2.03	95 i pomalku	96-105	106-120	121-130	131 i pove}e
DPK	20.42	3.87	18.9	11	28	-.38	-.55	13 i pomalku	14-17	18-22	23-25	26 i pove}e
VIZ	11.37	8.52	74.9	2	34	.94	.13	3 i pomalku	4-6	7-12	13-20	21 i pove}e
20 VS	5.94	.66	11.1	4.40	7.40	..10	-.42	7.0 i pove}e	6.6-6.9	6.0-6.5	5.5-5.9	5.4 i pomalku
RZO	22.82	15.53	68.1	4	94	2.35	7.34	7 i pomalku	8-12	13-17	18-23	24 i pove}e
KOP	29.50	7.32	24.8	16	64	1.98	7.28	20 i pomalku	21-24	25-30	31-35	36 i pove}e

4. Conclusions

From 8 presented motor tests for checking the motor capabilities of pupils (m/f) from the first grade, 5 tests are being imposed as priority ones, 2 tests as conditional (RZO and VIZ), while the test for establishing precision FTC had a very low KV% came up as a very unpractical for being used in the table of evaluation. That's why for

this test tabular scale of evaluation doesn't exist. In the evaluation, the priority tests have advantage while the conditional tests can be use as to substitute some of the priority ones if needed.

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DEVELOPING CREATIVITY AND INTRINSIC MOTIVATION AMONG GIFTED AND TALENTED CHILDREN

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Abstract

The primary objective of this paper was to promote and encourage creativity among gifted students. It is important to know that high levels of intelligence and other signs of talent are not at the same time indicators of creative behavior (Stein, 1968; Wallach, 1971). However, many gifted children have the necessary “ingredients” to become highly creative individuals and to contribute to any of artistic or scientific fields. If these gifted students are ready to realize their creative potential, special attention should be paid to the fostering and sustaining of intrinsic motivation. Creativity is not a vacuum state. Empirical research in this area show a direct relationship between motivational orientation for a given task and likely to show creativity for the same task, and environment is that it has a part in shaping the motivational orientation. Talents can be nurtured and encouraged only if the conditions for it are good and appropriate.

Keywords: *creativity, gifted, intrinsic motivation, talented children*

1. Introduction

Although it is a key aspect of many modern models of giftedness, creativity was historically left undiscussed in gifted education. A key reason for this late emergence was that creativity was often confounded with more general conceptions of intelligence and high ability. Increasingly, however, researchers and scholars of gifted education differentiate creativity from intelligence and instead include it as a central part of the gifted experience. This review highlight how creativity differentiate from giftedness, describe some of the recent theories and then suggest some steps about developing creativity and intrinsic motivation among gifted students.

2. What is giftedness?

The quickest answer would be that universally agreed answer upon to this question has not exist. Giftedness, intelligence and talent are variable concepts and may look different in different contexts and cultures. Even within schools will find a number of personal beliefs about word ‘gifted’ which became a term with many meanings and nuances. Although

interpretations of the word “giftedness” appear to be limitless, there are some basic definitions that can be categorized as traditional (related to high IQ) to modern (extended conceptions involving multiple criteria that can not be measured through the test for IQ).

“Gifted behavior occurs when there is an interaction between the three main groups of human traits: above-average general and / or specific abilities, high level of commitment to the task (motivation) and, high levels of creativity. Gifted and talented children are those possessing or capable of developing a combination of these traits and apply them in potentially valuable areas of human performance” (Renzuli, 1986). The traditional approach to the talents indicates that it is a condition that is innate gift of the person, in the same way as nature or the genetic material determining the color of hair or eyes. This premise that gifted, blessed qualitatively different from others was the basis in the literature for gifted and talented from the start. But in recent years, researchers are increasingly emphasize that it needs to be made a change in the concept of *being gifted* in *how to develop giftedness* (Feldhausen, 1995; Houtz, 2003; Renzuli, 1986, 1999, 2002; Sternberg, 1998, 2000).

In modern approaches, more and more the importance of creativity is emphasized. Instead of gifted and talented person more talking about the creative personality and creative behavior. At the core of this complex phenomenon stands special combination of intellectual, volitional and emotional features that enable individuals to achieve high results. Some authors go so far as to consider the criteria for the evaluation of programs for talents should be the level of development of the creative potential because probably there is no more important goal in the education of gifted development than the creative ability.

3. Concept and definition of creativity

If giftedness and talent are being connect with creativity, the first hurdle that we've encountered is the problem of defining and measuring creativity. What do we mean by the notion of creativity? In the psychological literature more than 60 definitions of creativity can be found. Perhaps the most commonly

mentioned definition is that of Baron according to which creativity is the ability to produce something that is not only new and original, but also useful.

In attempts to clarify the concept of creativity, there is a division of creativity with a “capital C” and “small c” (Winner, 2005). Creative with “small c” are those children who self-disclose rules and technical skills in a certain area with minimal adult guidance, and invent unusual strategies for solving problems. When talking about Creativity with “capital C”, then it means extending, modifying or transforming areas. It involves a large base of knowledge and experience (also mention the so-called ten-year rule - claim that the breakthrough in an area must be at least ten years of hard work) and think that children can not be creative in this way.

With creativity as a possible element of talents and as a reflective capabilities practiced JP Guilford (Guilford, 1950) introducing the term divergent thinking versus convergent, logical thinking. While convergent opinion is uniquely targeted solution to a problem, divergent influences the production of a large number of original solutions and is the basis of creativity. As features of divergent thinking, Guilford lists redefinition sensitivity problems, fluency, originality, elaboration, and flexibility. Individual for creativity must possess a rich fund of knowledge from which will require new strategies for solving problems. Furthermore, creativity as part of the structure of productive thinking that leads to creative product studied by Donald J. Treffinger, and E.P. Torrance. Regardless of which definition is accepted, the measurement and identification of creativity is never easy.

4. Three-ring model of Renzulli

Complexity of identification and measurement of intelligence is particularly problematic for researchers working in the field of talents, because historically, the definition and evaluation of giftedness were directly related to intelligence tests, especially IQ. But are giftedness and intelligence closely related as many of experts believe?

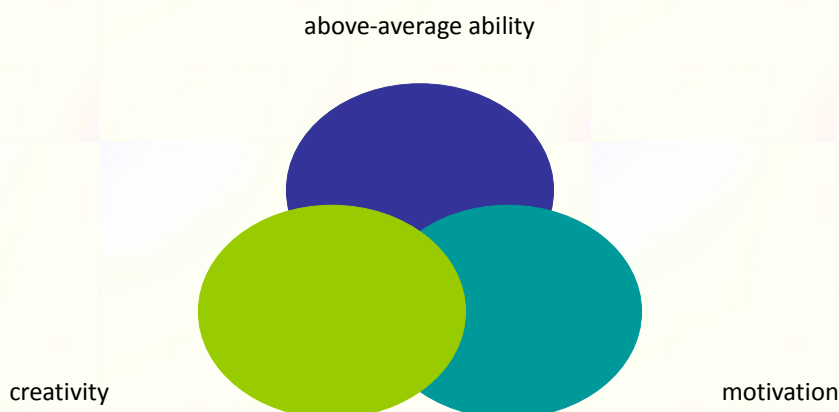
Small is number of theorists who say that the relationship between them is very close. Giftedness is very complex and appears in

different forms and it can not be defined in numerical number of test intelligence, ability or achievement.

Although there is no single criteria to determine the giftedness, individuals who have achieved significant results, outstanding achievements and creative breakthroughs tend

to have fairly well-defined set of three features (Renzulli, 1986). Elaborating this discovery Renzulli proposes three-ring model consists of three interrelated characteristics: above-average ability, although it shouldn't be always superior, motivation and creativity (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Three-ring model of Renzulli



It is important to say that none of these components alone can not make a high level of achievement. On the contrary, the interaction between these three characteristics leads to creative-productive gifted (Renzulli, 1986).

From historical point of view, the high levels of intelligence or specific skills in one or more areas, not always by themselves were sufficient to create productive talent.

Capacity for creative thinking combined with a determination to persist until a solution also needed ingredients. In summary, a growing number of empirical evidence supporting this three-ring model.

psychology, she argued that it is wrong to stop and observe creativity only at the level of individual. Her work highlights the fact that the intersection of a variety of environmental and personal variables is necessary and crucial to creativity. To be able to create a creative solution, to generate a creative idea or product, the individual should have access to the problem with the appropriate expertise, creative skills and motivation. Under ideal circumstances, the combination of these three factors is what Amabile (1997) has called "creative crossroads".

5. Creative section of Teresa Amabile

Renzulli, in his work, doesn't mention any empirical research in the field of social psychology, but many theorists and researchers interested in the talented touch studies of Teresa Amabile and her colleagues that directly integrate social psychological literature and research in working with gifted. As Renzulli, and Teresa Amabile also offers three-piece model of creativity. As a representative of social

Figure 2: The creative section of Teresa Amabile

Note: Domain skills - technical, procedural and intellectual knowledge. Creative skills - determine how individuals flexible and imaginative approach to the problem. Intrinsic motivation - internal passion to solve a problem.

While it is possible to teach (and learn) knowledge of an area, and perhaps even creative skills, motivation as a variable is very variable. In other words, the creative skills or expert knowledge can be quite stable, while motivational condition is highly variable and largely dependent on the situation. Each of us enjoys differently and shows different interest in activities. None of us approach the task with the same level of excitement and to some extent, our level of enthusiasm and commitment to the task depends on the circumstances in which we find ourselves.

6. Practical Solutions: Promoting Creativity and intrinsic motivation in gifted children

The current state of most educational institutions, ranging from pre-school through primary and secondary schools, so till faculties shows that very little attention is paid to fostering creativity and intrinsic interest. Studies show that this situation is inappropriate for gifted and talented students, whose promotion of intrinsic motivation and creativity should be a top priority.

Modifications to the contents, materials and modules designed to encourage and enhance creativity are sometimes very expensive or time-consuming, while techniques like "brainstorming" or "thinking outside the box"

are not sufficient. If we want to help gifted children to find their own creative section must be made fundamental and significant changes in the way teachers think about teaching and learning. So instead of pointing out just a few students who can demonstrate exceptional ability in one or more specific subject areas, the new approach should include identification of strengths and talents in a wider range of abilities of all students.

Proposed activities listed below are based on a 30 year empirical data collected by social psychologists interested in promoting creativity and intrinsic motivation in the classroom. From these activities, the benefit may have all students. None of the proposed measures do not require huge budgets or reallocation of resources. Instead that, what is needed is a deep commitment to change things, a willingness by the entire educational community (professionals, teachers, and parents) of joint connection in the construction of a school environment conducive to the development of creativity and intrinsic motivation.

7. Proposed steps

- Teachers should work harder to create an atmosphere that will allow the students to feel that they have control of their own learning. Each student should be prepared to be special. In other

words, the classroom should be a place where the student's behavior will be self-determinate. There is no place in the classroom for intimidation or coercion.

- Teachers should create appropriate incentives. Teachers need to present the curriculum in a way that is naturally interesting to students; using as little material awards and competitive situations in which are emphasized external incentives.
- In situations where external incentives must exist, students should be helped to distance themselves from such restrictions as much as possible. We should remember that each of us will be most creative if enjoys what he works. Teacher should make efforts to encourage students to take risks, to experiment and to have fun while working on the project activities or tasks. Students should be appreciated for what they have accomplished and to have the opportunity to dream for their future.
- The students need help to become proficient in recognizing their own strengths and weaknesses. Like all students gifted and talented students also need help in identifying areas which give them the greatest pleasure and stimulate their interest.
- Creativity should be in a constant focus of the educational work. Students need constantly to come into contact with their interests. Instead of relying on feedback from teachers, they must learn to monitor their own progress and wherever is possible should be given a choice about what they do and how they will achieve their goals.
- Talented and gifted students must be encouraged to become active, independent learners, confident in their ability to take control of their own learning.

8. Conclusion

Encouraging creativity in gifted children is a high priority in the literature for the gifted, and while all students should have the opportunity to develop these skills, gifted children show a greater degree of probability of the development

of creative skills.

Historical, the high levels of intelligence or specific skills in one or more areas, were not sufficient to create a productive talent. Capacity for creative thinking, combined with a determination to persist until you reach a solution, are also necessary ingredients.

There are few programs for gifted which put creativity at its center. Creativity needs to be nurtured and teachers need to know the different types of creativity before they begin to work. They should develop different models for creative teaching of their students and should meet the needs of their creative students. The best way to develop creativity is when we are offered the opportunity to mature and develop in a conscious and purposeful way. Today, more teachers need to open "the educational process", giving students space to create, offering the opportunity to access free research and preparing them for responsible handling and creatively shaping future roles in society.

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DIAGNOSTIC AND INFORMATIVE FUNCTION OF ASSESSMENT IN THE TEACHING PRACTICE

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Abstract

Assessment of students' achievements is a necessary part of a teaching process, i.e. teaching of a teacher and learning by students. As a component of teaching assessment is based on certain principles, and at the same time through its implementation various functions are carried out. The correct realization of these functions governs the changes in teaching and learning. In the paper both the diagnostic and informative function of assessment and their realization in the teaching practice are stressed out, taking into consideration teacher-parent relation. Through surveys and informal conversations with teachers and parents, the paper examines the way these functions are realized in practice, as well as how much this realization affects the promotion of teaching and learning.

Keywords: *assessment, diagnostic and informative function*

1. Introduction

Assessment of students' achievements¹ is a complex phenomenon, an integral part of the teaching process, i.e. of teachers' teaching and of students' learning. In order to fulfill its functions² and to promote the principles³ which come out from the theoretical basis of teaching, assessment, among other things, primarily, should be planned, regarding the time it will be realized, the type of assessment (ex., diagnostic - DA, formative - FA, summative etc.), the goals that need to be achieved (ex., assessment of students' competences for written expression), as well as the criteria and indicators for efficiency that are connected to teaching goals.

It is pointed out that parents' participation in teaching process is a key component in improving the teachers' practice⁴ and advancing the students' achievements. The parents have a relevant role in providing information which the real and successful realization of DA and FA

¹ Achievements on cognitive, psychomotor and socio-emotive plan (types of knowledge, abilities, skills and other competences), s. K. Поповски, 2005: 51-61

² Influence that assessment has on teaching and learning, s. Поповски, 67-76

³ Rules and directions that guide teacher in assessing students' achievements, s. Поповски, 91

⁴ The terms teachers' practice, teachers' work and teaching refer to teaching activities in class realized by teacher

depends on. Therefore, there is need to examine the character and nature of parents' involvement in the teaching process, and to what extent the educational process is organized in a way that provide parents' influence upon the nature, character and quality of the diagnostic and formative function (DF and IF), i.e. parents' role in their realization in practice, as well as parents' role in promoting the quality of teachers' practice, improving students' achievements and the quality of the educational process.

1.1. DF of assessment

DF of assessment is closely related to DA which is of a great importance primarily for the teacher and which, as other types of assessment, should be planned and connected to teaching goals. In the vocational literature there are different opinions on what DA⁵ is. According to our perception, every type of assessment of students' prior knowledge⁶ is diagnostic, regardless of the time it is realized, through which teacher gathers relevant information about the character and quality of this prior knowledge in order to effectively and precisely estimate⁷ the extent to which students would be able to master the content he teaches about, and on the basis of this estimation to change, modify or adjust his further work, i.e. to take corrective measures.

In order for the teacher to be able to make a proper estimation and successfully to change, modify or adjust his work, the diagnosis should be thorough, i.e. to take into account various aspects of students' personality. Therefore, the teacher should use information about a student obtained from various sources, f. ex., from other teachers, the pedagogical-psychological service, the parents, etc., aiming to provide conditions for optimal development of students' personality.

1.2. IF of assessment

IF is connected to F, which is constituent of FA⁸

⁵ DA as a sub type of FO, s. s.

<http://slackernet.org/assessment.htm>

⁶ Prior knowledge as previous achievements, s. f. 1

⁷ Various methods, forms, techniques, activities teacher can use to detect students' prior knowledge are not being analyzed

⁸ Assessment while students are still in process of learning, s. Поповски, 174-178

and a continuous, constant exchange of information between the teacher and the students. Our researches for the implementation of FA in practice⁹, confirm that the goal of F is improvement of students' achievements and promotion of teachers' work through changes, modifications and adjustments towards aspects identified from F which refer to the change of the way the teacher teaches (implementation of various techniques, strategies and activities for teaching and assessing, additional teaching after teaching for a certain concept, change of vocabulary) etc.

For efficient realization of IF, as well as for a thorough and precise F for a given aspect, the exchange of information between teachers and parents is also significant.

1.3. DF and IF relation

DF is closely related to IF. In the teaching process they are complemented and upgraded – information from DA would not have sense unless shared, primarily with students, and then with others involved in the teaching process and then with their proper interpretation and implementation to improve the teachers' work, students' achievements and quality of the educational process in general. As a result of this connection, the difference between the two of them in the teaching practice is often neglected.

2. Methodology of research

Regarding the goals of this research, a survey has been carried out and informal conversations with high school teachers (from gymnasium and vocational schools) (HST), primary school teachers from 1-3 grade (T1), primary school teachers from 4-9 grade (T4) and with high school students' parents (HSP), primary school students' parents from 1-3 grade (P1) primary school students' parents from 4-9 grade (P4) have been made. We assume that through the questions from the survey we will get a picture of parents' role in realization of these two functions in teaching process in the two levels of education, as well as of nature of their participation in teaching, through the prism of teachers and parents from the three groups mentioned above. Collected data are compared

⁹ Research carried out within the project „Modernization of education”, s. V. Janusheva, M. Pejchinovska, 2011

in order to see whether there is a difference between the teachers' and parents' opinions from the three groups about this issue. The answers which show relevant deviations regarding the three groups are pointed out and analyzed.

3. Data analysis of survey for teachers and discussion

- Teachers from all three groups, depending on their needs, realize DA in different periods of time, mostly in the beginning of the school year, in the beginning of the class, after teaching for a new teaching content. None of the teachers realize DA according to a previously made plan and that is a clear indicator that the character, function and nature of DA need further explanation.
- Most of the teachers from the three groups on the basis of the previously diagnosed situation will change their previous plan for teaching and will make a new one which will include changes, modifications and adjustments regarding the diagnosed difficulties, unclearness etc. A small number of teachers will not make a certain change, modification or adjustment¹⁰ and will teach the teaching content according to their previous plan. Teachers from all three groups, who will teach without changing, modifying and adjusting the plan, still show an effort to stress out the difficulties, unclearness etc. so that students can master the content that should be taught to a large extent.

It is a fact that the teacher teaches students that have different prior knowledge and who differ according to their individual capabilities and competences, so diagnosed weaknesses will be also different. According to that, regarding the changes, modifications and adjustments the teacher undertakes in his practice to fulfill the needs of all students, the individual approach towards teaching students is stressed out, and this brings up the question of the individual approach towards assessment. This is a difficulty especially taking into account the number of

students in a class which can be relatively large, as well as the competences of the teacher to organize and realize individual teaching.

- Most of the HST, share the results from DA with students, parents and other teachers, and a small number clearly perceive the difference between DA and FA. The situation with T1 and T4 is opposite. This, on one hand, shows the need to increase the competences of teachers for DA and its function, because it is clear that the results from DA are primarily meant for teachers, so they can promote their practice, and that if the results are shared with students, teachers and parents, f. ex., the IF of assessment is realized. On the other hand, teachers who perceive the difference between DA and FA will probably realize DF in practice more successfully.
- Conversations with other people, directly involved in the school and the after school life of student, in order for the teacher to take into consideration different aspects of students' personality (different type of knowledge, abilities, competences, attitudes, interests, character, behavior), and to make as precise an estimation as possible which will be a base for the modification of teaching practice is very relevant. Most of HST, talk with the pedagogical-psychological service at school, where the students took their previous education and only with some of teachers who taught them in the previous level of education. A small number of teachers from this group seek information for various aspects of students' personality from parents. Most of T1 and T4 talk with parents, (this is normal in T1 - because of students' age in the initial period of education, parents are the only source of information), a small number, besides parents, talk with all the teachers that taught them in their previous education, with some teachers that taught them in their previous education, and few teachers, besides parents, talk with the pedagogical-psychological service at school they study in.

¹⁰ For changes, modifications and adjustments teachers can realize, s. V. Janusheva, M. Pejchinovska, 2011

None of the teachers will use information from all the factors, mentioned above, that can provide them with valid data of students' personality. This is a strong indicator that the teacher should be very careful in his own estimation of the extent to which students will be able to participate actively in teaching process with the diagnosed prior knowledge, because insufficient information may lead to wrong estimation, and this could affect teachers' work and, at the same time, students' achievements.

- The character of the information about the student, which the teacher seeks from those involved in the teaching process and which he gets from parents for different aspects of students' personality and would help teachers' estimation is of great importance. This information, according to teachers from the three groups, refers to: students' previous success, behavior, responsibility, agility, discipline, the students' interest, attitudes towards the subject, learning, and classmates, behavior at home, in the society and at school, student's emotional and health condition, the way of learning, motivation, time spent on learning, curiosity, perception they have for the student, habits for independent work and learning, help he would eventually need to master the teaching content, problems in learning, regular attendance, the way he answers, work habits, efforts etc. A small number of information refers to the causes, f. ex., for unsatisfactory success in the previous education, or why students prefer written expression to oral.

The type and character of the information, to a great extent, depends on the particular situation and particular needs of a teacher regarding his practice, on the particular needs of parents to inform about aspects of students' personality, as well as on their possible involvement in the educational process and teaching. It is obvious that teachers ask questions which they think will be informative enough regarding their estimation and that parents offer necessary information to enclose students' personality. It can be said that the

correct estimation and teaching in accordance with it, need more detailed information on causes that bring out a certain aspect of student's personality.

- Most of T1 assume that parents' information is authentic and it supports their primary estimation of students' achievements (this is understandable knowing the fact that in the initial period of education, contacts between teachers and parents are frequent), however, a small number of HST and T4 disagree with this. Most of the teachers, from the three groups, in order to get information on students, talk with parents every time they feel the need for it. The number of teachers who get information at parents' meetings at least twice a month is smaller. This indicates that teachers, from the three groups, to a large extent, have abandoned the previous practice, according to which contacts with parents were reduced to parents' meetings that were not in function of DA, but mostly had the character of informing about students' success. Parents' participation in educational process, in this period, was not of current interest.
- Small number of HST and almost all of T1 and T4 take into account information from parents to make changes in their practice which refer to: change in approaches of teaching and assessing, change of criteria for the assessment, modification of the teaching plan, adjustments of the teaching style to students' individual characteristics, etc. A bigger number of HST and a smaller number from the other two groups do not take into account this information. The previously mentioned teachers' opinion is being questioned, because it is not clear why teachers ask for information from parents if they do not plan to take them into consideration while estimating the efficiency which students will participate in the teaching with, and in accordance to this estimation to promote their practice. Even assuming that they do not really take this information into account, still, changes mentioned above indicate that parents' information have to lead to

changes of teaching practice. The reasons why teachers do not take into consideration the information asked from parents need further analysis.

- Teachers, from all three groups, share information about students' achievements through combined F with parents. A small number of teachers prefer oral feedback. Most of the teachers give parents F at individual parents' meetings initiated by the teacher, or parent, which refers to: students' success, behavior, relations with others, skills, discipline, efforts, everything that the teacher thinks one student will need and use in teaching, judgments, reactions, level of acquired knowledge, behavior in class, grades, interest, understanding etc. A smaller number of teachers give F at a group parents' meetings, which refers to students' competences, f. ex., reasoning, conclusion etc. This type of F is of a great importance because it contributes to complexity and thoroughness of F and stresses F for, so called, process skills¹¹ which the understanding of various aspects of students' personality are especially important for. F for efficiency reduced to a number, brings up questions about successful realization of IF.
- A larger number of teachers from all three groups inform parents about teaching goals for a certain class of education, generally, in the beginning of the school year, in the beginning of the second trimester, at a group parents' meetings. A small number of teachers introduce parents to teaching goals in details, and small is the number of teachers who inform parents at group parents' meetings. A small number of teachers from all three groups do not inform parents about teaching goals. Part of them does not list the reasons and part of them locates reasons in parents' indifference and incompetence. It should be pointed out that a very small number of teachers display teaching goals on a poster in the classroom. Still,

the answers do not clearly show the aim of informing the parents about the goals and also they do not imply to parents' participation in teachers' teaching in order to improve his practice and students' achievements.

- Most of the teachers, from the three groups, introduce parents to the criteria for assessment of students' achievements, in general, at individual parents' meetings, in the beginning of the school year, at group parents' meetings, and smaller is the number of teachers who introduce the criteria to parents in details. A small number of teachers do not introduce parents to the criteria, but they do not list the reasons for it. Also, a small number of teachers introduce them with criteria only if there is a need for it, but they do not specify what they mean by this. A small number of teachers do not inform parents about criteria. The reasons cited are parents' indifference and incompetence, as well as teachers' opinion that this type of activity is unnecessary. Again, teachers' statements do not show the aim of introducing parents to the criteria and nothing implicates a certain parents' participation in teachers' teaching.
- A very small number of HST, ask parents to take part in their work, mostly at group parents' meetings, but they believe that parents are not interested in participation in their work. Expectedly, most of the teachers do not invite parents to take part in their work and to give opinions and suggestions, and the reasons are parents' incompetence and indifference. T1 and T4 show opposite attitudes and the number of teachers who ask for parents' suggestions and opinions in their own work, at group parents' meetings, when there is a need for it in the teaching process, on students' participation in project activities etc., is bigger, and a smaller number of teachers do not do this because they claim that parents are not interested or competent and that there is no need for such activities. Some of these teachers do not list reasons.

¹¹ s. B. Јанушева, 2011

Attitudes mentioned above show that there is a difference in teachers' perception regarding parents' participation in their work. The syntagm *teachers' work* is perceived too broadly. Though it is clear that it refers to teachers' teaching, it implies more on parents' participation in the schools' work, teaching process and not in teachers' teaching. F., ex., parents' participation in project activities show that it is a question of parents being informed about project activities the school or the student is involved in, maybe about parents' real participation in project activities, not about parents' participation in teaching. This is confirmed by our long year practice and by the further analysis.

- Most of HST, think that parents should not participate in teachers' work and that they cannot help the teacher to change or modify his teaching practice. The reasons are: the unfamiliarity of parents to the organization of teaching and educational processes, and their incompetence. A small number of HST, do not agree with this.

Most of T1 and T4 believe that parents should be involved in teachers' work and that they can help them modify the teaching in order to improve students' achievements through various activities: involvement in various segments of teaching; suggestions, opinions and propositions; F for work and students' knowledge, attitudes which can change teachers' approach; participation in practical work etc. A smaller number of T1 and T4 claim that parents should not participate in teachers' work and that they cannot help the teacher modify his work in order to improve students' achievements. Again, the reason is parents' incompetence. But, once more particular activities are not listed and there are no implications of parents' participation in teachers' teaching. The contradiction with attitudes mentioned above is obvious and this brings up the opinion that parents' participation is not a result of teachers' conviction about parents' involvement in teachers' work.

3.1. Data analysis of survey for parents and discussion

- Most of HSP and P4 emphasize that teachers share information with them about students' prior knowledge when:

it is a question of competitions, teachers feel that there is a need for certain information, during and at the end of the school year. A smaller number have chosen the alternative partially. Most of T4 assume that teachers share such information with them partially. For the parents from the three groups, the difference between DA and FA is unclear. The identical teachers' and parents' attitudes confirm that teachers need to have more profound knowledge of the nature of DA.

- The largest number of parents from all three groups, claim that the information they give to teachers is genuine and that teachers discuss with them about various aspects of students' personality which refer to: learning and improvement, students' independence when doing homework, using different sources of information, friendship, efforts, similarities and differences in the behavior at home and at school, honesty related to events at school, hobby, attendance at additional classes, interest and motivation for a certain subject, participation in competitions, projects etc. This shows that teachers really try to take into account different aspects of students' personality in the teaching and assessment. The number of parents, who believe that the teacher informs himself whenever there is a need for it, is bigger and smaller is the number of those who claim that this practice occurs regularly at parents' meetings.
- Half of HSP claim that they do not have any idea whether their information is taken into account from teachers in order to change something in their practice. A small number of teachers believe that the information is taken into account and as a proof they list the measures that teachers undertake as a result of the information: greater dedication to every student to master the teaching material, initiatives for improving the efficiency etc. A small number of parents claim that information is not taken into consideration, but they do not list reasons. All P1 assume that teachers

take into account the information and list their measures: increasing communication with student, the number of tests etc. Most of P4 claim that teachers do not take into consideration their information in order to change something in their practice. A smaller number of P4 believe that teachers take into account their information, and as a proof they mention: initiatives for improving students' efficiency, imposing additional classes for all students, more regular assessment etc.

Parents' attitudes differ, but teachers' effort to change their practice based on the information from parents is evident. This also shows that parents are not able to clearly differentiate teachers' activities based on parents' information, from those which are considered a regular activity. F. ex., additional teaching is a teachers' obligation and not a measure used as a result from parents' information, which might be a sign that parents' participation is not sufficient and the need for activities, through which the parents would gain knowledge about the teaching process, is implied. In that sense the increasing role of the parents' board should be stressed.

- Parents from all three groups receive combined F from teachers which refer to: efficiency and discipline, various aspects of teaching, but those aspects are not listed, the achievements, level of understanding the certain teaching content, results from oral and written assessment. The number of parents from all groups who are informed about students' achievements at meetings initiated by teachers or parents is bigger, and a smaller number of parents are informed about students' achievements at group parents' meetings. This F shows possibilities for successful realization of IF.
- Most of the parents from all three groups are informed about teaching goals for a certain class, once a week and in the beginning of the school year. The number of parents who claim that they are not informed about teaching goals is smaller. They do not list reasons. Still, it

can not be seen how this information is useful for parents so they can improve teachers' work and students' achievements.

- Most of HSP and P1 are generally informed about the criteria for assessment, mostly on trimester, in the beginning of the school year, at parents' meetings and when students show more or less satisfactory results. A smaller number of parents from these two groups, who claim they are not informed about the criteria, locate the reason for this in the teachers. A smaller number of P4 are informed about criteria in the beginning of the school year. The number of parents from this group who are not informed about these criteria is larger, and again, the reasons are located in the teachers. Attitudes differ, but it cannot be realized how much these criteria introduction is relevant and useful to parents and whether it helps them somehow, f. ex., to follow students' achievements a lot easier, to be more objective regarding students' efficiency etc.
- Parents from all groups want to be informed about aspects of teaching and there is almost no parent who does not want to be involved in teachers' work with his suggestions, opinions etc., but smaller number of them are asked to take part in teachers' work in the beginning of the school year, along with the teaching plan, when additional subjects are chosen; when project activities are introduced. A very small number of parents, who want to be involved in teachers' work and be informed on aspects of teaching, are not invited. They say that the reason is that they are not familiar with activities related to informing parents and have no need for it. Some of these parents do not list reasons.

Inconsistency of parents' and teachers' attitude is obvious. The received data are not informative regarding parents' participation in the teaching process. Parents' attitude does not imply that they are involved in teaching. Their participation refers to activities they should and

have to be informed about. F. ex., for the choice of additional subjects, it is necessary that parents are informed, because students, especially those younger are not capable of independent decisions, although the older students, as well as those in high school, may need suggestions from their parents. We believe that there is no parent who would not participate if it contributes to improvement of his child's achievements.

- All HSP and P4 believe that they should be involved in teachers' work. P1 claim that this participation should only be partial. They think they can help the teacher to change, modify or adjust his practice and they will do it by suggesting him different methods from the ones he implements, favoring individual approach, informing him about the students' abilities, character, way of learning, relation to teaching etc., choosing content they believe that should be stressed out, informing him about students' wish to expand their knowledge, etc. A smaller number of parents claim that they are not capable of helping and say that the traditional way of teaching is the reason.

4. Conclusion

Many aspects of the analysis show that educational process is organized on a solid base which provides conditions for a successful realization of DA and FA and that parents have a certain influence upon their successful realization in practice. In a great extent, this could be seen in their involvement in the teaching process through regular communication with teachers about various aspects of students' personality, their achievements and ways of their improvement, as well as through meetings with teachers on a regular basis where different segments of the teaching process can be discussed, f. ex., project activities, excursions, participation in school boards etc. Even though the analysis implies that this type of parents' involvement is not a result of teachers' conviction of its benefit, still this is a confirmation of the fact that DF and IF efficiency and in that sense, the promotion of teachers' work and students' achievements, in a great extent, depend on parents' involvement in the

teaching process.

However the analysis confirms our presumption that the question of parents' participation in teachers' teaching in order their work and students' achievements to be improved, with a goal of realizing these two functions more successfully in their practice, is a complex issue. Analysis does not imply this type of involvement. Regarding this, there is a need for more precise determination of parents' role in teaching related to many aspects: it should be planned, the domains and segments of teaching related to this participation should be determined, the level to which this participation should be realized should be determined, and the particular benefit from such activities for all subjects involved in the teaching process and many other questions. We believe that the absence of the parameters mentioned above would seriously disorganize parents' and teachers' role in this process, and this will reflect on the realization of DF and IF. For illustration, parents' attitudes that they could help teachers to improve their work by suggesting new teaching methods or which segments of the teaching material should be particularly stressed are debatable.

It is indicative by the analysis that further knowledge is needed regarding the fact that DA and FA should be a result of planned and continuous teacher's activity related to objectives and criteria, should be closely related with the diagnosed aspects and refer more to causes for certain aspect as well as to higher cognitive processes. This enables teachers to make more precise estimation and more successful realization of DF and IF. Attention should be paid on the thoroughness of information and an opportunity for more realistic estimation of students' prior knowledge is given. Also, it is necessary to analyze why some teachers do not take into consideration the information asked by parents within DF and IF, as well as teachers' aim of introducing parents to teaching objectives and goals.

Knowledge achieved by this analysis cannot give a very precise picture of the complex issues related to assessment functions, but it is certainly an indicator of the current situation in teaching practice regarding DA and FA referring DF and IF realization. This achieved knowledge is a very significant starting point of further research in this area which would lead to more

precise definition and realization of DA and FA as well as their functions through a clear determination of teachers' and parents' activities.

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EDUCATING YOUNG CITIZENS. THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM TO TOTALARIZATION – “UNSOSIALIZATION” OF YOUTH IN RAMIZ ALIAS ALBANIA

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Abstract

Education in Ramiz Alia's Albania, serves the principles of absolute power of the Labour Party. Only to recognize as a “minority” villages, the young Greek origin, will have the opportunity to learn their language - even for the first four years. In each case students are asked to consolidate the tenets of the Party and the State of. The schools offer part, encyclopedic education, but mostly play a leading role in “*manufacturing process people*” (Raouter SA, Construction nationals, Athens 1999). The young men, are produced in school, and learn to sacrifice for the Party - the Albanian State and country, that would otherwise be considered non-negotiable personal and collective value. An audit performed by trainees appointed - institutionalized - intermediate. The instruments of power to determine what students will remain within the educational system. Parents agonize and struggle that their children receive legal documents. The acquisition of technical degrees or higher education leads to improved socio-economic status. From official documents it is concluded that, together with school performance, attitude and count the student and his family from Albania and its status. The denial of a new citizen to attend a Senior Foundation, signals simultaneously and suspicion of the authorities towards the individual or his family, but also the possibility of future ills.

Keywords: *Ramiz Alia, Unsosialization, Educational policy*

1. Introduction

In Albania's Ramiz Alia, the State of continuous pressure applied through the educational process was aimed at destroying the natural resistance of members of the social group against its full control by the State. The education provided during the Ramiz Alia era and that of Enver Hoxha – created modified people, who under these circumstances were irresponsible and their actions had disastrous results for society. These people did not understand the consequences of the actions they were expected to take, while the results of such actions were considered natural and clearly justified.

The social victims were used to break down the social groups to which they belonged. They

were induced into becoming social parasites and agents of third Party interests. There were not a few occasions when these sorry victims were asked to reproduce the local representations of a Party - State and to act as mouthpieces or executors of central policy.

2. Construction of Citizens

Educational policy in the time of Ramiz Alia, reinforced the absolute power the Labor Party of Albania (PPSH)¹. In schools, students were expected to subscribe to his doctrines. Schools did not serve as extensions of a stable society. Instead they offered a partial encyclopedic education, but mostly played a leading role in “*manufacturing people*” (Rauter, 1999). The harsh regime imposed uniform behaviour based on “*habit or violence*”, as the acts of people “*depend on what they know*” (Rauter, 1999).

People’s knowledge derived from information received in schools. Among them there are moral axioms, designed for the kind of man the State thought desirable to “*construct*” (Rauter, 1999). The young citizen, is “*produced*” in school, and learns to sacrifice for the Party - State those things that would otherwise be considered non-negotiable personal values (Demitropoulos 2010). His life is guided by the “*habits established in his childhood*” (Rauter, 1999).

Control of the aforementioned is referred to appoint institutionalized - intermediaries. These are the local Popular Councils, which represent the omniscience of the Party - State. The Popular Councils have a say in all matters of education, relationships and codes of behavior of students and teachers², but also in the right of continued attendance at technical schools or general education beyond the primary level³, for all students. We should note that only this level of education was open to the all.

The Department of Education and Culture, was a subsidiary of the District People's Council and Executive Committee (DPC). The Ministry of

Education could not receive a document of an educational nature that had not first been seen by the DPC of the Province. The Department of Education and Culture made recommendations to the DPC and awaited their total or partial approval or rejection. The Department was then charged with its implementation⁴. The Central Committee of the Provincial People's Council in turn defined the Department’s advisory and executive role. This circular structure was in place for all matters pertaining to educational policy, even the simplest, such as those related to rewarding excellent students⁵.

3. The right to Education

The instruments of the State determined which students would remain within the educational system. Parents were concerned that their children would, along with knowledge, receive the necessary legal documents. The acquisition of technical degrees or higher education lead directly to improved socio-economic status.

From an examination of the relevant official documents one may conclude that along with academic achievement (Baccalaureate)⁶, what was also deemed important, was the attitude of the student and his family to the Albanian State (life-story of each student and other “*special characteristics*”)⁷. The local authorities also were involved with fulfilling these criteria, by the provision of their own certificates in this regard.

The prerequisites for granting the right of further study were the following⁸:

1. Application of the student in the form of submitting his autobiography.
2. A copy of the baccalaureate

⁴ Republika Popullore Socialiste e Shqipërisë, Komiteti Ekzekutiv i KP të Rrethit, Vendim Nr 22, datë 22.2.1985, “Për dhënie burse të ndërmjetme” (translated: For intermediate performance scholarship)

⁵ Seksion Arsimit dhe Kulturës, Relacion, Për dhënien e Medaljes së Artë nxënësës Margarita Dhuci (translated: Gold metal award student Margarita Dhuci), 5.5.1985, Republika Popullore Socialiste e Shqipërisë, Komiteti Ekzekutiv i KP të Rrethit, Vendim Nr 35, Datë 6.5.1985, Për dhënien e Medaljes së Artë

⁶ Republika Popullore Socialiste e Shqipërisë, Komiteti Ekzekutiv i KP të Rrethit, Vendim Nr 22, datë 22.2.1985, “Për dhënie burse të ndërmjetme” (translated.: Intermediate scholarship award)

⁷ Republika Popullore Socialiste Shqipërisë, Keshilli Popullor Goranxi, date 20.6.1985: *karakteristikë biografikë e nxënësit...* (translated: student's biographical feature...)

⁸ Republika Popullore Socialiste Shqipërisë, Këshili Popullor Bashkuar Poliçan, date 6.8.1986

¹ Parti e Punes Shqiptare (Translated: Albanian Labor Party)

² Republika Popullore Socialiste Shqiperisë, Keshilli Popullor Fshati Pepel, Protokoll 1987, Protokoll No 1, 15/1/1987

³ Republika Popullore Socialiste Shqiperisë, Keshilli Popullor Fshati Pepel, Protokoll 1987, Protokoll No 11, 14/8/1987

3. Statements of income
4. Local People's Council Decision granting a scholarship.
5. Considerations as to the applicant's political standing.

The right to secondary education was granted by the Executive Committee of the Provincial People's Council and not the school⁹. Applications were submitted to the local authority and academic achievement was not considered. The local People's Council determined applications according to its own criteria and announced the names¹⁰ of students receiving scholarships¹¹. Thus they were granted the opportunity to improve their living standards through education - whether secondary, technical or general¹².

Applications for Tertiary Education were determined by the United People's District Council (UDC)¹³. The executive of the UDC determined which applicants *"would be granted the right to education"*¹⁴. This applied to applicants whether they were granted a scholarship or not¹⁵.

The local People's Council would refer each application to its immediately superior body, in the form of a report on the *"the names of candidates who have applied for the right to study in tertiary institutions"*¹⁶. This was purely a

formal process. The report of the names would accompany by two other requirements:

1. The "full details" of each¹⁷.
2. The consent of the local People's Council.

The application would be completed by the regional UDC so that it would contain in full:

1. An "Individual file for tertiary studies"¹⁸, which would list:
 - 1.1. Personal Information
 - 1.1.1. First name, middle name, surname
 - 1.1.2. Birthplace
 - 1.1.3. Date of birth
 - 1.1.4. Citizenship
 - 1.1.5. Ethnicity
 - 1.1.6. Social origin
 - 1.1.7. Social standing
 - 1.1.8. School attendance
 - 1.1.9. Employment
 - 1.1.10. Party (membership or any other personal or family relationship)
 - 1.1.11. Main employment and address of place of same
 - 1.1.12. Profession
 - 1.1.13. Full address of the family home
 - 1.2. Preferred Tertiary Institutions (three possibilities)
 - 1.3. Results Average and Transcripts
 - 1.4. Any special details pertaining to the candidate, his biography and his and his family's attitude to the Party-State.
 - 1.5. Health Certification.
 - 1.6. Certification on the right to obtain a scholarship on the basis of family financial capacity.
 - 1.7. Certification by the Executive Committee of the Provincial People's Council for the provision of a scholarship.
 - 1.8. Report on the candidate from the local People's Council (manuscripts).
 - 1.9. Certificate of the family's political standing and their attitude towards the Party - State (manuscript).
 - 1.10. Handwritten application - CV of the candidate
 - 1.11. Reference letter (e.g. Youth Organization of the Party)

⁹ Republika Popullore Socialiste e Shqipërisë, Komiteti Ekzekutiv i KP të Rrethit, Vendim Nr 72, datë 20.8.1985, *"Mbi të drejtën e studimit në shkollën e mesme ushtarake 'Skenderbeu'"* (Translated.: *For the right to study in high school military 'Scanderbeg'*)

¹⁰ Republika Popullore Socialiste Shqiperisë, Keshilli Popullor Fshati Pepel, Protokolli 1987, Protokoll No 11, 14/8/1987

¹¹ Republika Popullore Socialiste e Shqipërisë, Komiteti Ekzekutiv i KP të Rrethit, Vendim Nr 86, Datë 29.8.1985, Mbi dhenien e bursave nxënësve të shkollave tetevjecare (translated.: *On the granting of scholarships elementary school students*)

¹² Keshilli Popullor Fshati Pepel, Protokolli 1987, Protokoll No 11, 14/8/1987

¹³ Republika Pop. Soc. Shqipërisë, Këshili Popullor Bashkuar Sofratikë, 19/6/1984

¹⁴ Republika Popullore Socialiste e Shqipërisë, Komiteti Ekzekutiv i KP të Rrethit, Vendim Nr 85, Datë 29.8.1985, Mbi të drejtën e studimit dhe të bursës në shkollat e larta (translated.: *For the right to study and scholarship in university education*)

¹⁵ Republika Popullore Socialiste e Shqipërisë, Komiteti Ekzekutiv i KP të Rrethit, Vendim Nr 85, Datë 29.8.1985, Mbi të drejtën e studimit dhe të bursës në shkollat e larta (translated.: *The right to study and scholarship in higher education*)

¹⁶ Republika Popullore Socialiste e Shqipërisë, Keshilli

Popullor Bashkuar Sofratikë, date 19/VI/1984

¹⁷ Republika Popullore Socialiste Shqiperisë, Keshilli Popullor Goranxi, date 6.6.1983: *Karakteristikë...*

¹⁸ Kartele Personale, Për Studime të Larta (Translated: *Personal Card, For Universities studies*)

1.12. Opinion of the School Committee stating the political standing of the candidate for tertiary education

It is clear that access to tertiary education is related to the attitude of the applicant and his family to the “Party-State” and the esteem in which he is held by the local self-governing institutions, Party Organizations and School¹⁹. From the formal reports, we glean that the transition of an applicant from one educational level to another does not depend on his academic prowess. For the officials, one’s past and their family’s attitude and behaviour towards the Party - State, are deemed more important. When there exist within the family²⁰:

- Members and cadres of the Party
- Members of security forces and army
- Members and officers of cooperatives
- Members of the middle or upper class
- People who do not by their behaviour provoke the disfavour of the Authorities
- No convicted prisoners, ex-prisoners, or fugitives abroad.

Applications are looked upon more favourably.

Typically, decisions were taken in accordance with the recommendations “of the Department of Education and Culture, the Tertiary Studies Committee and the Decisions of the Cabinet...”²¹. Prospective students would submit their applications to the faculty of their choice, and based on their marks in Secondary Education. The Board of Education and Culture would evaluate this with due consideration to the views of other interested parties, without reference to the applicant’s academic performance. Considerations of the Party-State also play a role in offering a place to a tertiary institution. Upon consideration of the documents presented, on the basis of the criteria set out by the Ministry of Education and Culture, observations of the youth organization, the Collective Labour Centre and

the Directors of the People, the Department of Education and Culture would submit the final list of applicants “for approval by the Executive Committee of the Provincial People’s Council”²². Applicants who have been considered unsuitable will be absent from the list.

The Board of Education and Culture added “talent” to the criterion of “progress” in considering an application. An application to enter a tertiary institution may have been rejected due to non approval from “The United People’s Council” and the “Executive Committee of the Province,” before it reaches the Board of Education and Culture²³. Finally, in an excerpt from another document, we find two of the essential reasons that lead to an impasse for a candidate. These are described as “disadvantages”: People whose past and behaviour has been deemed unacceptable²⁴. The past of relatives²⁵, not necessarily close ones or acts of adolescence not authorized by the conservative and strict morals of the Party-State (Demitropoulos 2010), individually or together, served to negate any good school performance record. The final decision was taken by the Executive Committee of the Provincial People’s Council and not the Department of Education and Culture which was a part of the Ministry of Education.

The Provincial People’s Council as the final arbiter of the right to tertiary education could also alter applications. In some - albeit rare - cases a name that was considered negatively in one year, could find itself on the approved list of students²⁶. The determinations of local bodies were not always absolute, especially when interventions by influential relations in great office or various services to the Party – State came into play.

¹⁹ Republika Popullore Socialiste e Shqipërisë, Keshilli Popullor Bashkuar Sofratikë, date 19/VI/1984

²⁰ Republika Popullore Socialiste e Shqipërisë, Keshilli Popullor Bashkuar Sopik, Karakteristika Politikë e... (Translated: *Politics features of...*) Republika Popullore Socialiste e Shqipërisë, Keshilli Popullor Goranxi, date 30.4.1985, Karakteristikë autobiografikë...

²¹ Republika Popullore Socialiste e Shqipërisë, Komiteti Ekzekutiv i KP të Rrethit, Vendim Nr 53, Datë 15.7.1985

²² Republika Popullore Socialiste Shqiperisë, Seksion Arsimit dhe Kulturës, Relacion, Mbi aprovimin e të drejtave të konkurimit të kandidateve për shkollat e larta, për vitin shkollor 1985 – 1986, 1.7.1985

²³ Republika Popullore Socialiste Shqiperisë, Seksion Arsimit dhe Kulturës, Relacion, Mbi aprovimin e të drejtave të konkurimit të kandidateve për shkollat e larta, për vitin shkollor 1985 – 1986, 1.7.1985

²⁴ Republika Popullore Socialiste Shqiperisë, Pika e III-të, Projektvendim Mbi të drejta e studimit në shkollat e larta, Eduard Gjebrea, 15/7/1985

²⁵ Laiko Vema, 1-15/9/2009, Nr. 2434 (349), Τα παιδιά της Μεσόραχης: Σελίδες από το ιστορικό του γένους των Λιωλαίων, p. 12

²⁶ Republika Popullore Socialiste e Shqipërisë, Komiteti Ekzekutiv i KP të Rrethit, Vendim Nr 51, Datë 2.7.1985

In other sundry official documents, the author refers to and repeats the refusal of the Party-State to allow a citizen to attend a tertiary institution, without providing a reason. However, it is implied that this is due to the suspicion of the authorities towards the individual or his family. In a judgment of the Argyrokastron Court, it was stated that although one of the defendants, “*completed the Middle School with a good average (...) was not granted the right to tertiary education*”²⁷. As mentioned, the right to tertiary education was not axiomatic and not dependent on academic performance but was approved by non-educational institutions based on political criteria.

The methodology of restricting proscribed is best understood if it is connected to the system of granting scholarships. In the Albanian educational system, the transition to tertiary education also signifies the necessity for relocation to another geographical region. Education was not open to all of the best students or the public. Neither was it free²⁸. The student had to pay for accommodation, food, and books. For this reason, the Party - State granted scholarships to cover the costs of their studies²⁹. Here the Provincial People's Executive Council had the first say, upon receiving the requisite recommendations. Ultimately the Department of Education and Culture was called upon to implement the decision³⁰.

Typically the process of providing scholarships started in the Department of Education and Culture of the Province. The head of Department prepared a report to the Executive Committee of the Provincial People's Council, proposing the names of students for

secondary or tertiary education, on whole or half scholarships. Usually, “*candidates proposed fulfill the economic criteria that have been approved by the popular councils*”³¹. The Executive Committee of Provincial People's Council, after taking into account the opinion of the Party organization, considered “*the proposal of the Department of Education and Culture*”³² and decided which students could receive full or half scholarship for further studies³³.

Participation in the educational process was not open and did not depend on educational institutions. The selection of those who would continue their studies was made by members of the People's Councils, by comparing the economic situation of the candidates' family with the average. Scions of families considered as enemies were excluded from this process³⁴.

Even if the “*proscribed*” students managed somehow to continue to secondary education without a scholarship, they find it difficult to cope with the costs (Demitropoulos 2010). Proceeding further to technical training is almost impossible and tertiary education, unattainable.

At any rate, it was State policy that directed the majority of students towards technical, vocational or artistic education³⁵. Only 1/3 of teenagers who went on to secondary education were able to study in general educational schools from where they could theoretically be granted the right to study at a University³⁶.

²⁷ Republika Popullore Socialiste e Shqipërisë, Gjykata e Rrethit Gjrokastër, Vendim Nr 72 (Nr. 71 Aktit), «N' emër të Popullit», Gjrokastër 12.12.1988, p. 2

²⁸ Laiko Vema, 1–15/10/2009, Nr. 5436 (351), Παπαθανάσης Δ. Βασίλης: Ο κουλάκος του χωριού μου, p. 12

²⁹ Republika Popullore Socialiste e Shqipërisë, Komiteti Ekzekutiv i KP të Rrethit, Vendim Nr 86, Datë 29.8.1985, Mbi dhenien e bursave nxënësve të shkollave tetevjecare (translated: *On the granting of scholarships elementary school students*)

³⁰ Republika Popullore Socialiste e Shqipërisë, Komiteti Ekzekutiv i KP të Rrethit, Vendim Nr 22, Datë 22.2.1985, Për dhënie burse të ndërmjetme (translated: *Intermediate scholarship award*)
Republika Popullore Socialiste e Shqipërisë, Komiteti Ekzekutiv i KP të Rrethit, Vendim Nr 4, Datë 10.1.1985, Mbi dhënie bursash dhe gjysmebursash (translated: *On the award of scholarships and half-scholarships*)

³¹ Republika Popullore Socialiste Shqiperisë, Relacion, Për dhënie bursash të ndërmjetme, Gjrokastër 5.1.1985

³² Republika Popullore Socialiste e Shqipërisë, Komiteti Ekzekutiv i KP të Rrethit, Vendim Nr 4, datë 10.1.1985, Mbi dhenie bursash dhe gjysmebursash (translated: *On the award of scholarships and half-scholarships*)

³³ Republika Popullore Socialiste e Shqipërisë, Komiteti Ekzekutiv i KP të Rrethit, Vendim Nr 4, datë 10.1.1985, Mbi dhenie bursash dhe gjysmebursash (translated: *On the award of scholarships and half-scholarships*)

³⁴ Laiko Vema, 1–15/10/2009, Nr. 5436 (351), Παπαθανάσης Δ. Βασίλης: Ο κουλάκος του χωριού μου, p. 12

³⁵ Republika Popullore Socialiste Shqiperisë, Relacion, mbi shpërndarjen e të drejtave të studimit në shkollat e mesme për vitin shkollor 1989 – 1990, seksion i arsimit, Gjrokastër 27.7.1989 (translated: *Report on the allocation of rights to study in schools for the academic year 1989 – 1990*)

³⁶ In Argyrokastron County for the school year 1989 to 1990, from 869 students who have the right to continue in secondary education, only 315 (36.25%) were introduced into General Education school, Republika Popullore Socialiste Shqiperisë, Relacion, mbi shpërndarjen e të drejtave të studimit në shkollat e mesme për vitin shkollor 1989 – 1990, seksion i arsimit, Gjrokastër 27.7.1989

In Argyrokastron Prefecture, a small but significant number of students while completing Primary Education stay out of the educational process, not moving on to Secondary Education³⁷. There is marked difference between the pupils from the town of Argyrokastron and their "provincial" colleagues.

In the school year 1989-90, the 2/3 of Argyrokastron students gained access to secondary education, entering a school of general education. The proportion of children in the villages doing so is in stark contrast. Only 1/5 of those that have the right to do so, were enrolled in a General School³⁸. The students from the villages therefore had yet another reason to seek a way to relocate to an urban area. It is noteworthy that an even smaller proportion of students came from the "minority areas". Of the "minority" students who obtained the right to Secondary Education, only a small part received a General Education, as the vast majority was necessarily directed towards agricultural training³⁹. At glance similar rates of study occurred in areas inhabited by Albanian-speaking Albanians, of Islamic religious origin⁴⁰. Students

from "minority" areas generally displayed a record of academic excellence that was not reflected in the kind of education they received. The official policy gave priority to agricultural training. Improved methods of agricultural production were not the only target. The permanent problem of supplying basic needs was combined with the policy of discouraging or prohibiting unauthorised movements and restricting of the population to the fully controlled rural areas.

The Executive Committee of the Popular Council of the Province, after the Party organization, had the final say in the selection of which young people would be denied Tertiary Education⁴¹. It ratified the proposals of the relevant Committee on the rights to study⁴². With a special proclamation, it announced the names of the accepted students and the courses that they would attend, along with who would be granted scholarships. In its decisions, it did not take into account the academic performance of candidates, nor their particular preferences. However, the right was reserved to Local Popular Councils, as defined by the prefectural body, to choose students for the Military Middle School, though the criteria for such a selection are unknown⁴³.

The right to further education did not depend on the student's school performance. The characterization of the family as "kulak" or bring possessed of an "unsavoury" past eg.

- a. an escape abroad of a family member, even a distant relative,
- b. the relationship to a prisoner or exile;

could cost a student his right to continue his studies. A good average score had value only

(Translated: *Decision on the performance of the right courses in middle schools for the school year 1989 - 1990, Department of Education, Argyrokastron 27/7/1989*)

³⁷ Republika Popullore Socialiste Shqiperisë, Relacion, mbi shpërndarjen e të drejtave të studimit në shkollat e mesme për vitin shkollor 1989 – 1990, seksion i arsimit, Gjirokastër 27.7.1989 (Translated: *Decision on the performance of the right courses in middle schools for the school year 1989 - 1990, Department of Education, Argyrokastron 27/7/1989*)

³⁸ In Argyrokastron, students have access to secondary education are 276, of these, 180 (65.22%) enrolled in General School. In contrast, in the hinterland of county numbers on 593 and 135 (22.76%) subjects respectively Republika Popullore Socialiste Shqiperisë, Relacion, mbi shpërndarjen e të drejtave të studimit në shkollat e mesme për vitin shkollor 1989 – 1990, seksion i arsimit, Gjirokastër 27.7.1989 (Translated: *Decision on the performance of the right courses in middle schools for the school year 1989 - 1990, Department of Education, Argyrokastron 27/7/1989*)

³⁹ The figures in the school year 1989 - 1990 seems out of 250 students from "minority" areas of the Argyrokastron County and entitled schooling in secondary education, only 44 admitted to General School (17.6%). Most, 170 go for rural labor skills (68%).

Republika Popullore Socialiste Shqiperisë, Relacion, mbi shpërndarjen e të drejtave të studimit në shkollat e mesme për vitin shkollor 1989 – 1990, seksion i arsimit, Gjirokastër 27.7.1989 (Translated: *Decision on the performance of the right courses in middle schools for the school year 1989 - 1990, Department of Education, Argyrokastron 27/7/1989*)

⁴⁰ About 1 in 5 is inserted in General School and most of the

rest will get training on the farmer.

Table admissions in Secondary Education 1989 - 1990, by specialty and origins.

⁴¹ Republika Popullore Socialiste Shqipërisë, Komiteti Ekzekutiv i KP Rrethit, Vendim, Nr 71, date 20.8.1985, Për të drejtën e studimit dhe bursës në shkollat e larta (Translated: *For the right to study and scholarship in university education*)

⁴² Republika Popullore Socialiste Shqipërisë, Komiteti Ekzekutiv i KP Rrethit, Vendim, Nr 74, datë 24.6.1989, Për dhenien e të drejtës për konkurim në shkollat e larta (Translated: *For the granting of the right to granting the right to compete in university school*)

⁴³ Republika Popullore Socialiste Shqipërisë, Komiteti Ekzekutiv i KP Rrethit, Vendim, Nr 102, date 27.7.1989, Për shpërndarjen e të drejtave të studimit në shkollat e larta (Translated: *For the distribution of the right to granting the right to compete in university school*)

where there was an unblemished personal record⁴⁴. Objective assessment criteria were non-existent. Discrimination in education was well established and public. The existing institutions of the Labor Party, monitored the level of discipline of all those involved in and around the school⁴⁵.

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⁴⁴ Republika Popullore Socialiste Shqiperisë, Këshilli Popullor Sopik, date 7.6.1986: *Karakteristikë Politikë e...* (Translated: Political features of...)

⁴⁵ Recommendation of the teacher's school Pepeli of Upper Dryinoupolis Elias Proimos, in the People's Council of Pepeli

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E-LEARNING TEACHER EDUCATION IN WESTERN MACEDONIA: THE EFFECT OF AN IN-SERVICE TRAINING COURSE

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Abstract

The paper refers to the structure and the functional characteristics of a distance learning training course that was held in the University of Western Macedonia. The course focused on differentiated instruction for mixed classes and addressed teachers of all levels of education. It included blended e-learning: two face to face meetings and four synchronous video conferences supported by an electronic platform. The thematic axes focused on visual literacy, concept maps, projects and scientific and technological literacy. Aiming at connecting theory to practice, the participants were invited to create teaching scenarios with regard to their specialization, as well as the characteristics of their classes. They were also asked to evaluate the course twice – upon its completion and after a period of five months – through questionnaires and semi-structured interviews respectively. The findings indicate that teachers were satisfied both with the knowledge they acquired and the flexibility of the e-learning training method they experienced. Furthermore, after the end of the project teachers were proved to continue to apply in their classes some of the strategies they had learned.

Keywords: *e-learning, differentiated instruction, training course, teaching scenarios*

1. Introduction

Teachers in multicultural societies need to develop their professional competency toward a gradual shift from imposed, predefined teaching and learning to reflective collaboration, thus responding to the different needs of different students (Tomlinson et al. 2003, Korthagen & Vasalos, 2005, Hajisoteriou 2012, Mansvelt et al. 2009). In accordance with this need, textual practices of teacher education have turned to new literacies, involving a different kind of “technical stuff” from conventional literacies: screens, digital code, multimodal and electronic networks rather than paper, material print, distinct modes or hard copy publishing (Lankshear & Knobel 2011: 29).

One of the most effective ways is distance learning programmes which are suited to the teaching of individuals whose knowledge needs to remain current and competitive (Starr 1998). This concerns an extension of traditional

teaching with the use of ICT, 'where learning opportunities can be provided in asynchronous, self-paced formats or in synchronous virtual classes' in keeping up with the needs of those being educated (Zahner 2002: 12, Keegan 2001). In this way, what is achieved is the dispensation with the temporal and geographic limitations of conventional training (Zgaga 2008), while there is saving of time, money and teaching staff. Distance e-learning programmes should be flexible, innovative, and applicable to the needs of the pupils, while their potentials range from the dispatch of texts by correspondence to sound recorded files and teleconferencing. According to Wilson and Harris (2004), the incorporation of ICT into distance e-learning programmes enhances cooperation and learning within a sociopolitical framework, as well as the development of critical thinking skills, reflection, self-adjustment and metacognition of the teachers.

The e-learning methods comprise the blended learning model as well, which is a combination of distance and live e-learning, face-to-face classroom learning and self-paced instruction, making use of the advantages of both traditional and distance learning (Priem et al. 2011). In fact, research data supports that "blended learning produces better outcomes than e-learning alone, when considering the same content and learning objectives" (Marçal & Caetano 2010).

Although the number of blended learning programmes for teachers is constantly rising, the references to programmes oriented to intercultural education are relatively limited (Orly 2007). This gap is to be filled to an extent by this study: it attempts to explore the impact of an e-learning course on the participants' professional development, as deriving from the assignments they produced during the course, as well as the views expressed by themselves during its assessment.

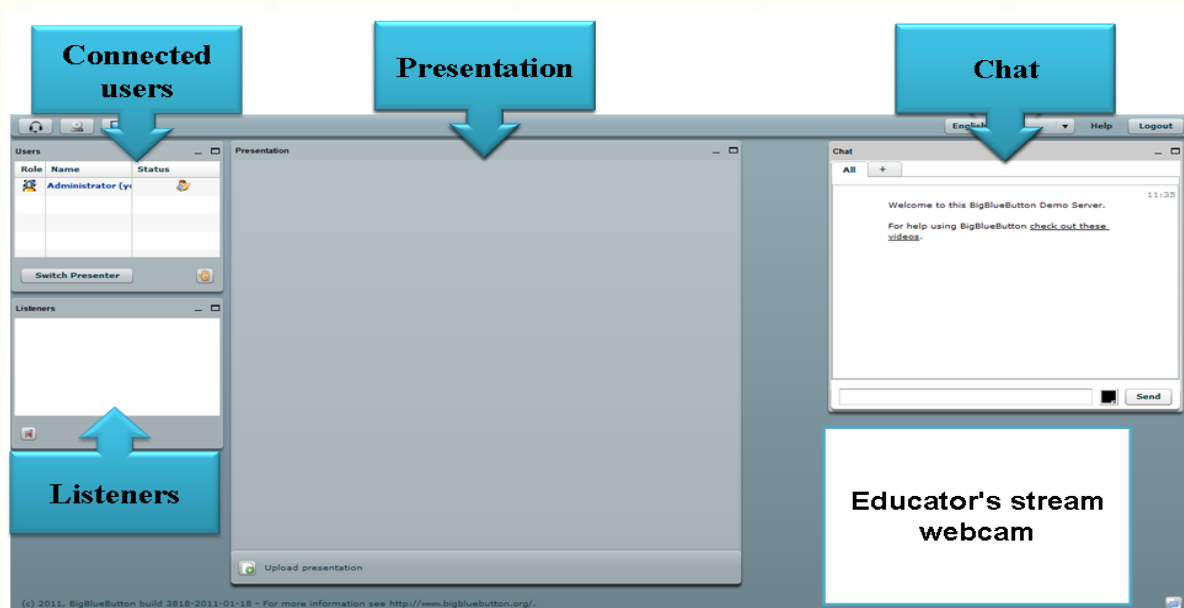
2. The context: A distance learning seminar for teachers

In the spring of 2011 a distance learning course on differentiated instruction was held in Florina by two staff members of the University of Western Macedonia, within the framework of the Educational Project "Education for foreign

and repatriated pupils"¹. It was a six-week-seminar which addressed elementary and secondary school teachers of various specializations working at schools with students from diverse socio-cultural backgrounds. It aimed at the participants' professional development by familiarizing them with the e-learning practices; along with other obligations, the teachers were asked to design and apply innovative educational strategies by means of ICT application in differentiated instruction.

The seminar was based on two key-concepts of the discipline of didactics: *blended e-learning* and *differentiated instruction*. On the one hand the blended e-learning was the vehicle for the creation of flexible instructional environments so as to exceed the traditional 'chalk and talk teaching', which is usually dominated by sterilized, shallow, superficial and controlling practices (Lankshear & Knobel 2011). On the other hand, the differentiated instruction offered the opportunity for applications in specific topics, aiming at enriching the instruction both in terms of content and methodologies. The course was begun and completed in two face-to-face meetings (weeks 1 and 6), while four intervening sessions were conducted by means of an open source web conferencing system, the *BigBlueButton* (<<http://www.bigbluebutton.org>>). By using this system the participants were involved in synchronous activities of distance learning through a virtual classroom, and they had the opportunity to attend the instructors' lectures, to see any PDF presentation or office document, to use a microphone, to take part in a group chat which is viewed by everyone within the conference, as well as to communicate feelings and responses to questions or statements (Figure 1).

¹ The project has been planned and developed by the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, Greece (2010-2013) (<<http://www.diapolis.auth.gr/index.php>>). The project is supported by the Program 'Education of Foreigner and Repatriated Students' funded by The National Strategic Reference Framework (NSRF) 2007-2013 and national resources. The seminar was incorporated in the Activity 'Training of teachers and members of the educational community', Sub-Activity 'Distance Learning'.

Figure 1: BigBlueButton Main Interface

The participants attended four modules related with the differentiation of teaching, along the axes of (a) multimodal texts, (b) concept maps, (c) projects and (d) scientific and technological literacy. For each module, the trainers uploaded educational material onto the platform on a weekly basis. The participants were asked to study the material, create assignments in the form of teaching scenarios for their pupils of multicultural classes and then apply them in their classrooms. In the meantime, they used collaborative internet resources to stay in touch and be supported by the trainers' feedback and guidance. In the last meeting, which was live, the participants presented these scenarios to the plenary session.

3. The aim of the study

Our study aims at tracing the effect of the distance learning course on the professional development of the teachers who attended it. We can assume that this development may be associated with the extent to which the teachers have incorporated in their assignments specific data concerning the differentiation of the school assignment from what they had been taught at the seminar. Furthermore, it may be associated with the views expressed in an attempt to evaluate the course, as well as with their reflection on the teaching methods they potentially adopted six months after the seminar

was held (Schön 1983). Through this process, the participants were expected to develop a sense of responsibility for the knowledge they produced, binding themselves to encourage real changes in their classrooms (Dana & Yendol-Silva 2003: 5-6, Korthagen & Vasalos 2005, Dimitriadou & Efstathiou 2007).

4. Research questions

The research questions of our study were posed as follows:

- a. Which of the methods and strategies for differentiated instruction that the participants in the e-learning training course were taught were in turn included in the teaching scenarios organized by the participants themselves for their multicultural classrooms?
- b. How did the teachers assess the efficiency of the e-learning course they attended in relation with differentiated instruction?
- c. How did the participants reflect on their experience from the e-learning course with regard to their instructional skills six months later?

5. Research methodology

5.1. Participants

Our sample involved sixteen teachers – one man and fifteen women – who took the course and were employed at schools of Western Macedonia, with the following specialties: six philologists, one mathematician, one agriculturist, one home economics teacher, two chemists, one computer science teacher, one English philology teacher, one French philology teacher, one special education kindergarten teacher and one nursery- kindergarten assistant. Two of the teachers were employed in Preschool education and fourteen in the Secondary education. Six (37,6%) of them had 1-5 years of experience in education, five (31,2%) of them 6-10 years and the other five (31,2%) over 15 years. One of the teachers had a second degree too, one had been retrained and two held a Master's degree.

5.2. Research tools

Three tools have been used in this study:

- The teaching scenarios which the participants were asked to create in the form of assignments on the completion of each thematic unit.
- A questionnaire which the participants were asked to answer in order to assess the course attended.
- An interview given by six participants of representative specialties six months after the course, about the practical application of the experience derived from the seminar.

Our study refers both to quantitative and qualitative parameters (Basit 2010). Thus, our data are arithmetic (questionnaires), but at the same time they are also mentioned in descriptions (teaching scenarios) or narrations (interviews) of incidents described by the participants. Although the present text's length limitations do not allow us to give a detailed account for all the findings, our data can be considered as verified, due to the implementation of triangulation as a research method for the validation of the results (Cohen et al. 2008: 189-195).

6. Results

6.1. Assignments results

Based on the four modules of the seminar, the participants created a series of (4X16) 64 teaching scenarios, focused respectively on (a) multimodal texts, (b) concept maps, (c) projects and (d) the scientific and technological literacy, all of which in the direction of differentiated instruction. These scenarios have been studied and assessed regarding their comprehensiveness, the methods applied by their creators, the topics selected etc. Since presenting a content analysis (Basit 2010: 194-196) of all scenarios is not possible in this paper, we will confine ourselves to highlight these features that enhance the new literacies toward differentiated instruction, as were analytically pointed out within the e-learning course.

To construct the teaching scenarios, the participants relied on their experience from the distance learning course: they looked for sources on the Internet in order to design exercises, to formulate questions, to refer to web pages or to create digital media artifacts. As a result, they were introduced to basic procedures of literacy research, they became informed consumers of research as teachers and created their own instructional material for their students (Lankshear & Knobel 2011: 231-236).

Below we cite two illustrative examples of the teachers' assignments on the modules A) visual literacy and B) scientific and technological literacy.

6.1.1. Teaching scenario A (philologist)

The participants were asked to create teaching scenarios based on multimodal texts available on the internet (Kress & Van Leeuwen 2001), namely posters edited by Amnesty International. Using the poster in Figure 2 as a tool for visual literacy practices (Dimitriadou et al. 2011), one of the teachers designed a role play in which the students had to form two mixed groups (repatriates and Greeks) and work together using the internet, in order to:

Figure 2: Amnesty International Poster (Greek Department) Entitled “Odyssey 2006”



- observe the picture and decode it, taking under consideration the poster text (The word “Odyssey” in particular)¹;
- write the personal story of a refugee at their age (“refugee group”) or a Greek immigrant abroad (“Greek group”) which would be published in a magazine tribute to human rights;
- present their personal stories to the class;
- create posters about human rights.

Thus, the poster served as a storyteller, setting the scene for the integration of socially informative practices and facilitating differentiated instruction. The pupils were supposed to be prompted to negotiate relationships, reevaluate purposes and negotiate transitions, as well as to bring to the fore meaningful knowledge and personal interpretations of reality. Moreover, they were given the opportunity to play the role of a narrative enquirer, who maintains flexibility and openness to an ever-changing landscape (Bach

2007: 285).

6.1.2. Teaching scenario B (chemist)

The teachers were asked to construct a teaching scenario of inquiry learning that would lead to organizing an exhibition in the school area, entitled: “The journey of electricity in Western Macedonia”. The exhibition was meant to be addressed to the wider school community, including the pupils’ parents and friends, as well as scientists/ technologists who are employed in the Public Power Corporation (PPC) and the local authorities (Region, Municipalities).

In the scenario cited, the teacher included the following activities: (a) an in situ visit to the power station of the PPC, which involved interviews of the production managers of the plant and photographing the area; (b) information gathering on the basis of a relevant educational film on youtube,² as well as printed material; (c) the creation of posters combining four topics, which the pupils were asked to work upon, divided into respective groups (e.g. the environmental impact of the PPC plant function) (d) the activity of group coordination by a fifth group that was responsible for the poster editing, as well as the preparation of a summary, bibliography and acknowledgments; (e) the formulation of suggestions on energy saving on the part of the pupils to the exhibition visitors (e.g. discussion with the authorities and special scientists about the cost of potential school equipment with a photovoltaic system).

The teacher seems to have developed instructional skills for the approach of the public comprehension of science, as he led the pupils to learn how to converse, read and write about scientific and technological issues as informed citizens (Miller 2001, Chalkia 2010).

6.2. Questionnaires results

The questionnaire included both qualitative and quantitative questions. The first part aimed at recording the participation history of teachers in relevant educational programmes, the second explored their motivation to participate in the distance learning seminar, while the third one concerned the teachers’ views on the various aspects of the seminar attended, the recording of the difficulties they had, as well as the

¹ In the lingual text of the poster the following was written: ‘Odyssey 2006’. ‘They travel in a tub searching for a better future. They encounter everywhere the hideousness of xenophobia and racism. However, they have not found Ithaca anywhere...’ ‘Amnesty International Greek Section’ RESIST THE VIOLATION OF THE RIGHTS OF REFUGEES.

² <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=coWQ1R2r5MY>

formulation of suggestions regarding an imminent seminar organization. In this paper we quote the results of the third part.

In order to analyse the quantitative data derived from the questionnaire, we applied the descriptive statistics method, used for the data organization, simplification and concise presentation (Diamond & Jefferies, 2005), calculating the means (M) and standard deviations (SD) in the teachers' answers. The Likert scale of 6 was applied: 1=the least, 2=very poor, 3=poor, 4=moderately, 5=good, 6=very good. Regarding the open questions, they were categorized and encoded in groups, in order to calculate frequency.

The average answers of the teachers show a positive attitude towards lifelong meetings, mainly due to the fact that they helped them familiarize not only with the subject area of the seminar (M=5,06, SD=0,82), but also with the effective use of the electronic platform (M=4,88, SD=1,02).

As far as the platform functionality is concerned, the teachers agree that it helped them save time (M=5,73, SD=0,45) and have an easy access to educational material (M=5,50, SD=0,71). More specifically, the average answers to the question if the electronic platform use was difficult, were at a low level (M=1,63, SD=0,78).

The teachers express positive comments about the ideas they derived and intend to apply in the classroom (M=5,44, SD=0,61), the response to modern educational needs (M=5,31, SD=0,68), the connection of theory with practice (M=5,19, SD=0,63) and the promotion of their autonomy in their educational work (M=5,06, SD=0,66). High averages are also recorded in the answers related with the content of the modules. More specifically, the teachers state that they will be much/ very much helped by the knowledge acquired particularly by the modules "Differentiated instruction by means of the teaching application of the picture" (M=5,44, SD=0,55) and "Differentiated instruction by means of written assignments" (M=5,31, SD=0,68). High averages were nevertheless observed in the other two modules: "Differentiated instruction by means of concept maps" (M=5,19, SD=0,73) and "Differentiated instruction by means of the scientific and technological literacy of the pupils" (M=4,75, SD=1,03).

Regarding the teachers' overall impression of the distance learning seminar they attended and the degree to which it fulfilled their expectations, the average was very high (M=5,25, SD=0,44).

The suggestions put forward about the seminar improvement, concern the following:

- a. Greater length of both face-to-face meetings and distance learning
- b. More interactive approaches among participants through the platform
- c. Decrease in the number and length of the assignments
- d. Seminar attendance at a more appropriate timing, namely at the beginning of the academic year or after Christmas holidays.

6.3. Interviews results

Two months after the next academic year (2011-2012) had started, semi-structured interviews were carried out in six of the participants, who were selected with regard to the relevance between their specialty and the theme axes of the seminar. The main objective of this follow up was to find out the extent to which the teachers, six months later, had already integrated strategies and methods toward differentiated instruction, as taught in the seminar. The results are summed up as follows:

All teachers have incorporated differentiated instruction by means of multimodal texts in their everyday practice; three of them now use concept maps in order to re-contextualize the theoretical part of their lessons (History, Home Economics, Geography), while five are willing to apply projects, although they are having difficulties due to the class heterogeneity and the lack of time. Regarding the differentiated instruction by means of the scientific and technological literacy of the pupils, the teachers found very interesting the module and the methods they were taught. Nevertheless, they acknowledged the difficulty they have in integrating them in their educational practice, as appropriate preparation and cooperation among teachers of different specialties are required. However, they declared that they intend to include relevant issues in their future planning.

The feedback the teachers receive from the pupils when applying the strategies and methods taught at the seminar is absolutely positive, as

“the pupils seem to be more interested in the lesson, take part in activities and learn how to cooperate in a group, which they didn’t do much in the past”. What is more, *“the weaker or less talkative pupils are also actively involved, as they are given individual or group assignments to prepare, depending on their skills”.* It is worth mentioning the case of a pupil with attention deficit disorder who, through group work *“was made more acceptable by his classmates and improved his communication skills”.*

Assessing their experience, the majority of the teachers stated that they improved certain skills, such as the methodical preparation and organization of their lesson, the more efficient approach of their pupils, the collection of the appropriate educational material on the Internet and in general the ICT use (*“we use them extensively while searching educational material”*). In their total, they admitted that their self-confidence was boosted and that they feel now more secure about their teaching and the pupil-centered methods they gradually attempt to apply. They are very satisfied from the seminar and eager to participate in future distance learning seminars related with differentiated instruction. Moreover, they wish to be informed about new techniques in this field and also to take part in training programmes concerning their specialty.

7. Discussion and conclusion

In this article we describe the main characteristics of an e-learning programme which focuses on the need for equal opportunities and for combating the school failure of diverse students, as it sets the conditions for teachers to “translate their conceptualizations of equity and diversity into classroom strategies” (Hadjisoteriou 2012: 136). In accordance with the New Pilot Study Programmes³, this condition addresses the demand for empowered and emancipated teachers, who are expected to demolish the boundaries between ‘in-school and out-of-school literacies’ (Leander 2001).

The results of the application of three research tools shed light to various aspects of the impact the e-learning course had on the teachers. As far as the *first research question* is

concerned, it appears that the educational scenarios handed in by the participants were in accordance with the aims of the e-learning course. The teachers were involved in new and changing ways of receiving, exchanging, producing and distributing texts by electronic means; in addition, they developed instructional skills like creating opportunities for interactive instruction (narratives, role-playing, debates, discussion, problem solving, cooperative learning groups) and experiential learning (discussions, field observations) by applying the ICT in relation with the differentiated instruction. It also appears that the teachers’ assignments activated their creative and critical thinking, as they offered them the opportunity to search on the Internet, collect their material, organize it and make use of it on an educational basis, enhancing thus their autonomy as professionals. What is more, the teachers gave priority to differentiated instruction while setting high standards for pupils of different learning readiness and skills in the exercises they prepared (Tomlinson 2000, Tomlinson et al. 2003).

As far as the *second research question* is concerned, namely the seminar assessment provided by the teachers, we ascertain their satisfaction with the fact that the seminar content was focused on daily practice issues, which they therefore managed to apply themselves. Furthermore, we acknowledge the special positive impact of face-to-face instruction on the one hand (e.g. the development of intimacy in personal contact) and of e-learning education on the other (e.g. easy access to Internet material), findings that justify the positive appeal of the blended model to teachers, as it is apparent in bibliography. In conclusion, both findings are consistent with the relevant research (Kante 2002, Garrison & Kanuka 2004, Pundak et al. 2010, Bellou et al. 2010, Pedagogical Institute 2010). Moreover, the creation of a positive environment during the seminar seems to have enhanced the participants’ motivation to successfully fulfill the ICT requirements (Venkatesh & Speier 1999).

Regarding the third research question, the teachers integrated and applied in their teaching the techniques promoted by the modules, mainly due to the visual literacy and the concept maps, about which they had positive feedback

³ <http://digitalschool.minedu.gov.gr/info/newps.php>

from their pupils. They commented “we benefited because we were given the opportunity to interact with one another during the seminar”, which creates expectations for the positive impact of the programme on the pupils as well, since where there is a learning culture among teachers, there will also be successful learning for the children (Tiedao 2002: 306). All of the teachers support that they have overcome the insecurity they initially felt about the ICT, when the seminar started and thus they are willing to participate in distance learning seminars in the future as well.

The above conclusions seem to be of significant importance especially for the organization of the seminar, if we take under consideration that, according to Pundak et al. (2010), most instructors maintain traditional teaching methods. It can be assumed that via the distance learning seminar the teachers developed practices which are mediated by ‘post-typographic’ forms of text and correspond to a new theoretical and research paradigm for looking at literacy: the ‘New Literacy Studies’ (Lankshear & Knobel 2011 27-29). Having been familiarized with the theory and the application of new literacy practices through e-learning, they managed to build a bridge between *episteme* and *phronesis* (Kessels & Korthagen 1996: 18-19); moreover, they achieved the creation of educational knowledge which refers both to content and procedural parameters, that is the “know what” and the “know how”. What is more, they integrated new forms of literacy to teaching through differentiated instruction, shifting the focus of the learning process from the teacher to the pupil (Koutselini 2008, Tomlinson 2000).

All in all, we could assume that the teachers made steps toward their professional development, both technically and pedagogically; the skills they developed with regard to teaching practices correspond to a kind of knowledge creation which, in its turn, is expected to involve diverse students in critical thinking, creativity, and self-directing capacity, making use of their learning readiness, their learning styles and their multiple intellects (Koutselini 2008, Gardner 1983, Korthagen & Vasalos 2005).

We can maintain that the teachers responded to the request for ‘multiple, dynamic

and malleable’ literacies: they developed proficiency with the tools of technology; they put together and assigned tasks that seek emancipation, assuming ethical responsibilities towards pupils in multicultural classes. In a word, they supported social learning in favour of the “pull” models of education, as opposed with the “push” models, which encourage imposed, predefined and formalized teaching and learning approaches (Lankshear & Knobel 2011: 24-25, 226-229). The above characteristics create added value to the e-learning possibilities, since they increase the teachers’ self-confidence and professional emancipation, features that can enhance their professional development within the framework explored by this study.

At this point we should mention some of the research limitations: the sample of teachers was small and the seminar was held at the end of the school year, which resulted in some teachers not being able to put immediately in practice what they had been taught and provide thus the researchers with direct feedback.

It is urgent that in the future take place longer and more extensive studies in a wider population of teachers, in order to improve the training practices relying on blended learning and examine the course of their professional development in relation with other factors, such as learning motivation, specialty or personal characteristics of the teachers. Moreover, taking into account the teachers’ difficulty in adopting the teaching strategies and methods concerning the other two modules (projects and scientific/technological literacy), we acknowledge the necessity for further research as far as the development of e-learning programmes is concerned, aiming at differentiated instruction through the aforementioned practices.

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EXPLORING THE BORDERLAND OF WESTERN MACEDONIA: REFLECTIONS ON AN ERASMUS INTENSIVE PROGRAMME

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Abstract

In 2010 an Erasmus Intensive Programme was developed by the University of Western Macedonia, entitled "People and Space in the Borderland of Western Macedonia: Tracing historical, social and intercultural features" (P.S.BoWMA) (www.eled.uowm.gr/ip). Twenty seven higher Education students and nineteen teachers of different disciplines from three different countries (Greece, Slovenia and the Netherlands) were given the opportunity to approach the challenges of 'exploring' pluralism, diversity and the cultural particularities with regard to the local history, the social structure and the cultural identity of the communities living in the area. The project consisted of seminars, workshops and experiential, hands-on inquiry activities guided by both social scientists and artists. Within this framework, the borderland of Western Macedonia was transformed into a vast international classroom where the participants were involved in literacy practices through outdoor activities: meeting "in situ" with people, visiting locations and historic monuments, shooting footage, hiking and camping in the area of Prespes, recording sounds and conducting interviews. Moreover, the participants were engaged in web-based exercises and produced multimedia teaching material for primary education students. The effectiveness of the program was assessed through observation, interviews and questionnaires. The participants were urged to reflect on their motivation and expectations, the interaction and cooperation they experienced, the content and process knowledge they acquired, the strengths and weaknesses of the programme, as well as to make suggestions for the future. The results, as they were pinpointed within the framework of a master's dissertation submitted in the School of Education in Florina, are presented in this paper.

Keywords: ERASMUS Intensive Programme, borderland, Western Macedonia, literacy practices, reflection

1. Introduction

People, places and things included in any learning environment are combined in significant 'statements', whereby they can articulate a multilevel context for embedded learning

(Dimitriadou, 2010). The characteristics of space can be seen as signs corresponding to descriptive, functional, historical, aesthetic, psychological or ideological meanings with regard to the codified organizational and functional rules of communities. Moreover, according to the theory of symbolic interactionism (Dennis & Martin 2005) these elements signify the communities' potential, reflecting human ideologies and offering meaningful interpretations for culture (Edwards & Usher 2000, Dimitriadou & Kesidou 2008). Thus, the experiential study of an area offers opportunities for steps into a wide range of literacies concerning the local history, the social structure and the cultural identity of the communities located in the area.

This rationale fits the study of a borderland, as is the case of Western Macedonia, a region with particularities that can be explained on the basis of both historical and geographical factors (Lagopoulos & Boklund-Lagopoulou 1992).

Borderlands have characteristics that differentiate them from other areas within states. They can be seen as cultural landscapes which are defined by the social interactions which construct them, thus transcending political borders and geographic boundaries. For the understanding of the concept of borders there are some important factors to be taken into account, such as the size and extent of the networks that link border people to others; those who cross borders on their way elsewhere, those in positions of power in state centres, and those who may never even see the border but whose decisions affect life there are included (Manos 2010).

The region of Western Macedonia acquired its geographical status and political importance as a border region of the Greek State in 1913, when the territorial boundaries of the new nation-states of Greece, Bulgaria, Serbia, Albania, Romania and Turkey were fixed. Until then, it was part of the Ottoman Empire. To the north it borders with the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and to the west with Albania. Morphologically, it consists of mountainous and semi-mountainous areas and lowlands. The landscape is complemented by six lakes, two of which are situated in Prespes, the largest national park in Greece that is included in the NATURA 2000 European network of

protected areas.

With respect to the above framework, in the present text we report on an Erasmus Intensive Programme (IP) which gave the opportunity for a multicultural classroom to attain lifelong learning pertaining to the historical, social and cultural characteristics of people living in the borderlands of Western Macedonia (www.eled.uowm.gr/ip). The aims, the structure, the content, and the expected outcome of the project, in accordance with the educational prerequisites set by the Erasmus IPs, as well as the participants' reflection on their experience from the project are presented.

2. Erasmus Intensive Programmes (IPs)

Erasmus Intensives Programmes (IPs) stand as intensive courses, responding to the rising needs of modern students for international education and training in a short period of time. Their main characteristics are (a) their duration, which lasts from ten days to six weeks, (b) the participation of students and teachers, who have to be coming from universities of at least three different countries, and (c) the potentiality for the same Programme to be implemented up to three times in three consecutive years.

It is worth noting that funding comes from the EU as well as from National Agencies. According to the European Commission guidelines, an IP should not consist of traditional research and teaching activities; it should implement innovative practices and suggestions, which could be utilized for the improvement of the studying programmes of the participating institutions. An IP is also expected to make use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT), in order to support its preparation as well as its progress.

The Erasmus IPs encourage cooperation among universities all over the member-states of the EU for efficient multinational teaching in particular topics. Provided that they are meant to develop international and inter-scientific educational environments, they should provide pioneering approaches concerning experiential learning (Onorati & Bednarz, 2010: 55). As far as the participants' personal development is concerned, these programmes successfully contribute to strengthening their European

identity, to acquiring knowledge about the history and culture of Europe, to developing their intercultural competencies and to learning foreign languages (Deardorff, 2006: 247, 254). However, although the intensive courses could be used as a vehicle of change in the universities, their legality is threatened by the lack of infrastructure, their restricted recognition from the academic community and the underestimation of their contribution to an institution (Martin & Culver, 2009: 63).

3. The identity of the IP "P.S.BoWMa"

At the beginning of summer 2010, an IP was developed by three Departments at the University of Western Macedonia (co-ordinating university) which is located in Florina, a city 200km from Thessaloniki, Greece. The universities of Ljubljana, Slovenia and NHL, the Netherlands, participated in the Programme which lasted for two weeks (28 June – 9 July). The participants of all three universities were given the opportunity to approach the challenges of living in the borderlands and experiencing the landscape as a crossroads formed by three countries: Greece, F.Y.R.O.M., and Albania. As its title suggests, "People and Space in the Borderland of Western Macedonia: tracing historical, social and intercultural features" (P.S.BoWMa), the IP was a lifelong learning Programme focusing on the exploration of the natural and person-made environment in the borderland of the north-west corner of Greece.

The project included seminars, workshops, field trips, and experiential, hands-on inquiry activities. There were lectures in the morning and "in situ" visits or lab work in the afternoon. Educators from the participating countries taught either individually or in pairs. Guided by both social scientists and artists, the participants were able to focus on the cultural and historical roots of Western Macedonia and use parallel methodological approaches in order to trace the historical, social and cultural particularities which characterize the borderlands of this region.

During the IP, the borderland of WM was transformed into a vast international classroom where a group of 26 university students and 19 teachers were actively involved in situated literacy practices. They had the opportunity not

only to map the region's natural characteristics but also to trace features concerning the local history, the social structure and the cultural identity of the communities located in the area. More specifically, the participants were urged to decode the particular elements that characterize the area, interpret them and then re-code, document and share their experiences by creating their own artifacts by means of language and image systems, as well as new technologies. Thematic approaches focusing on concepts such as *local history*, *borders*, *memories*, *social semiotics* or *local art* integrated the various educational procedures.

In an effort to bridge theory and practice while experiencing learning as a social process, the participants interacted with the local community through observation and interpretation and were involved in literacy events and practices. In other words, they were physically involved in the landscape through several outdoor activities: meeting people, visiting locations and historical monuments, hiking and camping in the area of Prespes, shooting footage, recording sounds, and conducting interviews. Moreover, the students were engaged in web-based exercises and created multimedia products. To this end, during their fieldwork, they were asked to use their cameras and video cameras employing certain techniques and following special guidelines provided by an expert.

The artifacts created by the IP students had to be included also in lesson plans to be taught to primary or secondary pupils. Working in pairs or groups, the participants were asked to fill in observation sheets and organize texts and their fieldwork material into teaching units for primary education pupils. Particularly, they were asked to transform the knowledge they had acquired into educational material for a certain number of small-scale elementary-school level teaching scenarios. The participants were awarded 6 ECTS credits towards their degree.

All in all, during the Programme the students combined the material collected in the places they visited, with material derived from their internet research and transformed it into educational material. Also, as part of their fieldwork, the participants took interviews and pictures, videotaped incidents of interest and recorded sounds. All this valuable material was

used, at the end of the Programme, for the creation of a short documentary based on the audiovisual footage recorded by them. The whole outcome of the IP, along with the overall results of participants' experiential approaches and artefacts was organized into a web page and uploaded on the Internet.

4. Study method

In an attempt to assess the effectiveness of the IP "P.S.BoWMa" through the viewpoint of its participants, specific research took place. The research questions were formulated with regard to both the aims of the project and the goals set for IPs by the EU and were the following:

- Which were the participants' expectations from the IP?
- What is the students' opinion about the IP outcome at social, educational and professional levels?
- What suggestions could the students make that could be taken into account towards improving the next year IP?

To answer the questions above, we depended on the responses provided by the participant students in two questionnaires, as they are described below.

It is worth mentioning here that another evaluation of the IP was applied by the Greek National Agency, as well. Moreover, our research not only addressed the students, but also the participant teachers through observation and semi-structured interviews (Basit, 2010). These procedures were meant to overcome any credibility and validity problems, securing a triangulation of the sources, the methodologies and the data (Cohen et al. 2008: 189-195). Yet, since the present text length limitations do not allow us to give a detailed account of all the findings, we will focus only on the data obtained through the students' questionnaires.

Our study provides "a unique portrayal of real people in a real social situation by means of vivid accounts of events, feelings and perceptions". Provided that it presents a rich description of the lived experiences of the students and offers an understanding on how they perceived their participation in the IP and its effect on themselves, the research can be considered as an example of case study (Basit 2011: 19-20).

4.1. The sample

The sample was composed by aspirant historians, primary-school teachers and social anthropologists: 26 university students coming from the University of Leeuwarden in the Netherlands (6 student-teachers), the University of Ljubljana in Slovenia (6 ethnographers) and the University of Western Macedonia (14 student-teachers, one post-graduate student among them). Six of the participants were boys and twenty girls, all aged between 20 and 33 years.

4.2. The research tools

Two different questionnaires were distributed to students, at the beginning (pre-) and at the end (post-) of the Programme. Each included 11 closed in combination with open-ended questions, in order to obtain both quantitative and qualitative data (Basit 2010).

The questions were articulated around the following thematic axes:

1. Pre-questionnaire: How informed the students regarded themselves about Erasmus Programmes, IPs, and particularly the "P.S. BoWMa"; students' experience from Lifelong Learning Programmes (LLPs) in the past; evaluation of the IP 2010 "BoWMa" website; the most attractive characteristics of the IP; expectations from the IP; reasons to apply for the IP; the biggest profit from the students participation.
2. Post-questionnaire: Evaluation of the characteristics of the IP; the profits from the participation in the IP; knowledge gained concerning concrete areas; students' response to the IP requirements; the most interesting characteristics of the IP; the potential application of a similar IP in the future; recommendation to a friend; comments to be included in the participant's evaluation.

Depending on the thematic axe of each question, the students were requested to record their responses on a five-point Likert scale specifying their level of agreement to statements, such as:

- a. very poor, below average, average,

- above average, excellent
- b. strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree nor disagree, agree, strongly agree;
- c. not at all, very little, fair, much, very much
- d. very easy, easy, normal, hard, very hard.

5. Results of the Pre-questionnaire

In order to analyse the numerical data derived from the questionnaire, we applied the descriptive statistics method – used for the data organization, simplification and concise presentation (Diamond & Jefferies, 2005) – calculating the means (M) in the students' answers. Regarding the data obtained through the open ended questions, they were analysed as textual qualitative data, having been categorized and encoded in groups.

All participants knew about the Erasmus Programmes, whereas 12% knew nothing about the IPs. Only four students (15%) had previously participated in another European Lifelong Learning Programme. As far as the website created for the IP is concerned, only 27% of the students were informed about it; yet they stated that it was interesting, informative, thorough and with a modern design. Their estimations were over the mean of the Likert scale (positive) by 61-68%.

The most appealing features of the IP were "the interaction with people from different countries" (23 students) and "the socio-cultural environment" (85%) in which the IP would be conducted. Following in importance was the main theme, namely "the borderland as geographical/political point of reference" (46%) and "the subject-matter of the seminars and the workshops" (42%).

As far as their expectations were concerned, the students awaited to have a high level of interaction with teachers and other students from different European countries (100%) and to improve their English language skills (31%) as well as their IT skills. They also expected to have an interesting travelling experience in northwestern Greece (69%), while enjoying the sounds, tastes and natural elements of the region. In addition, they hoped to acquire a lot of knowledge on the contemporary social, political and economic characteristics of the native population (69%) and to have an empirical

approach on the historical issues related to the specific cultural context (77%).

Furthermore, they expected to profit from studying the social, cultural and economic elements of the borderland region of Western Macedonia (77%) and to better understand the geography and the history of the region, as well as the role it played in the past in the wider Balkan area. The students expected to gain important knowledge regarding the interdisciplinary approach of various subject-matters, the presentation of papers in conferences and the composition of documents (papers, articles, ppt presentations etc.). They also thought (89%) that their effort for self-education and development would be promoted through the IP. As candidate teachers themselves, they hoped to be helped in the matter of intercultural teaching and communication through this experience.

6. Results of the Post-questionnaire

In the Post-questionnaire, all the participants agreed (4th and 5th grade of the Likert scale) that the IP fulfilled their expectations (96%) and they were satisfied by the daily schedule and the interesting activities that it involved (100%). 77% of the students believed that innovative practices concerning education and training were presented, while 77% agreed that services, practices and content based on the ICT were developed and 92% agreed that an interdisciplinary learning environment was created. (Table 1).

Table 1: Students' opinions about the effects of the IP at educational level

Key issues at educational level	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	Total
The IP supported the development of innovative services, practices and content based on the ICT for lifelong learning	0%	0%	23%	50%	27%	100%
During the IP, an educational environment was created, which was characterized by a strong interdisciplinary approach.	0%	0%	8%	46%	46%	100%

"Very satisfied" was the 77% of the participants with the promotion of the personal and academic interaction among the participants, as well as with the willingness of the teaching staff to support the students and answer all arising questions. Yet the climate of cooperation among the participants for the implementation of projects was considered as a

controversial issue (Table 2). Surprisingly, as well, the students' views varied significantly when they were asked to report on whether interaction with the participants increased their sense of belonging to a European cultural space (Table 2).

Table 2: Students' opinions about the effects of the IP at social level

Key issues at social level	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	Total
The cooperation among the participants for the implementation of various projects was calm and efficient.	0%	15%	31%	31%	23%	100%
The interaction with the other participants increased my sense of belonging to a European cultural space.	11%	12%	15%	27%	35%	100%

Out of the 26 participants, 19 agreed that through the IP they learned more about the history and the traditions of Greece; in addition, 92% stated that their experience helped them understand and gain respect for the important socio-cultural differences and issues related to the hosting country; 81% answered that after the IP they were looking at the organizing country through a different perspective and they became more aware of the cultural similarities between the participating countries (89%). As far as the students' personal development is concerned, 92% stated that the IP contributed to that

direction.

85% of the students stated that they had a strong experiential approach to historical issues related to the specific cultural context, whereas 31% of the students appeared skeptical about the knowledge gained concerning the cultural heritage of the people living in the region.

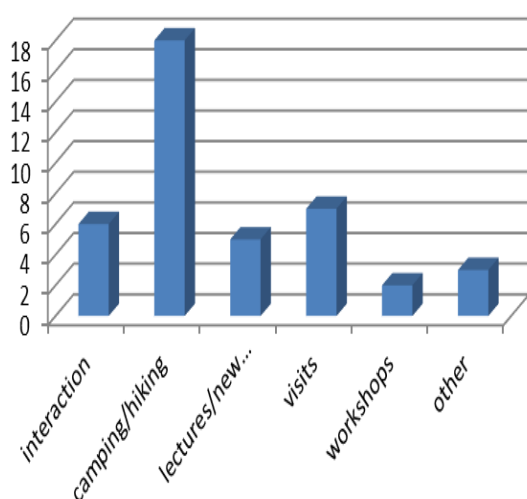
Most of the students (89%) felt that they learned a lot about the relationships between the local residents and the political, cultural and social interaction across the border in Western Macedonia. Furthermore, they managed to observe specific references to cross-border

relations between the Greeks and the inhabitants of the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, a matter which was extensively discussed throughout the IP.

With regard to the difficulty of the tasks assigned to the students, the impression was that it was moderate for 62% and easy for 35% of them. The intensity of the daily programme, i.e. hours of lectures, the volume of new information and tasks, as well as physical fatigue, was difficult for 46% and normal for 39%. Finally, almost half of the students felt that they responded to a normal degree (42%) to the outdoor activities such as outdoor workshops, guided tours and the three-day excursion in the Prespa region.

With regard to the parts of the IP the students liked most, they expressed their preference for the outdoors learning procedures; 18 participants stated their most favorite experience was the three-day excursion in the Prespa region (Figure 1). More specifically, the camp in a lakeside location gathered positive feedback due to the impact it had on the human approach and the "bonding" developed among the participants. The hiking along the lake and the island of *Agios Achillios* raised controversial comments.

Figure 1: What the students liked most in the IP



The second matter frequently reported by the students (27%) falls in the category of outdoor activities and particularly the educational visits and work carried out in areas outside the University, e.g. in the open market of Florina, in the city streets and in Bitola, FYROM. Furthermore, the students referred to the presentations that took place outside, such as

the one in the cave of Kokalis in Vrodero, in the construction site of the dam in Trantafyllia, as well as in the Archaeological Museum and in the Hellenistic city of Florina.

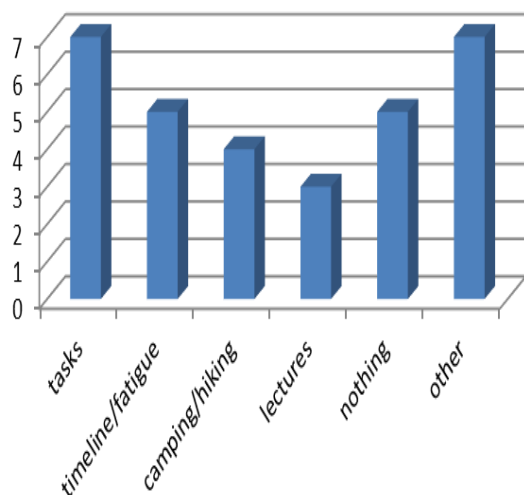
The quality of the lectures and the new knowledge acquired were commented positively by 19% of the participants; they praised the interesting and informative character of the courses, the fact that the lectures covered different topics and time periods and the adaptability of the teachers in all prevailing circumstances in the classroom.

As far as the workshops carried out for the production of educational material is concerned, 46% of the participants thought that they were very interesting, creative and efficient, and helped them understand how to convert information into educational material ("it was a good experience to transform our experience and what we learned and studied into educational material for other people") (Dimitriadou & Gakoudi, 2011).

In their answers to the open-ended questions, 10 students reported that the large number of different tasks assigned to groups caused some confusion among them. Particularly, on the first day of the workshops, the students experienced some stress and problems within certain groups because of the unclear instructions given to them. Two students suggested creating a leaflet printed by the teachers, which would explain what was expected by the work groups. Of course, they also highlighted the fact that the teachers provided encouragement and were very willing to answer all their questions.

The students were also asked to identify the elements of the Programme they would like to change (Figure 2). Seven students referred to the heavy workload assigned to them, with regard to the time available, the number of tasks, the clarity of the instructions and the accuracy of the information provided. Five students expressed dissatisfaction with the intensity of the daily programme, especially in the last two days, because that didn't allow enough time for rest. Yet, five people felt that they would not change anything in the IP.

Figure 2: What the students would like to change in the IP



On the whole, one might conclude that the students were satisfied with the conduction of the IP "P.S.BoWMa", since when asked if they would like to participate in similar programmes in the future, all of them responded affirmatively. In addition, they would suggest that a friend should participate in the next implementation of the IP in summer 2011.

7. Discussion and conclusions

The results of the application of the two questionnaires shed light to various aspects of the impact that the IP "P.S. BoWMa" had on the students. As far as the *first research question* is concerned, it appears that the basic motive of students participating in the "P.S.BoWMa" was the opportunity to meet and cooperate with people from different countries, a feature that is apparent as well in most studies conducted on international programmes (Dimitriadou 2010: 38-40, Juknytė-Petrekienė & Pukelis 2007: 78, Mirici et al. 2009: 150). The main reason why the students wished to participate was the interesting location where the Programme was held and the notion of the borderlands as a geographic and political reference point.

As far as the *second research question* is concerned, namely the IP outcome for the students at a social, educational and professional level, it was proved that they were satisfied with their experience as a whole and their expectations were fulfilled to a great extent. The

students stated that the IP promoted lifelong learning and the evolvement of innovative methods and they felt that they gained valuable knowledge for their future professional career, as mentioned in the papers of Robson (1992: 95) and Fargion et al (2010: 7-9). Most of the students stated that they acquired a lot of knowledge through their experiential approach to the history and the cultural heritage of Greece. They were also able to understand more about the socio-cultural particularities of Western Macedonia and the dynamics of the relationships among the people living on the two sides of the borderline in the region.

Although the number and level of the task difficulty were not particularly high, the IP was considered as quite intensive, thus causing physical and mental fatigue. Enforcing the findings of Arrey (2005: 22-26), the students felt that they surpassed their limits thanks to the encouragement of the teachers and they had an excellent educational experience. Nonetheless, the students sometimes had difficulties in meeting their obligations, due to the vagueness of the directions/ guidelines given, a problem that also arose in the research of Mehls and Heinz (2003: 52-55).

Regarding the *third research question*, some difficulties were identified concerning cooperation among the mixed groups, as well as the large number of different tasks assigned to students. Yet, all the participants suggested the repetition of the Programme, since they agreed that it contributed to breaking down stereotypes through the contact among people from different countries. Nevertheless, a limitation regarding the language should also be mentioned here: over half the participants were from the host university, and often spoke in Greek during the IP, an issue which however was not highlighted by the students when assessing the course.

It should be mentioned that the above conclusions, including the students' comments, were taken under serious consideration for the implementation of the IP in the two consecutive years (2011 in Florina and 2012 in Leeward, the Netherlands)

(<http://www.eled.uowm.gr/ip/>).

The IP "P.S.BoWMa" was developed independently, without aiming to be integrated into other existing programmes. It was a novelty

for the University of Western Macedonia, which is located on the junction among three nations, quite isolated from major urban centers. By exploring the historical dimension of the area, the IP attained an in-depth examination of the past and the present and enabled the participants to develop a critical eye on national and social identities, borrowing elements from sociology, social anthropology and art. The interdisciplinary approaches have allowed the development of knowledge and discussion about the socio-cultural environment of Western Macedonia and in this context basic skills and intercultural communication were enhanced. It is worth noting that the local community, which had no previous experience of such an event, responded successfully to the requirements of this demanding course of European gravity.

Concluding, the IP seems to have succeeded in meeting its constituent targets, since five schools of the three participating universities collaborated effectively towards promoting mobility and quality in vocational training. Various practices of lifelong learning were supported – such as innovative ICT-based procedures, personal involvement, outdoor education, embedded and situated learning –, and are assumed to be capitalized for the creation of a sustainable learning community in the future. All of the aforementioned are eloquently reflected in the photos and the snapshots included in the documentary produced at the end of the Programme.

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GOVERNING BODIES OF GREEK LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN ROMANIA. PAST AND PRESENT

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Abstract

Wherever the Greek immigrants settled, their first concern was to get organized, build churches, establish schools, educational institutions and associations. These institutions of Greeks in Romania not only had the ambition to serve direct political or “national” needs, but they also wished to promote and preserve the Greek spirit through culture and language. In this context, the paper aims to map Greek language education in Romania before and after 1945, to highlight the prospects especially after 1989-90, the time of the fall of the communist regime and the reestablishment of the Hellenic Union of Romania with its 25 branches.

Keywords: *Greek immigrants, Hellenic Union, Greek language, Romania*

1. Introduction

In recent times in Romania, the Greeks have organized trade on land and opened paths to communication to the north through The Carpathians and Moldova, following the current of large rivers. Mostly after the fall of Constantinople, large waves of Greek immigrants were recorded, mostly in the second half of the 19th century in Romanian territory, where the many opportunities for financial growth were an incentive for the creation of a migration influx.

Wherever the Greek immigrants settled, their first concern was to get organized, build churches, establish schools, educational institutions and associations. These institutions of Greeks in Romania not only had the ambition to serve direct political or “national” needs, but they also wished to promote and preserve the Greek spirit through culture and language.

In this context, the paper aims to map Greek language education in Romania before and after 1945, to highlight the prospects especially after 1989-90, the time of the fall of the communist regime and the reestablishment of the Hellenic Union of Romania with its 25 branches.

2. Purpose and objectives of the study

The present paper utilizes the results of the research program “Greek Language Primary and Secondary Intercultural Education in the Diaspora” that was co-financed by the European

Union and the Ministry of Education and Culture within the program NSRF for the period 2011 - 2013. The authority that applies to the program was the Department of Intercultural and Migration Studies (hereinafter E.DIA.M.ME.) within the Pedagogic Department of Public Education, University of Crete. The study was conducted by Kostas D. Dinas, Professor of the Department of Preschool Education at the University of Western Macedonia, Ciprian N. Suci, lecturer at the Department of Balkan Studies at the University of Western Macedonia, Anna P. Hatzipanagiotidi, Assistant Professor in the Department of Primary Education of the Frederick University of Cyprus and Georgios Christidis, Assistant Professor at the Department of Balkan Studies at the University of Western Macedonia. At present the E.DIA.M.ME. has completed its project entitled "Children of Greek Descent" has developed the methodology and structure of e-learning.

The study mainly aims:

- a. To map Greek language education in Romania and Bulgaria emphasizing the present situation within Greek language education, the problems it is facing and the perspectives that arise - especially after 1989-90, in order for language teaching to be supported (also electronically),
- b. To identify the means and the forms of cooperation with authorities involved in teaching the Greek language (presidents of Greek communities, Greek school directors, Greek language learners, detached teachers on behalf of the Ministry of Education from Greece, other authorities), in the direction of encouraging and promoting the study of the Greek language, and
- c. To present specific proposals in order to adopt measures and generally political measures, that could help learning the Greek language in Romania and Bulgaria in the present.

3. Greek language education in Romania in the past

Braşov

In the beginning of the 19th century, and earlier on, many educational associations were established with the aim to build schools and

libraries in many Greek communities of Romania. We will begin our brief tour of the Greek Community of Braşov, where "even beginning from the 15th century (...) a Greek school existed, where courses in the Greek language were taught, for students of Greek origin and later on for students of German, Hungarian and Romanian origin". Ancient Greek appears to have been taught also in other schools of the city with tuition fees. In the 18th century, after the arrival of a large number of Greeks, a hospital and school were built, many shops operated and many homes were built. The Greek school of the city was in operation until 1908, when it closed due to lack of students.

Bucharest

The city of Bucharest had a more spiritual and educational reputation than a commercial one. Beginning in 1678, the Greek Academy of Bucharest was founded, through the initiative of the Greek - Romanian Serban Cantacuzino. The initial venue was at Saint Sava monastery and was the core where important intellectuals used to gather. At the Academy, Ancient Greek writers were studied and taught and as were religious texts in the modern Greek language. For example, the Greek scholar Sevastianos Kiminitis (1689-1702) played an important role, where sources claim that he was in charge of administration, and that along with the educational institutions of Constantinople were the most important centers for higher education for the orthodox people of the Ottoman Empire.

The School of Bucharest was operating under the authority of the Church of Resurrection and under the protection of the Patriarchs of Jerusalem. In 1792 the Academy moved from the monastery of Saint Sava to the cellars of the Holy Monastery of Doamna Bălaşa and in 1803 to the cellars of the Holy Monastery of Măgureanu. In the 18th century the Academy of Bucharest was the place where philosophy and the science of Enlightenment appeared. Furthermore, rich Romanian literature began through the translation from Greek and gradually use of the Romanian language increased. In 1821 the Greek Academy in Bucharest stopped operating but that event alone did not stop Greek language tuition in Romanian territory.

In the same period as the Academy, in 1687 in Bucharest, it seems that the School of

Readings (Școala de Slovenie) was reorganized, where Greek teachers came to teach. In 1724, close to the Monastery Văcărești, there was another Greek school. According to statistics of 1840, of the 117 private schools in Romanian territory, 28 were Greek (especially in Braila). In the period 1830 - 1839, in Bucharest there were 11 Greek schools.

The school of Thomas Paschidis in Bucharest is the first for which we have valid information. According to the school curriculum of Geneva, this school taught Greek, Romanian, French and German. At the same time a boys' only school operated in Bucharest with the efforts of the consul Cleovulus Ragavis and funding by the Greek community. At this school the priest Fabolis worked and had two teachers. Children learnt Greek, French, Romanian, History, Geography, History of Religion and calligraphy. According to existing evidence, in the first semester of the 1875-1876 academic year there were 16 pupils while in the second semester there were 35. Today's Greek school in Bucharest was founded in 1902. At that time the school functioned as a mixed primary school with its own curriculum. The Girls' Greek School is mentioned for the first time in 1911. In the 1922-1923 academic school year, all subjects were taught in Greek, except for History, Romanian Geography and natural sciences.

Iași

In the city of Iasi, the first public school is owed to the Greek ruler Gregory Ghica the 3rd. However, an important figure of Greek language tuition in Iasi was the Romanian ruler Vasile Lupu who mandated monks to teach the Greek language to the children of the Romanians from the early 17th century. Later on many Slavic schools became Greek.

The superior Greek schools acquired in that era had an Orthodox and Balkan character. There were not only Greeks studying there, but also Vlachs, Romanians, Bulgarians, Serbs, Albanians, and even Turks. The famous Greek Hegemonic School in Iasi was founded in 1709 and organized in 1710 by Nicholas Mavrokordatos, the first ruler of Moldova. He founded a Greek printing shop in the Monastery of Saint Savvas and a large library where many volumes and manuscripts existed. From 1774 the school became a department of literature, theology, mathematics and natural sciences. In

Iași, the Greek Mechanics School was functioning at the same time.

Sibiu

The Greek school of Sibiu began its function in 1766. Among the initially taught subjects were Greek and the Holy Scripture. A requirement of the school curriculum was teaching prayers in the Greek language and the obligation of the faculty to participate in religious ceremonies with the student body. The many different ethnic backgrounds of the students proved the fact that the school must have been quite known in that time (Istanbul, Izmir, Stageira, Meteora, Mount Athos). At this school there were educators who were students of the University of Vienna, University of Leipzig and University of Hague etc.

Galați

In 1765, in Galați, the basis of a school was established for the first time, where the lessons were taught in the Greek language (at the Monastery Mavromolos). 100 years later, there were more Greek private schools established, such as the Lyceum "Venieris" (1857), the Greek Institute Tetzis and the Greek Institute Mitropoulos. In 1859, the Greek Commercial Institute was founded while in 1921, the Greek community built a two-storey building in the court of the Church, where Greek language tuition was set up. The Greek community built many buildings to house the Greek Association and the theatre "Kentrikon".

Bârlad

In the area of Bârlad, the Greek language seems to have been taught between 1803-1860 in the cellars close to the Church of Assumption of the Virgin Mary. It was a church school where future teachers, chanters and possible priests would graduate from.

Pitești

The Greek language tuition in Pitești was cultivated by Greek teachers, within the Orthodox churches of Saint George, of the Virgin Mary (Maica Precista), of Mavrodolu and of the Saint Hermitage Buliga. These eight private schools functioned after 1820. The operation of these schools resulted in the spread of Greek culture and the beneficial influence onto the Romanian language especially after 1833 when the National School was founded. The last Greek school of the town functioned in the houses of

the Greek entrepreneur Mavrodolu and became famous due to the work of the Greek professor Nikolaos Simeonidis, prefect of Argeş in the year 1848. The school of Nikolaos Mytilineos from the island of Mytilene is worth mentioning with 26 years of tuition by 1820, and the school of Ioannis Argyris, after 1846. An important contribution to the education of the Greek language was made by Ilarion Georgiadis, the revolutionary Episcopo of 1821, who in 1836 founded the Theological Seminary, an educational institution that was upgraded to a Theology School.

According to the statistics of 1840, 2 of the 28 Greek schools were in the province of Prahova. In the second half of the 19th century a large wave of immigrants to Romania occurred. These Greeks were among those who founded a Girls School in 1866 in Brăila in which Greek was the compulsory language. Older accounts of Greek merchants date back to the 14th century and the existence of a Greek school at an even earlier time are considered definite.

Brăila

In the late 1860s in Brăila, two schools were opened, one for boys and one for girls for underprivileged Greek children. Until the beginning of the 20th century, in Brăila many more Greek private schools were founded, both for boys and girls. Some of these were known for their high standards. With the passing of time these schools became public as in the case of "Proodos" and the school of Georgios Chrisohoidis. Greek schools faced problems, as did the Greek community in 1905, when due to the crisis in the Greek - Romanian relations the government changed its attitude and proceeded to closing all Greek schools in the town. In 1910, one of the schools reopened and on the eve of the First World War the Girls' School was created.

Giurgiu

In the town of Giurgiu in 1829-1876, Daniel, the first Greek of the city, gave private lessons to the children of Greek families. In 1843 two Greek schools functioned in the city. The first was headed by Professor Stavridis and was open until 1846 while the second one was headed by Professor Spirea and operated until the revolution in 1848. Both schools had between 30-40 pupils. In 1860, after the approval of the Ministry of Education, the Greek Community of

Giurgiu founded another school that functioned until 1877, when it closed due to the war of independence. In Craiova the first reference regarding the existence and functioning of a Greek school is dated in 1838, with the costs being paid by the members of the Greek community.

In 1847, Constantine Vilaras, son of former minister and prefect, applied for a permit to build a school in Giurgiu under the supervision of Constantine Kokkinos. The school had 50-60 pupils who were taught Greek, Romanian and French following the curriculum of most schools. Lessons were not interrupted in 1848 but in 1853 due to foreign occupancy and as a result the school shut down.

In 1860, upon approval by the Ministry of Education, the Greek community of Giurgiu established a school headed by Stefano Solomonidis which operated until the War of Independence in 1877. The school reopened in 1879 headed by Nikolaos Papakostea, but in 1882 Stefanos Solomonidis resumed the position of administrator. The school had 50-60 students and the languages taught were Greek, Romanian and French. In 1868 a Girls school operated under the supervision of Moscuna Dunca, a Greek woman from Constantinople. The school had 42 pupils and were taught Greek, Romanian, French, German and also the piano. The school remained open until 1876.

Constanța

A Greek school had been established, probably for boys and under the supervision of the Community, in the early 1860s in Constanta. Between 1864-1867, the Greek community founded a Greek school in a building erected by its members. At the same time other private schools were also operating.

Community education met significant development after the integration of the town in Romania. The schools reopened in 1879 and were reorganized between 1881-1885 by Antonio Oikonomou. During the war years in 1877-1878 the schools were closed. In 1879 the number of pupils was 100.

The construction of a two-storey building was completed at the end of the 19th century and functioned as a Girls school starting in 1887. In 1890 a reading club was formed (Cabinet de lectura).

Due to the annulment of Greek - Romanian

diplomatic relations, in the period of 1905-1908 the schools were closed. The same thing also happened in the period of 1916-1918, during the German-Bulgarian occupation. In the period of 1924-1926, two classes of the School of Commerce functioned, while in the period 1934-1935, a classic secondary school recognized by the Greek government was functioning, with teachers from Athens and Istanbul. Children of underprivileged Greek families attended for free. In Constanta in 1940 a nursery, primary and secondary school were still operating.

Calafat

Beginning its function in 1879, a Greek primary school functioned in the courtyard of the Greek church of the city of Calafat. As we are informed from the Statute of the Greek School of Calafat in 1899, not only many Greek children but also children of other nationalities attended. The school closed after the Second World War.

Sulina

Despite not being financially well-equipped, the Greek Community of Sulina founded different schools and associations, almost always in cooperation with the Greek Philology Association of Istanbul. These schools often requested support by the Greek state to ensure proper education. There was a boys' school and a girls' school although at times they were mixed.

Tulcea

In Tulcea, both the school for boys and the school for girls has been operating since last century. After 1945, all Greek schools in Romania gradually ceased functioning. But after the change of the political regime in Romania in 1989, an important change took place as far as the promotion and development of Greek language tuition is concerned. The use of the Greek language today is encouraged in Romania for political and financial reasons. After the change of political regime in 1989, a significant change in the promotion and development in teaching Greek is noticed. This change is closely linked with the free movement of people, the short geographical distance between the two countries, common religion and the new found interest in Greek values.

4. Governing bodies of Greek language education in the present

The most important measures to support Greek language tuition in Romania were applied in public education. However, the Greek language is taught only in a private nursery, which belongs to the Greek Embassy in Bucharest for toddlers of Greek origin who live with their parents in Romania. Also in Bucharest, the Greek Union of Romania supports an ongoing program of teaching and preparation in the Greek language for children, two to three times a week, who may or may not be of Greek descent.

In the public education system in Romania, classes of students who chose to study the Greek language as a mother tongue were encouraged by members of the staff. In the 1999 - 2000 academic year, a formal framework was introduced for establishing classes of students where the Greek language is the mother tongue. Specifically, which are the authorities that are mentioned and which are the forms of Greek language tuition they offer in Romania? Nowadays, in Romania, Greek language tuition is provided at the Bulgarian Theoretical Lyceum "Hristo Botev" in Bucharest, at the Greek School "Athena" that belongs to the Greek entrepreneurs from Romania, at the 25 local branches of the Hellenic Union of Romania, at the Greek Cultural Center, the branch of Bucharest and at the department of Greek studies at the University of Bucharest and Iasi.

- a. The Bulgarian Theoretical Lyceum "Hristo Botev" was founded as a state educational institution following a treaty between Romania and Bulgaria. Bulgarian is the first language of the school and according to the treaty signed by The Greek Union of Romania and the school in 2005, Greek language tuition is a compulsory course throughout secondary school.
- b. The Greek School "Athena" was established under the Protocol of Cooperation signed between the Ministries of Education of both countries in 2008. The school curriculum is based on the curriculum of the Ministry of Education of Greece and implemented in accordance with the instructions of Greece. Teachers are detached from Greece. In its first year there were three

classes at the primary level. As of the 2009-2010 academic year, the institution accepts pupils of Romanian origin. After many years, this is the first educational institution supported by the Greek state.

- c. Greek language courses are also offered at 25 local branches of the Hellenic Union in Romania. Apart from students of Greek origin, these courses are offered for free and people of different ethnic background, regardless of their level of education, professional training or age can attend. In cities where there are Theology Schools, one can observe the strong interest of the students of these schools in participating in these courses, most of them being priests or monks.
- d. The Greek Cultural Center, the branch of Bucharest, aims to promote Greek culture and the Greek language. This Center offers Greek language courses, organizes cultural events, publishes books and has a library that is open to the public.
- e. The University of Bucharest, particularly at the Department of Modern Greek Studies, academic training is offered in Greek by teachers with the rank of Assistant Professor, while at The University of Iași there are lectures of the Greek Language and Culture, under the supervision of a Greek seconded educator.

5. Discussion

As an additional activity for learning the Greek language, since 2003 the Hellenic Union of Romania has been organizing an annual school competition entitled "The Greek Language Olympiad", subtitled "Learning the language of our parents and grandparents". It is organized in a different city each time where there is a Greek community and there are children of Greek descent or Greek language students who become distinguished throughout the competition. As of the 2010-2011 academic year, the Greek Language Olympiad has been incorporated in the official program of activities of the Ministry of Education of Romania, which co-finance the competition and oversees the conduct of the process with the help of school

advisers.

In conclusion, in the future due to the restrictive policy of the Greek state in matters of human resources and material resources, Greek language tuition in Romania must exclusively rely on local teachers, and it is essential that they be supported by the metropolitan center. Educational knowledge should be provided through short training seminars and by the most updated pedagogy and educational materials. Their integration into learning communities and trying to support them through electronic means would represent a solution.

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GREEK LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN ROMANIA CHARACTERISTICS OF THE GREEK STUDENTS AND TEACHING STAFF

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Abstract

The present paper utilizes the results of the research program "Greek Language Primary and Secondary Intercultural Education in the Diaspora" that was co-financed by the European Union and the Ministry of Education and Culture within the program NSRF for the period 2011 – 2013. The authority that applies to the program was the Department of Intercultural and Migration Studies (hereinafter E.DIA.M.ME.) within the Pedagogic Department of Public Education, University of Crete. The study was conducted by Kostas D. Dinas, Professor of the Department of Preschool Education at the University of Western Macedonia, Ciprian N. Suciu, lecturer at the Department of Balkan Studies at the University of Western Macedonia, Anna P. Hatzipanagiotidi, Assistant Professor in the Department of Primary Education of the Frederick University of Cyprus and Georgios Christidis, Assistant Professor at the Department of Balkan Studies of the University of Western Macedonia. At present the E.DIA.M.ME. has completed its project entitled "Children of Greek Descent" has developed the methodology and structure of e-learning.

Keywords: *Diaspora, Romania, Greek language, Greek communities*

1. Introduction

Since ancient times, Romania has been one the privileged areas of Hellenism. Along with Latin, the Greek language was considered one of the two "linguas francas" and was implemented in the area due to the special bond that existed between these two countries.

Today, on the territory of Romania, there are 25 local branches of the Union of Greeks in Romania (Babadag, Bârlad, Botoșani, Brașov, Brăila, București, Calafat, Cluj-Napoca, Constanța, Craiova, Galați, Giurgiu, Iași, Izvoarele, Onești, Oradea, Piatra-Neamț, Pitești, Prahova, Roman, Sibiu, Sulina, Târgoviște, Tulcea, Turnu Severin etc.). Their geographical distribution includes population clusterings of the Greeks in the region of the Danube and the Black Sea regions.

According to the census of 2002, of the 6,472 people who declared themselves of Greek origin, 4004 persons, or 61.87%, said that Greek was their mother tongue. According to the same

census, 166 people of different ethnic backgrounds who considered Greek as their mother tongue were also added. The results of the census recorded speakers of the Greek language living in almost all of the 42 provinces of the country. Only 6 provinces did not record any speakers of the Greek language. A separate example are the Greeks of the Tăița valley, who have been there since the 19th century in the village of Izvoarele in Tulcea county, where the Greek language has not been altered and is spoken as it is in the villages in northeastern Greece.

Although the number of Greek speakers in Romania decreased dramatically after the Second World War, it did not lead to a decline in the importance of the language itself. Up until the postwar era, the Greek language was a compulsory subject in public schools. It was also taught in private schools as it was considered a *sine qua non* educational element for the Romanian elite.

The use of the Greek language today is encouraged in Romania for political and financial reasons. After the change of political regime in 1989, a significant change in the promotion and development in teaching Greek is noticed. This change is closely linked with the free movement of people, the short geographical distance between the two countries, common religion and the new showed interest in Greek values.

2. Purpose and objectives of the study

The study mainly aims:

- a. To map Greek language education in Romania and Bulgaria emphasizing the present situation within Greek language education, the problems it is facing and the perspectives that arise - especially after 1989-90, in order for language teaching to be supported (also electronically),
- b. To identify the means and the forms of cooperation with authorities involved in teaching the Greek language (presidents of Greek communities, Greek school directors, Greek language learners, detached teachers on behalf of the Ministry of Education from Greece, other authorities), in the direction of encouraging and promoting the study of

the Greek language, and

- c. To present specific proposals in order to adopt measures and generally political measures, that could help learning the Greek language in Romania and Bulgaria in the present.

2.1. Greek language education in Romania

One of the main goals of the Greeks after reestablishing the Union was the reinstatement of the Greek language in interactions amongst the members, and generally, the increase in the interest of learning the Greek language. With the initiative of the Greek members of the faculty; classes enabling students to opt for learning the Greek language as a native language were established in the public educational system of Romania. This system was formally introduced in the 1999-2000 academic school year. Greek language tuition in Romania is free, without limitations and encouraged for cultural and political reasons.

In all local Union offices, the Greek language is spoken without limitations and without obstacles relating to the managerial structure of the country. There are no communities where the Greek language is spoken by more than 20% of the population and therefore the language is not used in public administration, the judicial system or public services. There are, however, instances in which there is use of the language, and there is an increasing tendency to do so (for example in mixed Greek-Romanian companies, in social programmes that are implemented by the Greek government for the areas of the Diaspora, in universities where there are Greek students, etc.).

In all the local branches of the Union, Greek is spoken and taught without restrictions. Greek language education in Romania is offered at the:

- a. Bulgarian Theoretical Lyceum "Hristo Botev" in Bucharest,
- b. "Athena" Greek School of the Greek entrepreneurs in Romania,
- c. local offices of the Union of Greeks in Romania (22 out of the total of 25 Greek Communities),
- d. Greek Cultural Center, the branch in Bucharest,
- e. departments of Greek studies at the University of Bucharest and Iasi.

2.2. Characteristics of the Greek students and teaching staff

But who and what are the main characteristics of the Greek students and teaching staff themselves? In the study entitled "Greek Language Primary and Secondary Intercultural Education in the Diaspora" conducted by the Department of Intercultural and Migration Studies (hereinafter E.DIA.M.ME.) within the Department of Public Education at the University of Crete, in which we participated along with other members of the University of Western Macedonia and found that Greek language courses are oriented towards two categories of students:

- a. Children who have both parents of Greek origin or belong to mixed families. In most cases, however, the Greek origin of parents is of third or fourth generation born in Romania, who speak rudimentary Greek or have no knowledge of the language. All children of Romanian descent of any age or grade have access to Greek language courses. Increased attendance by Romanian children has been noticed in these courses. Most of these children do not know the language from home even if they come from families where both parents are of Greek descent. Nowadays, due to the prevailing economic situation many families were forced to move back to Romania resulting in many children attending Greek language classes who had previously studied in primary and secondary educational institutions in Greece.
- b. Children of Greek entrepreneurs and Greek diplomatic officials, who are temporarily in Bucharest, and also children whose father or mother are of Greek origin, meaning the place of birth and education being in Greece as in the case of the students of the Greek school "Athena".
- c. Many members of the Romanian clergy and monks show remarkable interest in learning Greek and attending local Greek schools. There has been an increasing interest in studying at the educational institutions in local Greek communities by students in the many schools of

Theology to learn or improve their Greek language skills.

2.3. Questionnaire results

The statistical analysis of the questionnaires, conducted by EDIAMME, revealed the following results about the students:

- a. Gender: 47.9% are boys and 52.1% girls,
- b. Age: 23.5% - children aged 14 years, 21.6% aged 11 years, 17.6% aged 10 to 12 years,
- c. Place of birth: 92.0% - children born in Romania and only 8% in Greece,
- d. Years of residence in Greece: 86.3% did not live in Greece,
- e. Of the rest of the students, 42.9% said that they had lived in Greece for 3 to 4 years, and 28.6% for a year,
- f. Parents of Greek origin: the majority of them, 64.0%, said that their parents are not of Greek origin and only 16% said that one of their parents is of Greek origin,
- g. Grandparents who speak Greek: 48.9% of the students did not and 51.1% did,
- h. Level of knowledge of the Greek language in the family: 74% of the students' fathers had no knowledge and 65.3% of the mothers had no knowledge of the Greek language, while 69.4% reported the same for their siblings, 49% said the spoke a little and 30.6% spoke very little. As for the parents who did speak the language very well, 14% were the fathers and 12.2% mothers. These results refer to mixed families where only one parent was born and raised in Greece and few instances where the Greek language prevailed in parents of third or fourth generation of immigrants,
- i. Level of knowledge of the language of the country of residence (Romania) their family: a percentage of 91.8% have fathers who speak Romanian "very well", while mothers manage at 94 %. Of course, these percentages are reversed when parents are of purely Greek origin, place of birth and adulthood in Greece (see parents of children living in Romania for various reasons, mostly in the last 20 years) such as the students of "Athena",
- j. Used language in various contexts: a

large percentage of the respondents answered that their family members speak at a rate of 81.3%, the language of the country of residence, Romanian. Statistics showed only 89.3% of the mothers spoke Romanian, 71.4% of the fathers, 78.4% of the siblings and 67.4% of the grandparents. Communication between learners of Greek and other parties at home came to 61.7%,

- k. Years of learning the Greek language: the largest percentage of students, 36.7%, have been studying the Greek language for about 2 years. The students who have studied Greek for about 3 years follow, with a rate of 26.5%. The percentage of children who have been learning the Greek language for longer is much smaller and probably due to the limited possibilities of improving the language level that is being offered in the Greek Language courses due to their other academic responsibilities, lack of free time and their other scholar goals mostly graduating and being admitted into an institution of higher education. In every event, it is estimated that the approximate amount of time dedicated to learning Greek is 2.9 years,
- l. Class attendance: a percentage of 20.8%, students begin to learn the Greek language during the last year of school (8th grade according to the Romanian educational system), but many are those who start in the sixth or 5th class of their basic education (18.8%). 16.7% study in the 4th grade and there is less attendance in younger ages (first to third grade of primary and secondary schools). This is due to the fact that students first learn to read and write in Romanian before learning Greek and in older students it is due to the fact that emphasis is placed on preparing for higher education,
- m. Influence by siblings: 54% said that they were not influenced while 46% were,
- n. In response to how often they speak Greek in various contexts:
 - at home "Seldom" 3.8% "Never" 9.4%.
 - at work "Seldom" 3.8% "Never"

0.0%.

- in the church: "Rarely" 0.0% "Never" 9.4%.
- in the market "Seldom" 0.0% "Never" 0.0%.
- at social events "Seldom" 3.7% "Never" 13.0%.

2.4. Results

According to the above results, it is clear that the majority of respondents did not use the Greek language in almost any social encounter aside from the Greek language courses.

As far as the conditions for eLearning in Romania is concerned, the survey data showed that:

- - 50% of Greek speaking Romanians are using new technologies while 25% have stated they use it a lot or not at all,
- -75% have a computer at home and use new software and the Internet,
- -100% stated that they have Windows software, an internet connection, downlink speed between 10.1-20.0 Mbps and an uplink speed of 3.1-6.0 Mbps.

The educators of the Greek language in Romania, provide educational services for Greek language education in the Diaspora and contribute to the quality and effectiveness of education especially in the provision of educational services. In this respect, the teaching staff does not differ significantly from those of other countries of the Greek Diaspora. In Romania teachers are of two types:

- a. The local self-taught and non-qualified,
- b. Staff seconded by Greece.

2.4.1. Local self-taught teaching staff

In the first category are the elderly who are very eager and enthusiastic, but with minimal capabilities to meet the demands of a modern educational process. Some of them have little knowledge of writing and reading in Greek and the only reason they are involved in the educational process is the desire to contribute to the expression of Hellenism, the Greek language. A second reason is the financial situation in these countries where there are usually very low salaries. It is very difficult for them to advance at a technological level or to renew the class

curriculum because of their unwillingness to learn new things due to biological or literacy issues as most of them are at an age where they do not want or cannot learn new things. Those who are educated due to their previous or current profession are in a better position to update their educational skills if they detach themselves from the notion “I can do this well, there is no reason to try something else”.

2.4.2. Teaching staff seconded by the Greek Ministry of Education

In the second are teachers seconded by the Greek Ministry of Education. Some are there out of necessity for personal reasons (eg. mixed marriage), others for economic reasons (double earnings) and some, of course, to offer Greek language education. As they face problems with the proper function of the schools they teach at (reduced school funding, decrease in salary) they feel cut off from the connection with the Greek Diaspora. Due to the fact that they see the detachment there as temporary and partly-forced, they are not willing to work with the material provided for teaching Greek as a second / foreign language and make the convenient choice of using older material previously used at the time they were teaching in Greece.

In recent years Greek language tuition in Romania has been conducted by 6 detached Greek educators from the Ministry of Education in Greece. These educators taught Greek as a native language in Romanian public schools in the cities of Bucharest, Constanta, Braila, Galati, Ploiesti and Tulcea. These detached teachers were paid exclusively by the Ministry of Education in Greece and their presence in Romania is encouraged with double earnings. Detailed reports on their detachment, detailed schedules, the manual they choose along with their place of residence are mentioned in the study in the description of communities.

2.4.3. E-learning in Romania

Regarding the conditions of e-learning in Romania, teachers reported that:

- 66.7% said they use the computer at home for preparing class materials and,
- 100.0% use it at school for the preparation and processing of supportive educational material,
- they have a computer lab, Internet

access and a video conferencing room (all the appropriate tools for e-learning) at their disposal but only 10% have interactive whiteboards,

- 100% of the students said that they prefer social networking sites such as Twitter and Facebook, image and video software, spreadsheets and other online tools and 50% say that is why they do not really use word processing or power point applications,
- Many believe that e-learning tools have facilitated Greek language learning to a great extent,
- 75% said that they have no experience in using online learning tools due to lack of training or special skills, opportunity, free time or interest, and that they do not use the Internet in learning environments of the Greek language,
- As for the belief that an interactive learning environment offers advantages, 100% believe that quick and direct access to information is offered and increases efficiency and interest of the student, however, distance education does not permit communication between the student and teacher nor is education up to date. In addition, they mentioned that there was sufficient equipment to ensure networking such as, computers, interactive systems, a connection to a wireless network, class interruptions and student concentration.
- 100% are negative to the use of interactive learning environments when referring to practice, fact finding, assessment and student self-assessment, group activities, guided teaching, text creation and problem solving. A small percentage of educators (25%) agree with the use of interactive learning environments when referring to presentation, review, games and tutoring,
- 100% use the software platform for Greek textbooks entitled “Steps towards the text”, “Adventures in the Land of the Myths”, “Stories of History”,
- 50% use the software platform for the Greek textbooks entitled “Read-Write-Sing”, “Margarita 5”, “Margarita 6”,

- 33.3% use the platform for books entitled "Margarita 1", "Margarita 2", "Margarita 3" and "Margarita 4",
- 100% rarely or never use the software platform for the textbook entitled "Alphabetland", 50% use the platforms for "Read-Write-Sing", "Writing and Speaking in Greek" and "Growing up in the Greek World" even less,
- 100 % of the educators consider the following software platforms as suitable for group use in the classroom: "Alphabetland", "Read-Write-Sing", "Growing up in the Greek World", "Steps towards the text", "Margarita 5", "Margarita 6", "Adventures in the Land of the Myths" and "Stories of History" in addition they are suited to the student's needs, offer the chance to add or adjust information by the student himself but believe they are not suitable for individual use,
- 100% believe the software for "Margarita 1", "Margarita 2", "Margarita 3" and "Margarita 4" suitable for use in the classroom and adapted to suit students' needs, however, opinions differ greatly over the suitability of the software for the course "Speaking and Writing in Greek"
- 100% claim that there is a shortage in educational materials, 66.7% claim a shortage in various issues connected to Greek language learning, 33.3% there are problems with the infrastructure of schools but do not pertain to issues involving the students, parents or faculty.

An important problem for teachers of Greek in Romania was the annulment of the office of the coordinator of education in Bucharest. The coordinator in the Ukraine has the management and coordination of many Greek schools in the area. However, it seems likely that an office in Thessaloniki will be established to assist the Balkan countries.

3. Discussion

In conclusion, in the future due to the restrictive policy of the Greek state in matters of human resources and material resources, Greek

language tuition in these countries must rely almost exclusively on local teachers, and it is essential that they be supported by the metropolitan center. Educational knowledge should be provided through short training seminars and by the most updated pedagogy and teaching materials. Their integration into learning communities and trying to support them through electronic means would represent a solution to those willing and able.

It is easily noticeable that according to the above data Greek language tuition in Romania lacks a central coordination and examination body. There is no organization to record, study or analyze the needs of those who wish to attend Greek Language courses nor to be able to arrange study plans and assess the personnel and educational material.

A special category of Greek language learners in Romania, who are a very important group, are the native Greeks in these countries who have been there since ancient times (see The Black Sea) either with the repeated movements of Greeks to that country or throughout the long history of the area up until recently. Many of these people who have no real experience in Greece, make a real effort in adverse financial and educational situations to learn or teach the Greek language as they consider this a conservation of their Hellenism. Their desire to be connected to an educational body through which they could secure a contemporary teaching curriculum or language material has been overwhelming.

Taking everything mentioned into account and considering all the educational data and the state of the Greek educational system in Romania, we believe that the Greek state should take a more active interest and advantage of the favorable conditions for the spread of Greek language education and Greek culture in the neighboring country, with which the Greeks have had close and longstanding ties. Therefore full use of acquired experience should be made along with the educational materials developed by E.DIA.M.ME. and the new possibilities offered by modern technology to assist online teaching and learning.

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IMPACT OF BEHAVIORAL PROBLEMS TO SPECIAL NEEDS PUPILS

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Abstract

The object of this study was to investigate the impact of behavioural problems on the special needs of pupils and to come up with some teaching strategies well-suited to these needs. The judgements that teachers make about the special needs of pupils are influenced by their distinctive behavior and movements, the way their attention is distracted and their inability to work in groups. The successful integration of children with learning difficulties depends less on the gravity of the learning problems and is more influenced by the behaviour of the child. If the child follows the rules of his school, he/she does not trouble the teachers and fellow-students, is keen to participate and exhibits a high level of self-management and concentration while performing his tasks. This study will focus on the most common problems found in schools: aggressive behaviour, a low level of concentration, emotional problems, etc. Such behaviour is called primary not only because of its frequency, but also because of its consequences on the learning of the student himself and that of his fellow-student. The methods and strategies that modify behaviour like: the participation of students, the concentration of attention, the management of difficult situations, the cultivation of a good opinion of oneself influence the achievements of the students and the way they use their time at school.

Keywords: *special needs, behavioural problems, attention concentration, self-assessment*

1. Introduction

The learning problem with all its dilemmas remains a crucial psycho-pedagogical, social and methodological issue with a high theoretical and practical value for the present and the future of the rising generations and of Albanian society in general. Learning is one of the basic didactic issues; as such it has received the due attention of social and pedagogical thought which in different historical periods has given various answers to its dilemmas in accordance with the respective socio-economic conditions. The rapidly developing modern society in general and the sphere of education in particular are confronted more than ever by challenges and

novelties. The biggest challenge of our schools is to educate open-minded students possessing a broad range of knowledge and a critical mind; citizens of a true European and democratic society, tolerant and altruistic.

The didactic issues of learning in primary education occupy a very important place in the solution of the many interconnected dilemmas which are faced by our education. In fact, the degree to which these issues are successfully resolved determines the success of the education process in higher levels. The achievement made in this field should not make us overlook some other problems like: inability to learn, difficulty of acquisition, secret drop-out, uncritical rote-learning, etc.

Learning how to read and write occupies a considerable place in primary education. An important object of this study is to investigate the causes and factors that impede the learning process and account for low results. A key factor is the behavioural problems that have an impact on the special needs of learning. The integration of pupils who find it difficult to learn depends very little on the gravity of the problem and a lot on the kid's behaviour. If the child follows the school rules, does not cause trouble during classes, then he concentrates on his tasks and shows self-management. Aggressive behaviour and a low level of concentration are the most common problems with which teachers are faced - problems that require solution.

Another aim of as much importance is the determination of methods, strategies and techniques for the compilation of individualized curricula helpful to this category of children. These are some of the reasons that led us to carry out such a survey, which analyzes and examines the teaching phenomenon, the premises in which it takes place, the factors that affect it and approaches & methods that must be used to provide a fruitful process and guarantee the well-functioning of school institution in the long run. Gardner's quotation extracted from his book "The Uneducated Mind" '... we nowadays assess more deeply in comparison with the previous generations how strikingly our growth is deterred by epigenetic factors as well as by institutional actions. However, awareness of such restrictions must not disappoint us. On the contrary, this raising of conscience of our inner nature may serve as a safe guide towards the

designation and implementation of a more effective social structure with regard to education." reinforces the significance of this decision-making process.

2. The aim of the study

The aim of this study was:

- To analyze the nature of learning from the point of view of various psychological theories intending to explain the individual factors that define the "history" of learning.
- To explain the role of social factors which influence upon learning so as to modestly and concretely contribute to their improvement.
- To make evident the present learning problems, the impact of behavioral problems, to analyze their causes, to assess the main strategies of resolving them.
- To determine school responsibilities in teaching children about the learning process.
- To draw measurable conclusions important to the advancement of the Albanian educational program.
- To set higher expectations in the realm of education and teaching.

For the selection and definition of the studied topic, the following issues have been taken into consideration:

- a. Learning is an acute socio-psycho-pedagogical phenomenon in the current cultural context in Albania. The availability of rich information sources in this realm. In addition theoretical and specialized resources in psychology, pedagogy and didactics, a lot of other documents and official statistics can be put into use.
- b. Data collection through questionnaires for parents, students and teachers was used.

Table 1: Information about the family situation of pupils at “Demokracia” school

		Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	The number of pupils with families that live on social assistance	47	14
2	The number of pupils whose father is unemployed	63	19
3	The number of pupils whose mother is unemployed	154	46
4	The number of pupils with one parent in emigration	28	8.4
5	The number of pupils with both parents in emigration	5	1.5
6	The number of pupils from a Roma/Gypsy family	97/4	28/1.2
7	The number of pupils with one parent alive	4	1.2
8	The number of orphan pupils	-	-
9	The number of pupils with divorced parents	24	7.2
10	The number of pupils whose mother/father has a university degree	32	9.6
11	The number of pupils whose parents have a university degree	22	6.7
12	The number of pupils whose mother/father has a high school certificate	80	24
13	The number of pupils whose parents have a high school certificate	72	21.6
14	The number of pupils whose mother/father has finished secondary education	60	18
15	The number of pupils whose parents have finished secondary education	72	22
16	The number of pupils with parents with physical disabilities	4	1.2
17	The number of pupils with families that live on social assistance	47	14
18	The number of pupils whose father is unemployed	63	19
19	The number of pupils whose mother is unemployed	154	46
20	The number of pupils with one parent in emigration	28	8.4
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23	The number of pupils with one parent alive	4	1.2
24	The number of orphan pupils	-	-
25	The number of pupils with divorced parents	24	7.2
26	The number of pupils whose mother/father has a university degree	32	9.6
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28	The number of pupils whose mother/father has a high school certificate	80	24
29	The number of pupils whose parents have a high school certificate	72	21.6
30	The number of pupils whose mother/father has finished secondary education	60	18
31	The number of pupils whose parents have finished secondary education	72	22
32	The number of pupils with parents with physical disabilities	4	1.2

In order to achieve the abovementioned aims, a study has been carried out in the "Demokracia" primary school of Korca. Having a unique character, this school consists of 17 elementary classes and 337 pupils; moreover, it is located in the suburbs, and, thus, characterized by significant socio-economical and cultural diversity, as the following Table 1.

The study was carried out among 150 subjects in this school, including 17 teachers, 60 pupils with learning difficulties, their parents and the social workers. In order to collect the above data, questionnaires were delivered and the selected participants were asked to complete them individually.

3. Identification of the learning difficulties and issues of the special needs for the primary school pupils

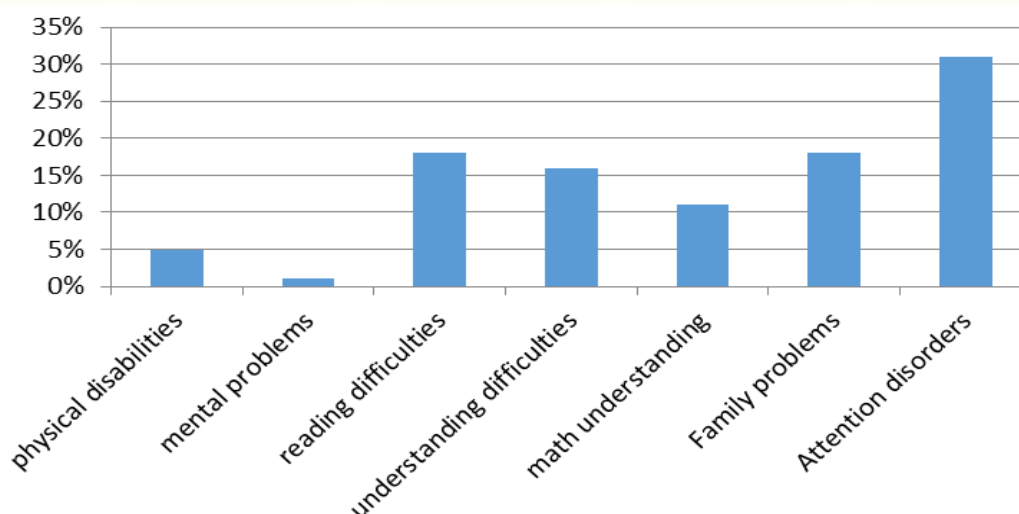
Psychological theories of the cognitive, social and moral development try to explain a number of proper age characteristics which influence the learning processes of the young pupils. These general traits of age development constitute the ground principles over which the curricula, the teaching programs and the textbooks are compiled. They do also define the objectives and the teaching methodologies that enhance successful learning. Furthermore, it is not possible to deny the relevance of the fact that learning is an individual process that is defined by the individual qualities, needs, aptitudes, talents, wishes, self-assessment, self-motivation, character and personality. Because of these individual features, the pupils reflect behavior problems like the lack of attention, inability to work in groups, lack of concentration, inappropriate planning attitudes, difficulties in understanding the learning tasks; as well as emotional problems, like fear from failing, low self-assessment, anxiety, need for support and encouragement, communication problems, etc.

Most of the teachers consider the term "special needs" a specifying term for retarded pupils with disabilities. Behavior difficulties have been excluded from the special needs. However, there exists a mutual influencing intercourse between the learning special needs and the behavior ones.

The aggressive behavior and the lack of

concentration head the list of common problems among pupils at school. They require immediate solutions not just because of their frequent occurrence, but because of their negative influence on the learning process of the pupil who manifests them and that of his classmates. Pupils who behave aggressively tend not to collaborate, they reflect signs of anxiety and denial; they are hyperactive and inattentive; tend to contradict the teachers and have a hostile attitude toward the others.

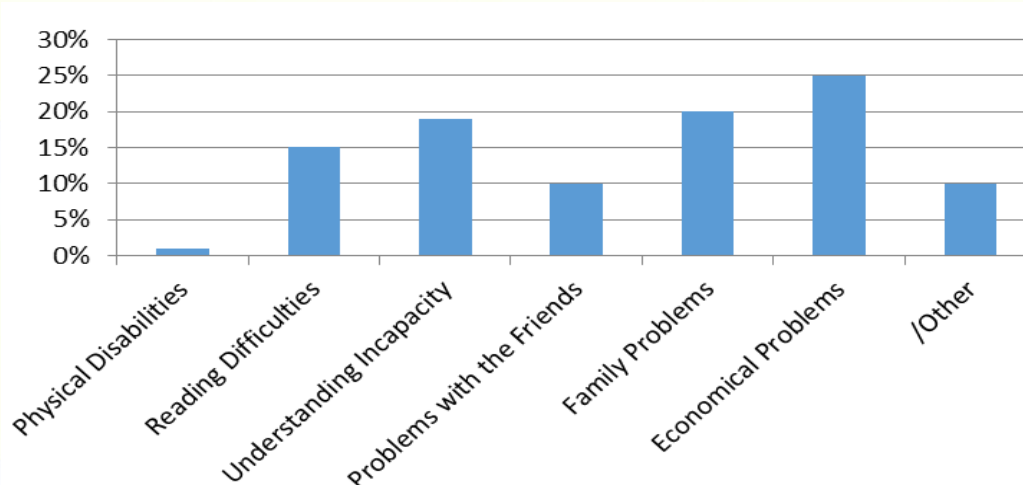
The successful learning depends on the time pupils need to complete a task without losing their concentration. For pupils with learning difficulties the intercourse between concentration and progress is critical. As the survey among the school teachers revealed, the lack of concentration headed the lists of the drawbacks for the learning needs with more than 31%. These pupils spend less time learning than their classmates. The work with them should be organized on appropriate lesson plans designed to fit their individual needs and their learning difficulties.

Graphic 1: Percentages for the reasons that brought about special learning needs.

Source: Surveys carried out with the teachers of "Demokracia" school

In this respect, teachers should primarily recognize the source of the lack of concentration, by trying to understand the inner problems like understanding or memorizing problems, speaking, listening or reading difficulties, sight problems, cognitive or communication drawbacks, etc. As revealed by

the graphics 1 and 2 16% of the teachers and 19% of the parents think that the inability their pupils of children have in understanding concepts is the main source of the learning difficulties in reading (18%) and maths (11%) (graphic 1).

Graphic 2. Reasons that brought about special learning needs according to the parents' point of view

Source: The questionnaire was undertaken with the children of "Demokracia" school

The second step is closely connected to other factors identified within the family, school and peer group which share the same learning difficulties. The family takes a wide position in the scientific research concerning school held in the developed countries. This scientific research

has shown in most of the cases that there is a little influence pressed by the school onto the child who has gained an independency as a result of his origin and social context. Consequently, the inequalities result to the children from their families, neighbors and the

environment and they are conveyed for a long time becoming, therefore, inequalities carried on and confronted when they are grown up after finishing the school.

The study of the family factor held by various sociologists and educational specialists has brought to light a considerable number of other factors among which we can mention:

- the economical level
- the number of the children within a family
- or the relationships between parents (which we would consider as the most important one)

The collected data from school statistics (Table 1) display the fact that the above mentioned ingredients result into the most important potential reasons for the learning difficulties and precisely for the incapacity to understand and follow attentively the learning process. Therefore, 217 pupils (65%) are children with one unemployed parent, 30 children (9%) have one or both parents in emigration.

Family Socio-cultural Level

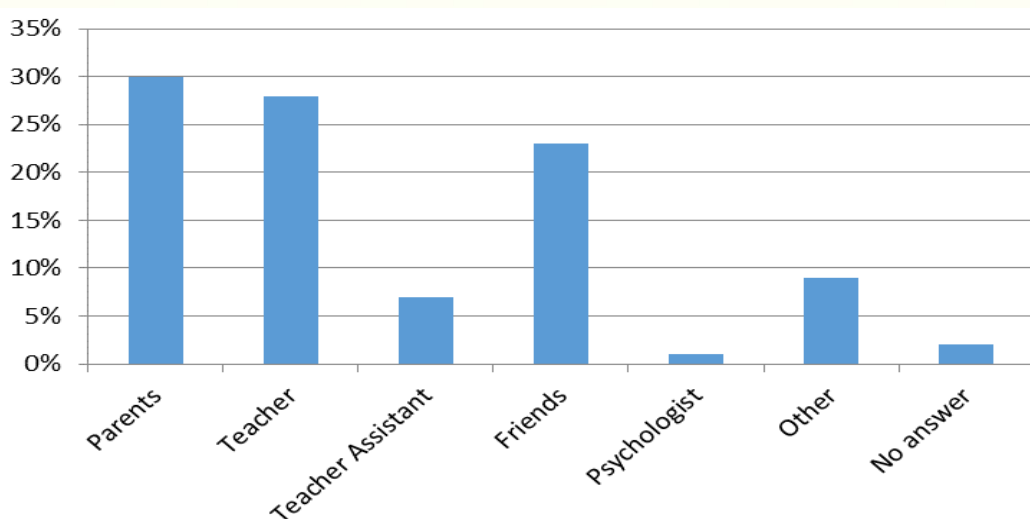
The bulk of knowledge and cultural skills inherited by the family are two issues that influence the school success. Let us underline

here only the fact that cultural parental heritage are displayed ever since a young age. Bernstein, therefore, in England has conducted various studies which brought him to the conclusion that,

“.... from the moment the language has shown itself to the child, its structure is clearly defined by the family environment....” (B. Bernstein, *Social Class and Linguistic Development*, Hasley, 1961, pp. 196, 293)

Other similar studies illustrate that children brought up outside their families manifest a deficiency in the linguistic level (lexical and syntactical) as well as in the usage of abstractions. The arrangement of the linguistic skills depends on the class stratum and social, racial and cultural origin. As it is shown by the data collected in Table 1, 101 children (29.2%) are Romas and gypsies whose parents display a low or no educational or employment background. Moreover, 24 children (7.2%) have their parents divorced. Possibly, the linguistic culture of these families is rather low and it is not appropriate to the school scientific culture. In this respect, these children show difficulty in understanding the school teaching material.

Graphic. 3 The children need the help of



The children interviewed emphasize the fact that they need the adults (their parents and teachers) and other mates to improve their results at school. Most of these children who do not easily understand their assignments and have problems in speaking and writing come

from parents with a low level education. They work long hours and do not spend too much time with their children. About 30% of these children require the attention and help of their parents. 28% also need the help and special care of the teachers. The later, feel very tired,

unmotivated and do not have enough time to dedicate to their pupils because of the features of this school and the special needs of the pupils.

The social-cultural differences of these children impact on their communication and interaction, which is not good enough. These reasons explain the need they have for each other (23% of them state this). This fact is also confirmed by the parents and teachers interviewed. The children who have problems making friends or having difficulty in behavior and learning have a very low positive opinion of themselves. This is defined as a distinction between the way how these children want to be and the way how s/he recognizes himself. If this gap is great, the child does not feel well for himself, s/he is afraid of failure.

The duty of the school is to change these perceptions that the pupils have for themselves by motivating them while teaching. At the same time they have to observe them positively and encourage them to participate in different special activities where they can feel more capable. In this way, the teachers can manage their pupils' difficulties and skills.

As we have been emphasizing through all our case study, to be different does not mean you are not normal. Accepting these individual differences does not mean accepting that the teachers cannot do anything to change the stressful behavior. On the contrary, it means you have to work hard to modify them. It would be very unfair to consider these children as incapable of learning only because they need different ways of teaching.

For the above reasons, in a very modest way we recommend:

RECOMMENDATION

- Each teacher should know well the personalities of the pupils to whom he talks, explains things and communicates.
- Each teacher should be well informed about other familiar, social and environmental factors.
- Each teacher should take into consideration the features of his pupils' development.

TEACHERS AND PARENTS

- They should collaborate with the school psychologist or other specialized centers which test whether the child has problems with understanding or/and

learning, lack of attention and hyperactivity.

- They should also recognize that each child even those who have problems with learning have the right to follow a qualitative education. They need special attention and well-organized specialized work

TEACHERS

- Should insist on involving all their pupils in teaching and trying to make them participate and not hide.
- Should motivate their pupils, find different of working with them to initiate their desire to get involved actively during the lessons.
- Should compile in collaboration with parents some plan of working with pupils having problems in understanding or/and learning.
- Should encourage the interest, initiative and motivation in different academic activities. They should also have the same level of performance based on their intellectual abilities.

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IMPORTANCE OF THE TEACHING METHODS AND PROCEDURES IN THE MUSIC EDUCATION IN PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHING

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Abstract

Didactic- methodic determination of teaching music education refers of the way to realize this kind of teaching in terms of curriculum, planning instruction, teaching staff, teaching resources and aids, forms of educational work, and certainly one of the important segments represent the application of appropriate methods and procedures as well. The methodic as a didactic discipline examines the legalities of teaching any subject, and also the subject musical education. There are several types of instructional methods and procedures and their grouping is studied by a number of didactics, over their classification. Respecting all of the classification analogies can be seen that the choice of classification depends on the multiplicity of integrals nor the current players and segments of teaching and learning communication. Taking into account the specifics of teaching music education, such as the contents of any particular areas of activities (singing, listening to music, playing CMI, music games, music and movement, children's musical expression and creation), the differences in the methods of their realization, proactive stakeholder learning through practical activities of students (the only possible), the most adequate for this kind of education is a classification of teaching methods, which sets number of didactics based on patterns of student activity.

Keywords: *education, didactic- methodical placement, implementation, quality, creativity, observation*

1. Introduction

Since a large number of semantic-conceptual definitions of the concept of teaching methods can be seen that they are meaningful and systematic ways of realization in the process of instruction when teaching students acquire new knowledge, skills and habits and develop their abilities, interests and motives. They can be defined as "scientific confirmed ways and actions of the teacher and students in the teaching process, whose goal is to ensure optimum effect in the acquisition of knowledge and development of the overall personality of the student" (Kojov - Bukvich, 1989:103).

With respect to the specifics of the musical

education, which should be implemented by classes, tutorials, audio-video and computer records, implementation of assigned tasks students and corrective work, the methods found in the music pedagogical literature applied in the implementation of the teaching of music education can be grouped into several basic groups, which include several specific methods: *methods based on observation; methods based on words; methods work with books; methods based on practical activities for pupils.*

2. Method based on observation

Basic characteristic observation methods based on the adoption of knowledge, skills, habits and attitudes through sensory cognition. The observations are gaining knowledge of the properties of objects, processes and phenomena available senses. Observation in teaching is accomplished in two basic types: *demonstration* and *illustration*. Didactic literature there is no unity of views at the time with the question whether it is two separate method, demonstration and illustration, or two sides of a single method - illustration.

2.1. Demonstration

Is a teaching method using performed showing that obviously display the events, phenomena, processes, representing instructional content, and whose purpose is the acquisition of specific knowledge, skills and habits. It actually; "represents a complex of different didactic activities of the teacher, whose choice depends on the curriculum to be implemented." (Vilotijević, M. 2000:261). In observing what demonstrate engaged all the senses, which are appropriate to the subject of the observation, the process of perception. In the perceptual process includes the opinion, though specifically perceptual level.

Within this teaching method in music education vary several procedures: *demonstration by rhythmic children's musical instruments; demonstration with melodic singing CMI; demonstration by rhythmic and expressive movements; demonstration using software programs.*

This method can be applied in the process of learning properly and voiced singing songs accurately perform rhythm (with simple

melodies) CMI performing given musical games, listening music movements. The teacher is obliged to show students how the performance of certain operations, they need to learn (such as playing a given rhythm using rhythmic CMI, singing a tune, performing certain movements of a given music etc. The application of this method includes all kinds of live musical performance, or mechanical performance (playback) using the provided teaching aids.

2.2. Illustration

Is a teaching method in which "demonstration serves as an illustration of the contents present with other teaching methods." (Gogoska, L. 1995:87). Learning by students depends on the transmission of sensory information from the brain. Some students tend to use any of the senses more than others. Thus, while "some people learn primarily listening, others learn by reading or looking at pictures, touch the third time. Illustration uses all types of media, different specific tasks, symbols, charts, graphs, diagrams, cards, patterns, dynamic drawings, copied materials, posters that allow students to see and hear what he tells the teacher." (Shapiro, S. 1997:5). Many instructional situations are applied. When you need to show some important features of an object or phenomena, whenever possible, a CD, or audio-visual materials should support the ideas presented by the teacher. Thus possible clarity of the information presented, their multiple and lasting remembering coding.

Illustration can be: *rhythmic music illustration with music instruments the melodic musical illustration with music instruments, CMI, singing; graphic illustrations with photos, drawings, applications, posters, graphic signs village o symbols, geometric drawings, W EMI and others.; Illustration with rhythmic and melodic cards; illustration with the help of audio-video recordings; illustration with the help of software programs.*

2.3. Active listening of music works

Is special methodical procedure, based on observation, applicable in the implementation of the thematic area of the curriculum in music education, "listening to music". It differs from the other two in that it is not done illustration content, presented with the help of other

teaching methods, nor aimed at acquiring specific knowledge, skills, and habits by showing the events, processes that constitute instructional content. During the same is done presenting themselves phenomena and processes, representing instructional content, but apply already acquired knowledge and skills from other thematic areas of the curriculum (basic music literacy, playing CMI) for the analytical separation of individual features of the presented phenomenon, teaching content (music creation), such as: its character, tempo, dynamics, tune etc. Such active surveillance allows the development of certain skills in students, in the highest degree the intellectual.

3. Methods based on words

This group of methods is of great importance for development of cognitive abilities among students, because words provide insight without direct contact with the object of knowledge. Sufficient basis only sensory presented it. But the choice of contents will be interpreted with the help of verbal methods should be taken into account: the level of intellectual development of students; their prior knowledge, verbal abilities. Verbal methods use various teaching aids and procedures. For example, are used to describe images, drawings, illustrations, instruments, movements; explains the music they listen to; certain graphic symbols; applied to the analysis of certain works; final made the processes of discrimination, comparison, analysis, generalizing. Within this group of methods includes monologue and dialogical method, each with several variants:

3.1. Monoloshki method

This method is known as a method of oral exposure. It is dominated by the exposure of teaching material by the teacher. He is realized through the following versions:

- **Describing.** Depicting such variant monologue method by means of which, during the teaching hour, through the process of teaching, students are introduced to certain events, processes, personalities. The same is accompanied by drawings, paintings and other visual aids. Provides objective, accurate and concentrated down things without

subjective judgments. Students of a younger age it is vividly alive and focused on awakening emotions. When describing choose what is important and characteristic of objects and phenomena in order to get a clear picture of what is being described. Commonly combined with the methods of observation, discussion, graphical presentation and demonstration.

- **Telling (Storytelling).** Narration often finds application in the lower grades and shorter compared to the webcast. Represents a kind of description with more words. Used for learning the specific facts, occurrences, events, processes. Dominant emotional component, although sometimes there are informative. Mostly used in the lower grades, according to the specifics of thinking and emotional development of students. Because connection of specific post with emotional and willing component students, telling stimulates the interest of students. Because the connection of specific post with emotional and willing component of the personality of the students, the story encourages students' interest in learning. Can be re added and combined with other instructional methods and procedures, and most with the demonstration, explanation, discussion, chat and play - method.
- **Lecture.** Lecture is structured and organized presentation of information about a problem by the teacher. It is a quick way of conveying information. basically is interpretation (explanation), but it has elements of description and narration. First performed describing phenomena process, events, and their interdependence of causal relations - causal, then performed systematization and generalization of knowledge, which otherwise from other sources can not learn more. In music education can be used in the process of learning a new song; listening to new music creation (introduction to the expressive elements of music, the composer's characteristic moments of life of a given musical work);

playing CMI (components given music instruments their function and method of administration); performing movement with musical accompaniment (familiarization with the manner of performing the given movements, their meaning and labeling and their connection with musical accompaniment) and others. With the help of this method the teacher should create an appropriate atmosphere for learning new songs, listening to music, performing movements given music playing CMI, focusing their attention given to means of expression. The statement by the teacher should be specifically interesting clear by the use of terms already familiar to students. It is combined with other instructional methods and procedures, which are more activate and engage students with independent work.

- **Explanation.** Hereby and variant monologue method seeks students to bring certain abstractions, generalizations, concepts, rules, trials, unknown words, signs and symbols. For example in the study of a given song, under the thematic area "singing", the teacher explains the content of the song and words. In the thematic area "fundamentals of music literacy" explain the given musical signs denoting the musical means of expression. Or, in applying the illustration graphic signs or symbols, rhythmic and melodic cards, explains the meaning of the same and the manner of their use. Can be applied in all other areas of musical activities.

Given the specifics of the content, which are studied more specifically the level of practical operations, in music education is application delivery, which includes description, narration and explanation, combined with other teaching methods, according to the teaching content and the goal of teaching hour.

3.2. Dijaloshki method

The name of this method shows that here it comes work of the teacher and students. They enter into communication in connection with

the presentation of knowledge and knowledge about certain objects, phenomena and events. This method "is with questions and answers, talk to the teacher talk with students and between students themselves, in order to achieve didactic goals and tasks that are set in the class, "(Gogoski, L.. 1995: 95).

Talking in class is clearly defined, logically structured and directed towards a given goal - overcoming shaped didactic content. His logic is tailored to the students' reflective capabilities, subordinate accomplishes curricula. Students in the conversation are not in an equal position in their professional competences. The age of students is less possibility possibility equal dialogue with the teacher is less. Teacher shaping and channeling the conversation, leading the rational to the specified target. You may organize and freer conversation, in situations when you need to dominate the experience of students. The conversation is not down to the teacher's questions, but leaves much room for questions from the students. The teacher can put forward some facts and ask the students to express their judgment of them. Even when it comes to checking knowledge, the teacher's questions should indicate students thinking and not be of a purely technical nature. Discussion can be:

- **Strictly controlled conversation.** The role of the teacher is first. Students have a supportive role. He asks questions, taking into account the goal. Does not allow students with their questions lead to lead to deviation from the developmental line. This kind of talk is applied mostly new material, which needs to be processed am ever in a situation when needed quickly checking students' knowledge. In this way the teacher can determine whether students have knowledge about the given facts, but it is not triggered self-thinking of the students.
- **Free chat.** This kind of conversation to the full expression comes the initiative of students. The teacher is in the background, taking care to guide students towards an imagined course of hours, not allowing deviation from its developmental line. It helps, advises, directs. Students have the opportunity

to not only ask questions, but also to challenge the opinion of the other students, expressing their. This type of conversation can be successfully applied after observing the given phenomena, processes, events, processing of a given teaching unit. Having knowledge about the given facts, guided by the teacher, the students themselves can draw your conclusions.

- **Discussion.** "Discussion is a verbal exchange between the students and the students and the teacher" (Sapiro, S. 1997: 4). A discussion assumed names of basic knowledge of the content that will be processed using this method. It is particularly useful for training students to use their thinking skills, enrich their own ideas and enabling to hear different points of view by classmates. Also, it allows for expansion and deepening of the understanding of the students, giving them the opportunity to apply what they have learned. Very often used in combination with the method of demonstration and tempting in all thematic areas of the curriculum in Music Education.
- **Analysis of musical works.** Occurs as a separate variant of the dialog method, including inside components describing conversation and discussion. It is applied in a given observation phenomena, processes, events, guided by the teacher, students, almost independently perform the analysis of a given musical creation, in terms of its means of expression (character, form, tempo, dynamics, rhythm, tonal characteristics of melody).

4. Method of working with book

Working methods with the book (scores and music literature), "is one of the necessary teaching methods, although not in itself provides integrated learning. It is therefore useful when applied as a side method to other methods of learning." (Sapiro, S., 1997: 4). In music education, this method is implemented through the following versions:

- **Reading.** Primary task of the application of this method is to enable students to

use the various forms, ways and roads in the process of education and self-improvement. Applied using reading various sources, including textbooks, manuals, work-books, worksheets, collections tasks, children's magazines, magazines.

Reading, according to the didactic has different goals that distinguish a target of interest in musical education and *familiarizing with new material*. Reading for learning the new material practice the lesson. Teacher can read; one of the students, or all students in itself (how many students previously trained independently to serve a book, textbook, literature and other printed works and texts). Usually applied as an illustration of the exposure by the teacher. Besides reading the written text, this method has specific variations in music education:

- **Working with musical materials.** This method uses specific musical materials and is applicable in a wide variety of musical activities pupils accompanied methods based on observation methods based on words, the methods based on practical activities for pupils. The text, written with the help of words, which can read the teacher or students in acquiring the skill of reading is accompanied by graphic signs or symbols that denote specific musical means of expression. They can be lines, geometric paintings, drawings, notes, pauses, dynamic signs, signs for pace, savvy and others. Students should be trained to "read" these signs or symbols, for example. "Reading rhythmic patterns", "reading melodic motifs" emulating "reading" in various musical activities: singing, playing CMI; musical expression and creation; solving various musical tasks etc.. Musical materials containing such signs, symbols, drawings: music education textbooks, workbooks, worksheets, different kinds of music literature in the form of written musical creations with the help of musical signs and symbols, different applications applied classes computer software programs and others.

5. Methods based on practical activities for pupils

Performing of a given situation, or practical activity, students develop thinking, their manipulation, feelings, and provides an extensive discussion material. Because these methods, in combination with other methods, such as discussion, demonstration, allow understanding by students of the practical activity into its constituent components, expressive elements, rules of performance, function and so on. These methods are the most appropriate methods for expression curricula of all thematic areas of music education program, according to its essence and specificity. Within this group of methods include:

4.1. Imitation

Is teaching method whereby students learn how to sing songs, play CMI and how to play certain music movement given. The teacher demonstrates an operation, and students, mimicking, learning to accomplish the same. He points each manifested bug, again demonstrates the exact performance of the section in which it is expressed, or the entire operation, and the students, or a student, performed again by means of imitation.

Depending on the type of the content being processed, the area of music activities belonging, imitation has different variants. It can be:

- Rhythmic imitation, has been applied to the study of metro-rhythmic aspect of music works. Can be performed through the following procedures: speech (in counting songs), connect the lyrics with the music meter;(clapping, banging, applying rhythmic children's musical instruments);
- Melodic imitation is applied in the study of the melodic aspect of musical works. Is performed through the following procedures: singing neutral syllable (la-la); singing after hearing; playing CMI.
- Imitation of movements practiced in the study of the movements of a given melody (Whether it is vocal, instrumental or vocal-instrumental music creation), within the areas of musical activities "music and movement" and playing the CMI. In the first case mimic

demonstrated movements by the teacher, or a given model that presents video, DVD movies, coordinate movements with rhythm, dynamics, tempo and character of a given musical work. In the latter case mimic movements performed in a given child playing musical instrument.

4.2. Improvisation

Improvisation is an independent students' creative musical expression. Depending on the area of activities that are performed, it can be:

- rhythmic improvisation, rhythmic motives; improvisation rhythm given text; improvisation rhythm given melody;
- Melodic improvisation: improvisation tune for a given text; improvisation melody given rhythm;
- Improvisation movements: in this kind of improvisation students can independently determine: movements, when given a certain rhythm; movements, when given a particular tune.

4.3. Graphical representation

Using this method students learn the main aspects of musical works with non-music signs and symbols, using graphical means. Hence we distinguish: *Graphic recording rhythm, rhythmic symbols and cards; graphical display Melodic movement.*

4.4. Practice

Due to the specifics of the contents of music education, they do not learn the same way as other content items. While in other cases the theoretical component is dominant in music education dominates practical component (exercises). Only with the help of multiple repetition or exercise can determine the amount of tones in singing correct rhythm given music creation given tempo, dynamics; learn a combination of movements (choreography) given melody; proper performance of a given tune to help CMI and other musical activities. The exercises are performed under the guidance of the teacher, who corrects mistakes made, or under his control do the students, working in

larger or smaller groups. The exercises cover the following types of melodic procedures:

- Rhythm speech (singing during - the text of a given melody pronounced rhythmic, as if he were talking, without taking into account the different heights of the sounds that accompany it; rhythmic pronunciation counting and tongue twisters - the spoken text has own rhythm. It is taken as a basis and its pronunciation in regular rhythmic exercise duration;
- Rhythm movements music (movements are performed with clapping hands, knocking his feet; movement of the head; marching; combining different movements);
- Singing songs (singing songs neutral syllable; singing songs of scores text; singing songs with text given text note);
- Accompanied by rhythm CMI: This group exercises or procedures, or playing with rhythmic CMI "contributes to the development of a sense of rhythm, musical remembering experience different sounds, basic musical knowledge and training for collaborative music" (Radevski T./N. Radevska 1995). It accepts the following procedures: playing rhythm parts, speech rhythm playing, playing rhythm song, playing rhythmic phrases, playing rhythmic patterns, playing rhythmic echo.
- Accompanied with melodic CMI. Within this group exercises include the following procedures: accompaniment tracks with melodic motif, playing the melody;
- Accompanied by movement (body) of a given melody.

4.5. Creative tasks

Everywhere in the world pays great attention to the children's creativity. In this sense, teaching music education gives more emphasis on systematic pedagogical work to foster and develop children's creativity. Children's musical expression and creativity is especially topical area of the curriculum in music education in primary school educational level of development of children. It is realized through practical activities of students, such as imitation improvisation, improvisation movements default

ringtone, artistic expression after listening to music creation and a range of creative tasks, such as the following types: *completing* (rhythmic exercises with rhythmic symbols and cards); *detection as wrong*; *making rhythmic exercises with rhythmic symbols and cards*; *rhythmic music bars*; *complement melodic exercises melodic symbols and cards*; *finding errors*; *composing melodic exercises with melodic symbols and cards*; *melodic answers*.

All previously mentioned methods together express a pro-active way of learning based that experience precedes learning. In other words, the actual learning of an experience comes from the student, which he placed in the role of subject and object in the process. "The higher level of student involvement in the learning process, resulting in them a higher degree of retention of information and skills" (Shapiro, S. 1997: 4). Application of methods in various combinations allows creative learning, increased understanding and adoption information presented. Moreover, most methods underpin Niche skills and increase interaction among students.

The choice of method, separately and in combination, depends on the content or thematic area of teaching material that will be processed (singing songs, listening to music, playing the CMI, music and movement, etc.), Age of students, and the purpose of teaching hour.

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INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION, PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND COMPETENCE OF PRESCHOOL EDUCATORS - THE CONDITIONS AND CHALLENGES

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Abstract

The initial education of preschool educators and their general and professional competences needed for their continuing professional developments are very important and actual matters. These matters have always attracted the professional and scientific community, especially today, with efforts to create a unique and modern system of education of teachers in accordance with the Bologna process (ECTS). In this paper we present the results of a descriptive analysis of curricula for preschool teacher education, which present the results of the analysis of multiple parameters, that are fundamental in building a base concept for preschool teacher education; we also analysed competences that educators acquire during initial education in different faculties of the same country, but within different geographical areas in which specific kind of differences were observed. We present the results of a survey conducted with 42 student teachers regarding the perceived advantages and disadvantages during their initial education and their capacity for a successful start in their career as preschool teachers. We also present results based on interviews with fifteen preschool teachers about their professional development like an employer – working conditions, needs and opportunities. This paper is an attempt to elucidate some aspects of the problem with preschool teacher education and to create opportunities for creating a consistent overall structure of their initial education and continuing professional development.

Keywords: preschool teacher education, competences, professional development

"High quality teacher – always prepared for learning – sine qua non, is facing with dynamic complexity, as a key to creating citizens which can govern their own lives and be connected with the others around in a constantly changing world. There is no replacement for good teachers... We can't have society who learns, without teachers – a profession that learns."

Fullan, 1993

1. Introduction

Setting high standards in the education, emphasizing the creativity, innovation, nurturing of multiethnicity, multiculturalism, application of contemporary educational technology, are just some of the commitments for achieving higher quality in the educational sphere in our country. Tendencies for quality education, education that will be characterized with dynamic and flexible structure, education that will enable mobility of the teacher staff, students, education that will be moving alongside contemporary science, technical, and technological achievements, education for all, is obligation for all affected parties – the government, the ministry of education, BRO, universities, faculties, schools, teachers, students, pupils.

There is a well-known saying of Socrates: "If Athens would have had shoemakers, Athenians would walk barefoot, but if Athens would have had teachers, there would be no Athens." Thus, it is necessary to work on improvement of the quality of educational system, perceived as prerequisite to increasing productivity and quality of production.

But the implementation of the concept of contemporary quality education, implies quality, educated teaching staff, staff that will work constantly on its own professional development, staff directed towards permanent education, lifelong learning.

In that direction we asked ourselves the question what we mean under the term quality education, quality educated teaching staff?

Under the term quality in education we will mean quality teaching (knowledge, clear aims and tasks, appropriate teaching methods, constant feedback, positive relations), quality teaching, quality learning – the pupils are progressing well, perseverance, reaction to the given task, giving value of the own self work, the pupils are helping each other; we will mean a term that is not static, but it is changing during the social and scientific development.

Quality education is considered education that leads towards satisfying the educational (developmental) needs of its users, education that is measured according to the users' views. There are a number of factors that have influence on quality education: environment, tradition, conditions in which the process takes place, expert competence of the teachers.

Tendencies for realization of quality education can be exercised in dependence of the quality of the work of one of the main agents in the educational process – the teacher.

The quality of the work, the quality of the teachers teaching will greatly depend on:

- the degree and quality of his/hers theoretical and practical training on the faculties that produce teaching staff, above all Pedagogical faculties, Faculty for educational sciences, which educate staff specially for preschool education and both cycles of primary nine-year education, and upgrades throughout whole working age;
- the representation of the pedagogical-psychological and teaching methods disciplines, especially the performance of the pedagogical, didactic-methodical practice in preschool institutions, primary schools; in the last few years the number of classes predicted for realization of the pedagogical practice (clinical, pedagogical, methodical) is growing;
- the assured control of quality in education (in the preschool institutions, primary and secondary schools, a so called administrative control is emphasized, especially the respect of the legislation regulation and financial and material working of the schools, the expert-pedagogical aspect is given very little attention);
- the existence of programs for constant professional development and improvement of the teaching staff.

The expert, pedagogical and teaching methods competence of the teachers is mostly accomplished at faculties, and later upgraded in the existing centers in Universities, special centers for training and professional development.

Taking into account that on the Pedagogical faculties teaching staff that goes into preschool and primary education is mainly educated, more precisely in the first and second cycle of basic nine-year education, and surely according with the recommendations of the European Parliament and Council (2006), we decided to conduct a small, micro research in order to determine if there are identical or different

programs for initial training of the teaching staff in the region of former Yugoslavia, that would later engage in the education of the youngest, in preschool institutions. Specifically, we wanted to identify the similarities and differences of the initial training programs; what are the key competences identified at different faculties which the teaching staff for preschool education should possess, whether special centers exist at faculties that take care of the professional development of the teachers and their career development? Also, we asked ourselves the questions if there are differences in opinions and attitudes of students, future educators, about positive and negative sides considering their training for successful start in employment, in the direction of what should we do as Faculties in aspect of our teaching plans and programs, where should we direct our interventions?; what are the attitude and opinions of the employed teachers about the possibilities of their professional development, where and in what way it is realized, suggestions and improvement directions etc.

Answers of these research questions were acquired through an analysis of the teaching plans and programs of some of the faculties of education specialized in preschool education, questioning the student – teachers and interviews with employed teaching staff in early childhood education institutions. A descriptive methodological design was used in our research.

More specifically, we analyzed the teaching programs for preschool education at the teaching faculties in Skopje, Bitola the teaching program in preschool education at the Faculty for Educational Sciences in Shtip as well as teaching programs for preschool education at the Pedagogical Faculty in Ljubljana and the Teaching faculty in Vranje. This was a convenient sample. The technique content analysis was used and the instrument was records document.

Also, we questioned student – teachers from the Faculty of Educational Sciences in Shtip. Forty-two third and fourth year students replied to a questionnaire and nine teachers from four preschool institutions of the municipality of Shtip, Sv. Nikole were interviewed. Specifically, the interviews with the teachers questioned possibilities for their continuous professional development, based on an interview protocol.

2. Research results

2.1. Results from analysis of the study programs

Study programs for educating teaching staff for preschool education were analyzed through few parameters.

Analysis showed the following:

- **Analyzed study programs for preschool education** are innovated according to Bologna Declaration. These include national programs for development of education in a certain period, programs for work with children from preschool age, national programs for primary school education and the needs of the service users for the children of preschool age.
- **Timespan of the studies** is four years, with exception of the study program at the Pedagogical Faculty of Ljubljana where it is three years, the students gain 180 ECTS.
- **Program structure** – the existence of mandatory and elective subjects.

There are differences in the different programs in aspect of the ratio of mandatory and elective subjects.

- **Faculty of Educational Sciences** – 39 subjects – 60% mandatory, 30% faculty elective subjects, 10% university elective subjects;
- **Teaching Faculty in Vranje** – academic general education 17.08%, theoretical methodological 19.17%, scientific-expert, arts-expert 30% and expert applicative 33.75%;
- **Pedagogical Faculty in Skopje** – 2835 classes in the mandatory subjects (including practical classes) and 720 classes elective subjects;
- **Pedagogical Faculty in Bitola** – 40 subjects out of which 28 mandatory and 12 elective subjects;
- **Pedagogical Faculty in Ljubljana** consists of four groups of subjects: mandatory, expert mandatory, elective, expert elective.
- **Pedagogical praxis** – pedagogical praxis is mandatory and in some study programs (Ljubljana, Skopje) exists as a

mandatory subject, and in others is incorporated in the mandatory subjects. In all programs pedagogical internship exists as a mandatory subject.

- **Outcomes from learning.** In most of the study programs the term competences is used as something that the teachers should gain after the end of the studies, with the exception of the Faculty for Educational Sciences where they are identified as descriptors that are prepared according Bloom's taxonomy (knowledge and understanding, capability for evaluation, application of knowledge and understanding, communication skills, learning skills).

In all other study programs there are common-educational competences, subject specific competences which the future teacher should possess. Most commonly identified are: general competences, determined as *cognitive-academic* (can think in an analytical-syntactical manner and solve problem creatively); *social* (can cooperate, do teamwork and exchange experiences); *personal* (possess skill for (self-)organizing, planning, valuing, initiative); application (possess information literacy, can use knowledge in praxis flexible); *general* (possess attitude that every child has a right to education; possess attitude that every child is different than the others and learns according to its individual abilities and capabilities); *subject specific competences* (can critically choose and apply contemporary pedagogical ideas and theories according to the educational needs; is familiar with different preschool educational program models and can choose them and use them according to the environmental and cultural value systems;)

We can conclude that in the analyzed study programs there are no big differences with regard to the structural components of study programs, as well as no prominent differences in terms of the competences that the future teacher should possess, and which arise from the intentions for education of a European contemporary teacher.

2.2. Questioning results

The purpose of the questionnaire was to test the opinions and attitudes of the students about the

strong and weak sides of their initial training, as well as identify recommendations for improvement of their initial education. The results showed:

- That the desire to be a teacher, to work with children is the basic reason for the enrollment at the study program for preschool education;
- during the initial training they have opportunities to expand their general knowledge from various areas;
- they are satisfied from the relation of the teaching staff towards them;
- opportunities for inclusion in certain project activities, especially projects that refer to strengthening their capabilities for work in multiethnic classrooms and give them opportunity for change in their attitude and stereotypes towards members of certain ethnic communities;
- praxis (pedagogical, clinical, methodical) offers them a possibility to get directly familiar with the work in the preschool institution;
- in respect to their competences for work in preschool institution, the status of employed teachers, almost all of the students stated that they can involve without any problems and work with the children from preschool age. Still, they hope for the help and support of the elderly, experienced colleagues.

What the students are missing throughout the initial training refers to:

- more practice in the preschool institution, their involvement in all the activities in the kindergarten, especially the way the pedagogical documentation is prepared;
- more cross-curriculum activities related to their future job;
- more elective subjects in the study programs at their faculties which will allow the future teachers to get to know and to study more interactive strategies;
- organizing additional training related to the novelty, innovation in the preschool educational system;
- sharing practices with students/teachers from other countries;

2.3. Interview results

In the research teachers were interviewed from four preschool institutions in the municipality of Shtip. The purpose of the interview was to test opinions of the teachers from preschool institutions about the possibilities for their professional development and their improvement. Almost all teachers agreed on the following:

- everything is left to individual initiative;
- there is insufficient material support in the preschool institution for professional development of the teacher;
- there is no defined system for training, often the initiative is left to just a few persons in the school;
- insufficient dissemination of information after completing certain trainings, seminars, among the teacher colleagues;
- According with these attitudes teachers propose:
 - organizing more trainings, debates on different topics, above all innovations that refer to the improvement in the area of preschool education;
 - more complete coverage of all teachers with trainings;
 - exchange experiences with colleagues from other countries;
 - bigger cooperation with the faculties, especially with the special centers for training, career centers with which they will cooperate on the plan of their professional development;

Of course to achieve this success it is necessary an engagement of educators from teaching faculties, members of social community, in the change of the style of teaching, applications of various strategies, training the younger staff for following the contemporary streams of profession, training for their lifelong learning.

3. Conclusion

The theoretical analysis of the problem together with our research results regarding initial training of the teaching staff lead us to the following conclusions:

- Changes in the teaching programs and programs at faculties in the sense of

their enrichment with greater number of elective subjects;

- increasing the number of classes intended for the pedagogical practice in the preschool institutions;
- greater engagement of the centers for career development – implementation and realization of higher number of trainings directed towards improvement of the professional development of the teachers;
- greater involvement of the teaching staff from the faculties for education of teachers in the activities and education of the employees in the early childhood education institutions;
- Designing a plan for the preparation of a legislative framework and strategy for professional development of the preschool teacher in our country.

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INTEGRATION OF ROMANIAN CHILDREN IN THE GREEK EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

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Abstract

Romanians constitute the fourth migrant group in Greece. Most of them arrive and settle with their wives and children. Therefore, a significant number of Romanian pupils, mainly first generation migrants, attend primary and secondary Greek schools. This presentation focuses on studying the choices of Romanian parents who live in the area of Western Macedonia concerning the education of their children as well as the degree of integration of the Romanian pupils in the Greek educational system. As far as Romanian parents are concerned, we investigated the relationship between:

- a. their intellectual level and the education provided to their children.
 - Do they learn other foreign languages?
 - Do they follow the Greek educational model of supplementary after school private education?
 - Are university studies considered into their plans?
- b. Their national identity and the promotion of both Greek and Romanian education.
 - Do they opt for a multicultural education?
 - Are both Greek and Romanian cultures put into practice in their education?

As for the Romanian children:

- Which is the degree of their integration in the Greek schools?
- Does their education help them integrate in the Greek society?
- Does it influence their decision to remain in Greece or return to Romania?

The methodology: The qualitative research interview seeks to describe the meanings of central themes in the life world of the subjects. The main task in interviewing is to understand the meaning of what the interviewees say (Kvale, 1996). Interviews are particularly useful for getting the story behind a participant's experiences (McNamara, 1999).

Keywords: *Romanian children, multicultural education, integration*

1. Introduction

Greece, well known as a migratory country, received a significant number of repatriated

Greeks in the mid seventies and continues accepting an increased number of workers (legal and illegal) as well as members of their families (Damanakis, 2005).

According to the statistical data, Romanians represent the fourth largest immigrants' group in Greece after the Albanians, the Bulgarians and the Georgians (Lazarescu, 2009). According to the Greek Ministry of internal Affairs there are 19.349 Romanians who obtained a permit of residence in Greece which represent the 2,88% of the whole legal foreign population. As for the Romanians who live unofficially in Greece, their number is estimated at several thousand.

1.1. Profile of Romanian immigrants

Romanian immigrants chose Greece as their destination for several specific reasons: 1. the small distance from their country, 2. the similarities between the two countries as far traditions, cuisine and religion are concerned. Finally, they used the already existent network created in the past through which waves of population would cross the borders from the one country to the other.

As parents, the Romanian immigrants live the dictatorship of the children, trying to do the best for their children, both financially and educationally, influenced by the socialist models where pupils should excel at their studies (Savulescu – Voudouris, 2004).

1.2. Education of the Romanian children in Greece

It is obvious that the education and adaptation of the young Romanians constitute a big challenge for the Greek State which should set the foundation for a multicultural, democratic society through the integration of the new generation of immigrants in the national educational system.

As school failure to immigrant children is mainly due to the family environment and the low socioeconomic level of their parents (Rea&Tripiet, 2003:66-70), school can constitute a unique occasion or a big hinder for their integration in the host society.

Approximately two third of the second generation immigrants have got a successful social integration and a bigger mobility than their parents thanks to the school whereas a third is excluded because of the school failure

(Dubet, 1992:300).

The good command of the host country language as well as the creation of social and informative networks constitute a cornerstone for the social convergence between immigrants and locals (Borjas, 1999; Chiswick, 1978; Sole, 1999).

In the case of the Greek Educational System, the short time of the school time which is restricted until noon and the load of homework create significant problems to the young immigrants of first or second generation (Vermeulen, 2004).

The multicultural dimension is a very important factor for the young immigrants' integration in the school community. Of course, when referring to multicultural education we do not intend a specific educational model but a wide variety of theoretical analysis around the principles of teaching and learning in the multicultural school. Multiculturalism is the procedure of the perception and the experience of the cultural pluralism, the recognition of the difference and the cooperation among people with different cultures (Govaris, 2001).

The particularity of the Greek school is that it is based on an Educational System of a monolingual nation-state with common origin, history and religion which imposes specific ways of action and methodologies for putting into practice the multiculturalism in the Greek Educational System (Trilianos, 1990). Greece is a country with personal bilingualism but without social bilingualism as the Greek state does not allow foreign languages not even a subsidiary function (Damanakis, 2005).

As "multiculturalism" is a common decision of the European Union (Balassa, 2002), our study aims at researching the difficulties young Romanians face in Greek schools, the degree of their integration in the school community as well as the host society and the possibility to "use" this capital in order to enhance the multicultural dimension in the educational institutions.

2. Methodology

We interviewed 25 Romanians who live and work in Greece. For the analysis, we used the qualitative data research which constitutes a source of well-grounded, rich descriptions and explanations of processes in identifiable local contexts. Good qualitative data are more likely to

lead to serendipitous findings and to new integrations. They help researchers to get beyond initial conceptions and to generate or revise conceptual frameworks. Finally, the findings from qualitative studies have a quality of "undeniability" (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The qualitative research interview seeks to describe the meanings of central themes in the life world of the subjects. The main task in interviewing is to understand the meaning of what the interviewees say (Kvale, 1996). Interviews are particularly useful for getting the story behind a participant's experiences (McNamara, 1999).

Our goal was to investigate the relationship between:

- a. the intellectual level of the Romanian immigrants and the education provided to their children and answer the following questions:
 - Do their children learn other foreign languages?
 - Do they follow the Greek educational model of supplementary after school private education?
 - Are university studies considered into their plans?
- b. The national identity and the promotion of both Greek and Romanian education.
 - Do they opt for a multicultural education?
 - Are both Greek and Romanian cultures put into practice in their education?

As for the Romanian children:

- Which is the degree of their integration in the Greek schools?
- Does their education help them integrate in the Greek society?
- Does it influence their decision to remain in Greece or return to Romania?

3. Public

Our public consisted of 25 Romanian immigrants, 9 men and 16 women who live in different places of Greece. One of them is 25 years old, the rest are aged between 35 and 60. 8 of them live in rural areas and 17 in cities, big and middle sized towns. 13 of them have a university diploma and 12 of them a high school degree. 5 of them were

unemployed; all the others had either permanent or seasonal jobs. Ten of them declare to be employed in jobs relevant to their studies whereas seven in irrelevant ones.

As far as their social identity is concerned, 19 of them had a family identity and 4 of them were professionally oriented. Regarding their national identity, 18 of them had a stronger Romanian identity. In 6 cases, Greek identity was dominant whereas 4 persons declared Europeans as far as their national determination is concerned.

There are forty-six children involved in the research, seven of whom are under 6, sixteen 6 to 12, seven 12 to 18 and sixteen more than 18. Most of them (28) were born in Greece and the rest of them (18) in Romania. Six of them returned to Romania short after their arrival in Greece due to school difficulties, one is doing his studies in Romania and one returned to Romania for starting an engineering career.

4. Results

Initially, our study tried to determine the efficiency of the young Romanians in Greek schools and relate it to the educational level of their parents. The analysis of the interviews showed us that 30 out of 39 that is to say 77% Romanians attending Greek school have had good results and only 18% mentioned serious learning problems.

In all cases, the parents of the children facing school difficulties were Romanians with a modest educational level and unqualified, low paid jobs. Without being involved in mixed marriages, their knowledge of Greek language was poor and therefore they were incapable of helping their children. Moreover, the advanced age of the young Romanians who were asked to keep up with a demanding curriculum in a monolingual educational system without being offered any special support were lead to school failure and social exclusion since they had to leave their family and the host country.

On the contrary, a high percentage of Romanian children (78%) speak perfectly Greek, 6,5% has a good command of it, 4,5% has an intermediate level and 5 out of 46 (10,9%) remained at an elementary level which is the case of those who were sent back home in order to accomplish their secondary education studies and only visit their parents during the holidays.

All Romanian immigrants stressed the

importance of the excellent knowledge of the Greek language in the evolution and the integration of their children. There were no differences among children coming from different socioeconomic levels except of the ones who reached their home country soon after their arrival in Greece.

It is also interesting to find out that only 24 out of 46 (52,2%) Romanian children speak perfectly Romanian, 5 well, 5 have got an intermediate level and 3 a low one. There are also 9 children (19,5%) who cannot speak Romanian at all and who come from mixed marriages. Parents whose children could not speak Romanian focused the importance of their children to learn wide spoken languages like English that is a tool for their future career. Except of one Romanian doctor who appeared unwilling to teach her children Romanian, all the others admitted that in the near future they intended to start Romanian lessons with their offspring.

4.1. Foreign Languages

Almost all Romanian children (71,3%) do extra language education and specifically English even from early pre-school ages. Some of them (17,4%) also learn French in afternoon private classes and 4 of them (4,3%) Italian. Romanian parents are used to paying considerable amounts of money for their children language education as in Romania private lessons of English constitute a long tradition. In our case, second foreign language lessons (French and Italian) were provided by parents with university studies and higher incomes.

We assess that Romanian parents tend to adopt the practices of the Greek families as far as parallel education is concerned and do not hesitate to spend a considerable amount of money on afternoon language classes so that their children reach a high level of English and get the respective certification.

4.2.1 Afternoon Classes and Extracurricular Activities

The findings concerning the afternoon tutoring classes and extracurricular activities like sports, music, dance, drawing etc. taken up by the young Romanians lead us to the following conclusions:

- All the young Romanians involved in

tutoring or extracurricular afternoon activities (17 out of 46) live in metropolitan urban centres or prefecture capitals. Their parents have good jobs and in most cases they have a high educational level.

- Most of the children come from mixed families in which one parent is Romanian and the other Greek. Only a girl who lives in Thessaloniki and a boy situated in Katerini come from purely Romanian families (a former footballer's and actual businessman and a fast food owner's respectively).

4.3. University studies

Although Romania was situated in the last position in the E.U. as for the rate of active population with tertiary studies according to the Eurostat results of 2009, with a percentage of 11,2% vs 21,9% which represents the average of the 27 E.U. member states of the E.U. (Orgonas, 2011), most of the Romanian immigrants aim at their children obtaining a University degree. Among the 22 interviewees who had children, 17 opted for a higher education of their offspring. Actually, seven young Romanian immigrants have already got a university degree, three after having studied in Romania, one in the U.K. and three in Greece. When asked about their children's future, 12 Romanian parents with children under 17 expressed their wish for their children to go to University without naming a specific country or excluding Greece.

In conclusion, most of the Romanian families, regardless their socioeconomic level and studies are actively interested in their children's education. They consider that good school results and fluency in Greek are the most efficient means for the integration of their children in the host society.

They adapt to the Greek educational system and follow the example of the locals. Almost all Romanian children take English language lessons in private language schools but when it comes down to other tutorial or extracurricular activities, only those who live in urban areas and belong to financially advantaged families can participate.

As for the higher education, it seems to be in almost every Romanian family's plans even if

Greek admission exams are very difficult and demanding. They all like the idea of their children studying in Romania where “universities are very serious and good” and accept the alternative of a good university in a third E.U. country.

4.4. National identity and multicultural education

As multiculturalism cannot be seen merely as a study of the other, but rather as multiple studies of culture and cultural practices in the lives of all humans (Ladson – Billings, 2003) we intend to investigate the kind of education young Romanian immigrants get in relation with the national identities of their parents as well as their desire to remain in Greece or return to their homeland.

4.4.1. Greek education

According to our findings, 11 out of 22 interviewees who were parents admitted providing a purely Greek education to their children. Eight of them are married to Greeks, one is married to a Romanian and has been in Greece since 1996 and one is a Romanian single mother facing serious health problems. There is also a Roma family who work in tourism. Three of them turned out to have a Romanian identity, four a Greek one and 3 a mixed Greek-Romanian one. Among them, one mentioned feeling also Balkan whereas one interviewee admitted feeling Roma.

In the case of those involved in mixed marriages we observe a tendency of assimilation in the local society especially when they have already dealt with social exclusion or when the wider family is reluctant to accept and adopt habits and traditions of the new Romanian member. As Greek is spoken by all the members of the social environment, it is convenient for Romanian parents to communicate with their children exclusively in Greek.

Some of them mention the fact that there are many similarities between the two cultures and even when they do not follow their own traditions they feel comfortable.

It is worth mentioning that the Romanians involved in mixed marriages do not intend to return to their home country and therefore orient their offspring towards a Greek education. They aspire for them a successful career and a

future life in Greece.

On the other hand, those who declare keen to return to their homeland seem to respect, accept and willingly adopt the Greek education for their children by enriching it with European and Romanian elements. Likewise, the Roma father appears grateful for the education provided to his children by the Greek state and shows no intention of adding anything further to it.

We also remark that there is no strong relation between the identities of the parents and the multicultural dimension of the children's education as those who chose a purely Greek education for their children present various types of identities: Romanian, both Greek and Romanian, European, the three together, nothing, Aromanian and Roma.

4.4.2. Greek – Romanian Education

A combined Greek – Romanian education is provided according to the analysis by 8 out of 22 Romanian interviewees with children (36, 3%), 5 of who are married to Greeks. Three of them declared having a Romanian identity; two said that they were feeling Balkans and two Europeans. One turns out to have a mixed Greek-Romanian identity. Among them 5 had a university degree and 3 a secondary education diploma.

In all cases, parents gave a major importance to the Greek language and education but also insisted in their children's learning Romanian. Aware of the fact that bilingualism has positive effects on children's linguistic and educational development (Cummins, 2001), they tried to maintain their families' bonds with the language and culture of their country of origin.

As the Greek Curriculum is a monolingual one and only few specialized multicultural schools organize lessons of less spoken languages – mother tongues of young immigrants, some of the Romanian parents tried to promote their culture especially in primary schools by organizing happenings with traditional Romanian food and music, film watching, cooperation on projects with Romanian schools, free Romanian language lessons to the members of the local community etc.

Some parents mentioned the use of Romanian pedagogical and entertainment sites which permitted them to teach their children

Romanian writing, reading, grammar and vocabulary. Others brought Romanian course books from their homeland so as to make their children practice in a more systematic way.

At the same time, they referred to frequent family journeys to Romania and long stay of the children with grandparents and relatives so that they become fluent in Romanian and get to know the culture of origin.

We conclude that Romanian parents with strong Romanian identity are the ones who provide a multicultural education to their children even if it is a difficult task in a monolingual environment. Likewise, highly educated Romanian immigrants have access to theoretical knowledge and practical tools that lead them to successful results as far as the multicultural education of their children is concerned.

As children's mother tongues are fragile and easily lost in the early years of school, parents should establish a strong home language policy and provide ample opportunities for children to expand the functions for which they use the mother tongue (e.g. reading and writing) and the contexts in which they can use it (e.g. community mother tongue day care or play groups, visits to the country of origin, etc.) in order to reduce the extent of language loss (2001).

4.4.3. Romanian Education

A purely Romanian education was provided by three Romanian immigrants to their children. According to the interviews, all of them have a strong Romanian identity whereas two admit feeling Aromanians, too. Two of them live in remote areas and work in the agricultural sector; one is a dust cleaner in a city. None of them has a university degree.

Their decision not to get access to the Greek education was a result of different factors. A 36 year old worker talked about the low level of the primary school in his working village. "My son like liked it here but we had to send him back to our parents. The village is small and there are only two teachers for all the six grades. The education is not good here. I want my child to get the best education. In the city things are different. I have friends and we talked it over... if he had stayed here, he would not have learnt anything since we do not know anything either..."

The other two cases concern young Romanians who arrived in Greece and had to follow the heavy curriculum of the lower and upper secondary school in Greek without any help or support either from their environment since their parents could not speak Greek or from the school community. The poor results led their parents to the decision to send them back home and bring them to Greece after their getting their secondary education diploma.

Undoubtly, the decision for a purely Romanian education did not constitute a choice but a necessity for the three Romanian immigrant families. The financial difficulties they faced during their arrival, the bad knowledge of Greek and the lack of support from the Greek school were the main factors of their failing to integrate in the Greek Educational system. On the other hand, remote villages where immigrants are requested for agricultural works cannot fulfill the educational needs of the newcomers as they do not provide tutorial lessons or Greek language preparation for the young immigrants.

4.5. School and social integration

4.5.1. Degree of integration in the Greek schools

In order to investigate the degree of integration of the young Romanians in the Greek schools, we took into consideration certain basic parameters as their fluency in Greek language, the good school results as well as their capability of socializing with fellow students inside and outside the school community.

The acquisition of the national language as the immigrants' second language is influenced by a range of factors. These include conditions in the country of origin and immigration country, the existence and structure of an ethnic community and – in particular – individual and family living conditions and the specific circumstances of migration. Age at migration and the duration of stay in the country of migration are particularly significant factors; the parents' age at migration and language skills also play an important role in the case of immigrant children. A higher level of education of immigrants or their parents constitutes a clear advantage when it comes to second language acquisition (Esser, 2006).

The results gathered show us that almost all

young Romanians could speak perfectly Greek (36 out of 46). It is important to stress that in total, 28 were born in Greece whereas the rest of them arrived in Greece at a very early age.

Ten teenager Romanian immigrants who arrived in Greece after the age of 14 did not manage to acquire a satisfactory level of Greek so as to succeed in their studies and were soon led to school drop-out and return to their home country. Children learn the language of the receiving country more easily and a clear threshold can be empirically identified in terms of second language acquisition at between 10 and 12 years of age. This is not to say that competent language acquisition is impossible after puberty (even from a neurophysiological perspective), but considerable effort and motivation are required to achieve a high level of proficiency and accent-free speech in adulthood (2006). Flexible educational structures in the host country constitute a major help in these cases.

Education is the central resource allowing participation in economic, political, cultural and social life. Therefore it is an important investment in life-chances and determines the achievable status and possibility for social mobility especially for the young (Geissler, 2005).

Good school results not only increase the chances of the young Romanian immigrants for efficient and quality post secondary studies but also strengthen their position in the school community.

It is obvious that education is the most important long-term investment that a country can make (Lynch 2006)

The cultural integration of immigrants is of practical relevance, helping to maintain social peace and prevent the formation of an underclass. In different theoretical approaches immigrants are seen as a potential new outsider group due to, for example, their lower educational attainments and their professional placement in the lower service sector (Esping-Andersen 1993). Importantly, intergroup contacts, if based on close relationships, have the potential to reduce prejudice (Pettigrew 1998), which is key for achieving social acceptance and eventual integration. Therefore, valuing friendships and meeting friends are key indicators of social acceptance that should be positively associated with educational expectations. The analysis of the interviews led

us to the conclusion that Romanian parents, especially those who were not involved into a mixed marriage, gave a big importance to their children's school friendships.

4.5.2. *Integration in the Greek society through education*

As already mentioned, education is the foundation of the young Romanian immigrants' integration in the Greek society. Becoming a part of the school community constitutes the first step for their participating in the local community and consequently the host country social structure. Good results at school and achievements in extracurricular activities boost the young immigrants' self esteem and help them obtain the recognition and respect of their environment. A mother talks with pride about her daughter who was holding the Greek flag during the national festivities as the best student of the school. A father reports his son's national success at chess. Some others emphasize on their children's success in sports. Likewise, sharing time and investing in friendships with natives are determinants which help young immigrants from Romania configure their educational and career expectations and eventually integrate in the host society.

Decision to remain in Greece or return to Romania according to studies

- In most cases, young Romanians choose to make studies orientated to the Greek university system and subsequently to the national labor market.
- Few of them (4 out of 46) have a E.U. oriented working perspective and wish to study and work mainly in the U.K.
- The majority though feels as a part of the Greek society, has friendships and wish not to leave the country despite the crisis. One returned to Romania for a highly skilled job, one is doing his studies in Romania and intends to remain there.
- The late arrivers who dropped out of school because of the language difficulties and the lack of support structures for immigrant children integration in the Greek educational system are the ones who did not manage to adapt in the Greek society and made the decision to leave.

5. Conclusion

The results of our findings reflect the high degree of integration of the young Romanians both in the Greek Educational system and local society. More concretely, almost all of them have an excellent level of Greek. Likewise, their school results are more than satisfactory since they have high grades, learn foreign languages and participate in extracurricular activities. They have Greek friends who influence their studying decisions and guide them towards a serious preparation for the admission exams to Greek universities and a future career in Greece.

Of course, we should here stress the importance of the family and their socio economic situation. Children with high intellectual level parents are provided with extra educational chances and are therefore more likely to succeed. Extracurricular activities as foreign language learning, sports, music, dance classes help children socialize, acquire additional skills and abilities and integrate in the host society.

Another important factor is the area of residence. Low paid Romanian immigrants usually work in rural, often remote areas, where schools do not dispose of the proper infrastructures. Moreover, there are no chances for afternoon extracurricular activities, so the young Romanians are doomed to fall behind and fail not only at school but also as far as their integration in the Greek society is concerned.

Finally, a crucial parameter is the age of their arrival in Greece. In all cases, Romanian teenagers were led to school drop out because they did not manage to keep up with the demanding Greek monolingual curriculum. Poor knowledge of the Greek language and lack of help from their environment or the Greek State are the main reasons for their inability to follow the Greek school and integrate in the local society.

6. Remarks

Educational achievement is a cornerstone for immigrant integration, representing the opportunity for every child to reach his or her own potential, no matter their race, country of origin or economic background (Commins, 2007). Therefore, governments should include into their educational policy all those elements which contribute to the immediate adaptation

and integration of the young immigrants in the school community. In the case of Greece, school should expand its functioning even during the afternoon and provide students the opportunity to attend tutorial and extra foreign language lessons, Greek classes for foreigners, sports and cultural activities.

In the new reformed Greek school, all children should be able to acquire the skills which will give them the chance to progress and succeed in the future, without any social, economic, educational, religious or cultural distinctions and inequalities. The new school will be reformed with the use of new curricula, new teaching methods, innovative actions, cultural life and digital resources. It will take care and actively support socially disadvantaged pupils by implementing special projects for the Muslim minorities of Thrace, young immigrants and Roma families. (The New School n.d.).

The Greek School should expand the multicultural spirit of education and behavior not only inside its walls but also outside, in the local society. Undoubtly, the cultural, linguistic and intellectual capital of our societies will increase dramatically when we stop seeing culturally and linguistically diverse children as 'a problem to be solved' and instead open our eyes to the linguistic, cultural, and intellectual resources they bring from their homes to our schools and societies (Cummins, 2001). The young Romanian immigrants might be the chance for us to prove that we can do it.

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MONTESSORY PROGRAM BASED ON UNIVERSAL HUMAN VALUES – HUMAN DIGNITY PEACE AND FREEDOM

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Abstract

The Montessori pedagogy it's successful more than 100 years from establishing, because it is based of universal human values: *human dignity, peace and freedom*. Montessori education cultivates children in capable persons, to do real things for real reasons. It helps children to grow up in to secure, happy and beloved persons, capable to lead the world with confidence. Montessori classroom is based on respect, and it is a little community, as a mirror of big human community. Children are helped to understand, that they are responsible for their choices, and that are matter in the group. In the small group, children learn how to share and lead, without interference. They build sense of confidence in their one capability. Montessori children have good environment, they are curios, studiously learn, develop sense for them self, their own place in community, eager to participate in group as a hole.

Keywords: *Montessori program, human dignity, peace, freedom*

1. EDUCATION FOR PEACE – THE ESSENCE OF MONTESSORI

What is education for peace? Can small children learn to resolve their conflicts with honesty and with words? How do we build a community and respect in the classroom? Can we find a way to extend the sense of community and peace to the world outside the classroom?

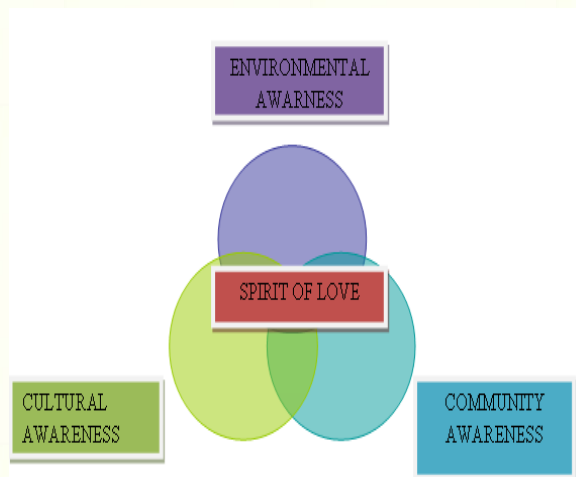
Those objectives are the essence of the Montessori philosophy and education. Dr. Maria Montessori recognizes the spirit of love with all children. And emphasize the need to educate children about them self's, their community, other cultures, and the environment. This concept can be represented by the flower of peace model.

Dr Maria Montessori sad that we must lay the foundation for peace for ourselves by:

- constructing a new social environment,
- constructing a new world for the child, and adolescent,
- possibility for developing individual consciences
- educational reform
- and above all a vast social reform called for today

1.2. SELF AWARENESS

By studying a relationship of body, mind, emotions, and spirit children develop the greater sense self-confidence and wealth-being. Through these activities they develop a sense of peace with themselves. Benefits are: sense of working together and trust, independence from adults, and independence in the community. It really helps as people to grow, and be responsible.



In the classroom children learn respect for others. They learn to cooperate, take responsibility for their actions and resolve peacefully. As children grow older they develop sense of responsibility for community outside the classroom (two or three hours of community service).

From the early age the Montessori curriculum focuses on building understanding and compassion for other people. A respect for basic human rights is integrated into the study of diverse cultures.

Through many activities in Montessori classroom children learn how to be stewards of the environment. This is done by encouraging children to take care of the environment, both inside and outside the classroom. Environmental science focuses on the connectedness of the earth elements and gives children respect for all life.

In public schools, in private schools, children from 12 months to 18 years, from all different backgrounds and many cultures, are all Montessori students. They share a common culture of peace education.

1.3. MONTESSORI SECRETS

„Whatever takes the life of a child touches the most sensitive part of the whole. Which have the roots from the most distant past to climb to enter to the future?“ (Maria Montessori, 1907)

A few years in Montessori school and all I got was:

- ✓ Independence
- ✓ Control
- ✓ Solid foundation
- ✓ Inner peace
- ✓ Care for the world
- ✓ Tolerance
- ✓ Respect for nature
- ✓ Concentration
- ✓ Coordination
- ✓ Confidence
- ✓ Self – esteem
- ✓ Ability for rationalize
- ✓ Love for environment
- ✓ Order
- ✓ Sense of community
- ✓ Compassion

As a Maria Montessori said if we free the child's potential, we will transform him into the world.

2. CONCLUSION

Montessori education gives children the opportunity to make choices every day and see the result of that choice. When children are given the opportunity to practice decision-making, develop life skills every day in the classroom, begin to take responsibility and become confident adults, taking responsibility for their own happiness.

Montessori program helps children, to grow up into secure, happy and beloved persons. They become capable, to lead the world with confidence. They are responsible for their choices, with a knowledge that matters in the group. They learn their own place in community, eager to participate in group as a whole.

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PRESENTATION AND COMPATIBILITY OF VOCAL AND MANUAL TEACHING TECHNIQUES AND OTHER CAPABILITIES, SKILLS, HABITS AND KNOWLEDGE IN TEACHING MUSIC PROGRAMS IN FYROM COMPARED WITH OTHER COUNTRIES FROM EUROPE

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Abstract

Changes as the world trend in basic education in our country are understood and accepted as a necessity driven by the needs for openness and correspondence of our education with that in developed countries. It means overcoming a system that is insufficiently standardized, stereotypical, traditionalist, yet generally authoritarian, and full academic environment. The system that fosters a style of work in which students mostly remember and do not understand, know, but do not know how. This applies to the program areas represented, their quantitative ratio, internal organization and other specifics. In this paper, we present and analyze educational systems in relation to lesson plans for elementary teaching, teaching programs in music education / music / musical culture for elementary instruction, curricula for teacher profile for grades that can perform teaching music education in order to give a full display of the significance of the connection between the competences for which the teachers see that students get lower grades, and that teachers are trained for practically realizing the examples of vocal music works. The study selected these aspects of analysis, primarily because of the need to gain deeper knowledge of argumentative weaknesses, but also about the benefits of music education in the lower grades in primary schools in FYRM. Moreover, as noted, data on music education are taken into account in those countries with a longer tradition in education or in Europe that have successful reforms. For many questions and assessments that are raised in this analysis, more specific answers, indicators and arguments may be found in comparative reviews, length of grades, internal organization, the structure of curricula, teaching programs in music education in elementary school.

Keywords: *educational systems, music education, elementary education, teaching programs*

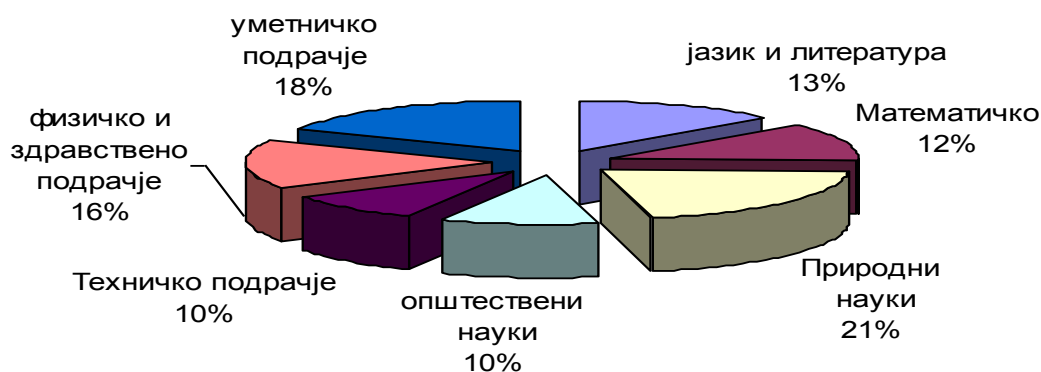
1. FYROM

- a. Presentation of vocal and manual teaching techniques and other capabilities, skills, habits and knowledge (curriculum of music education, 2008)
 1. Vocal technique
 - be encouraged to sing, play, play,

- listen to music;
 - to detect and observe one's musical expression and to respect the musical expression of others;
 - meet with children songs, short vocal and instrumental works and part of folk music;
 - Listen carefully to the statements of others (teacher's instructions, the ideas of classmates, etc.)
2. Manual teaching technique
- Listen carefully to the statements of the teacher, the ideas of classmates, etc;
3. Knowledge, abilities, skills and habits
- get rid of stress, emotional tension by listening to music and musical expression;
 - showing interest and desire to perform music activities;
 - to gain confidence in performing musical activities (orientation in space, coordination of movements, observing and changing the

sequence of movements, the pursuit of wholesome psycho-motorical activity);

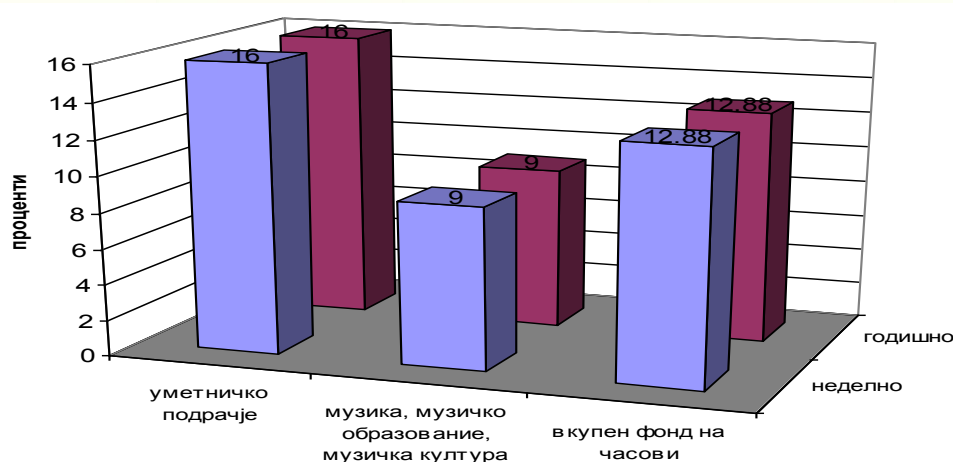
- to experience the beauty of music;
- b. Representation of the number of hours according to program areas in the total number of hours (Curriculum 8th and 7th grade in 1996; Curriculum 8th and 7th grade 1996 - amendment of the 7th and 5th 1998; Curriculum for 8th and 7th grade in 1996 - amendments of the 1st and 11th 2000; Curriculum for 8th and 7th grade in 1996 - Amendments of the 10th and 4th grade in 2001; 5th grade in 2001; Curriculum for 8th and 7th grade in 1996 - Amendments of the 16th and the 7th grade in 2002; 8th grade in 2002; Curriculum for 8th and 7th in 1996 - Amendments of 2004; Curriculum for 8th and 7th grade 1996 - Amendments of 2006; Curriculum since 2007)



(21% natural sciences, 18% artistic area, 16% physical and health education, 13% language and literature, 12% mathematical, 10% technical area, 10% social sciences)

- c. Representation of music education in the art area and that the total number of hours (Curriculum 8th and 7th grade 1996; Curriculum for 8th and 7th grade in 1996 - amendment of the 7th and 5th grade in 1998; Curriculum for 8th and 7th grade . 1996 - amendment of the 1st and 11th grade in 2000; Curriculum for 8th and 7th grade in 1996 – Amendments for the 10th and 4th grade in 2001; for 5th grade in 2001; Curriculum for 8th and 7th grade in 1996 – amendments for 7th grade in 2002; for 8th grade in 2002; Curriculum for 8th and 7th grade in 1996 - Amendments in 2004; Curriculum for 8th and 7th grade in 1996 - Amendments of 2006; Curriculum since 2007)

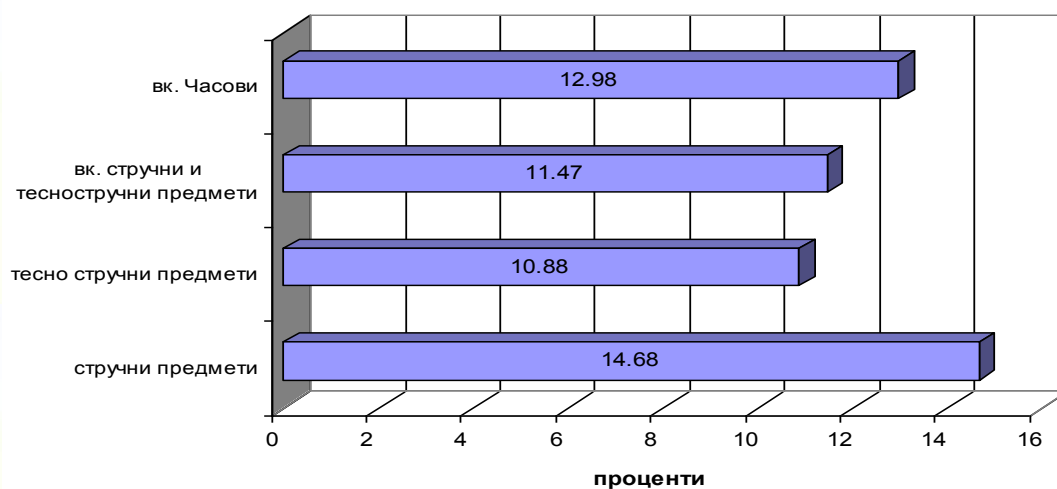
PRESENTATION AND COMPATIBILITY OF VOCAL AND MANUAL TEACHING TECHNIQUES AND OTHER CAPABILITIES, SKILLS, HABITS AND KNOWLEDGE IN TEACHING MUSIC PROGRAMS IN FYROM COMPARED WITH OTHER COUNTRIES FROM EUROPE



(16% artistic area, 12.88% total number of classes, 9% music, musical education, musical culture, weekly, yearly).
The colors represent the different percentages, i.e. the difference within the changes in the curriculum

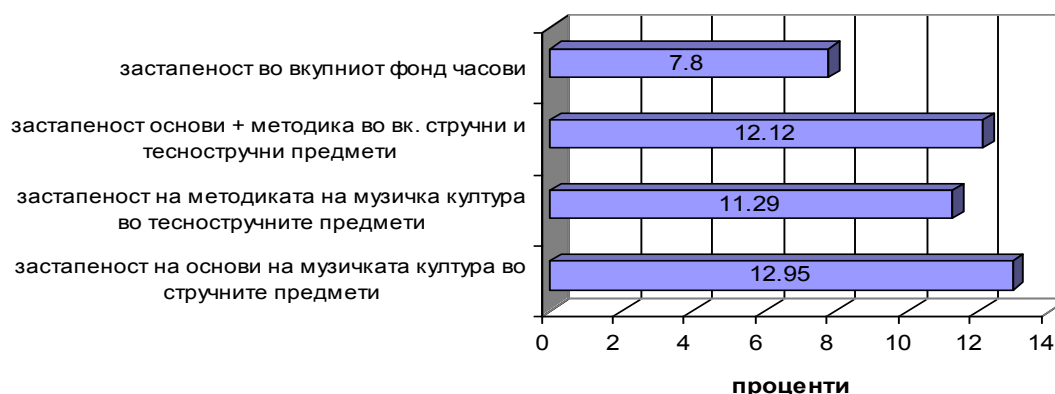
- d. Annual number of classes by programming the core faculties of teacher education (Pedagogical Faculty "Sv. Kliment Ohridski" -

Skopje, 1998; Oggenovski, T., (2005), Faculty of Education 1995-2005)



(14.68% specific subjects, 12.98% total number of classes, 11.47% total number of specific and narrowly-connected subjects, 10.88% more specific subjects)

- e. Proportion of subjects from the basics of musical culture and methodology of musical culture in professional and vocational subjects closely by programming the core faculties of teacher education (Pedagogical Faculty "Sv. Kliment Ohridski" - Skopje, 1998; Oggenovski, T. (2005), Faculty of Education (1995-2005)



(12.95% representation of the basics of musical culture in the specific subjects, 12.12% representation of the basic+ methodology in the total number of the specific and narrowly-connected subjects, 11.29% representation of the methodology and the musical culture in the specific subjects, 7.8% representation of the total number of classes)

- f. Methods for acquiring competence profile teacher in elementary school who can perform the teaching of music / music education / musical culture (Pedagogical Faculty "Sv. Kliment Ohridski" - Skopje, 1998; Ogdenovski, T., (2005), Pedagogical Faculty (1995-2005)

For the education of teachers in elementary school who are competent to implement teaching music education in the Republic. FYROM three pedagogical faculties in Skopje, Bitola and Stip (mandatory subject musical instrument application of ECTS becomes an optional subject) are in charge. Given that the three faculties have identical curricula for the profile of a grade teacher, that teacher is identical and curricula for the subjects musical instrument, basic music culture and methodology of musical culture. Students are introduced to concepts in the field of music, sounds, musical systems and musical values, basic scales, intervals, meter, rhythm, melody, dynamics, tempo, articulation and are familiar with the contents of the history of music, the methodology of musical content and their practical implementation, etc. Classes last four academic years.

2. Austria

- a. Presentation of vocal and manual teaching techniques and other capabilities, skills,

habits and knowledge (Parent Information Booklet, Vienna International School, from 2007 to 2008)

1. Vocal technique

- education for female and male voices, expanding the repertoire of songs from different cultures, increasing the ability to sing notes Mon, independent singing and singing in harmony with others;
- listening to children's songs from school choir, presenting music of different cultures, comparative listening to music from different cultures;

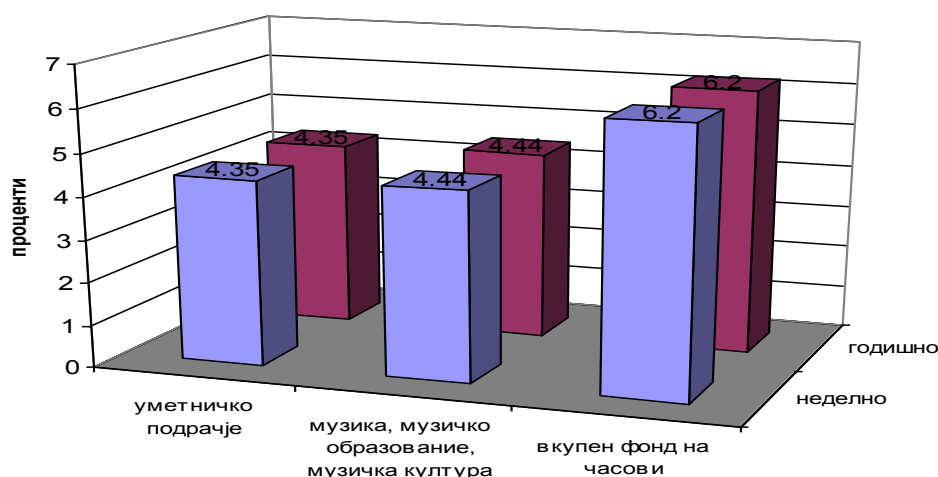
2. Manual teaching technique

- understanding of music and reading music lyrics: rhythm and movement, melody, harmony, form, tone color;
- DMI playing, conducting, forming a musical ensemble;
- improvising with DMI, rhythmic and driving activities, dramatization of songs, composing, experimenting with music;

3. Knowledge, abilities, skills and habits

- content is not predicted

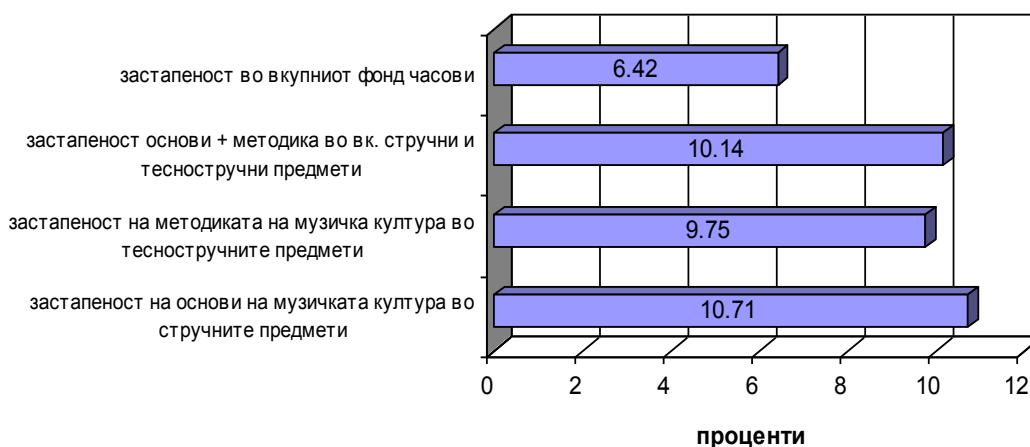
- b. Representation of music education in the art area and that the total number of hours (Eurybase - Austria - 2006/2007, www.eurydice.org)



(6.2% total number of classe, 4.44% music, musical education, musical culture , 4.35% artistic area, weekly, yearly).
The colors represent the different percentages, i.e. the difference within the changes in the curriculum

- c. Proportion of subjects from the basics of musical culture and methodology of musical culture in professional and vocational subjects closely by programming the core faculties of education of teachers (Website

Pädagogische Akademie Innsbruck:
<http://www.pa-tirol.tsn.at> , website
 Pädagogisches Institut Innsbruck:
<http://www.pi-tirol.at>)



(10.71% representation of the basics of musical culture in the specific subjects, 10.14% representation of the basic+methodology in the total number of the specific and narrowly-connected subjects, 9.75% representation of the methodology and the musical culture in the specific subjects, 6.42% representation of the total number of classes)

- d. Methods for acquiring competence profile teacher in elementary school who can perform the teaching of music / music education / musical culture (European Forum for Music Education and Training, Overview of Music Teacher Training System in Austria, Source: Franz Niermann, Head of department of music education, University of

Vienna, chairperson of EAS)

Education teachers in elementary school who are competent to implement teaching music education in Austria is responsible: 1. Volksschulen - (6-10 yr.), Class teachers, **to join the pedagogical academies is provided a special test of music**, provide practical and theoretical

content, 2. Hauptschulen - (11-15 yr.), Subject teachers, pedagogical academies, specialized in addition to music and another subject, I foresee practical and theoretical content

3. The Czech Republic

a. Presentation of vocal and manual teaching techniques and other capabilities, skills, habits and knowledge (International School Prague, Czech Republic, Improving Pupils' Achievements)

1. Vocal technique

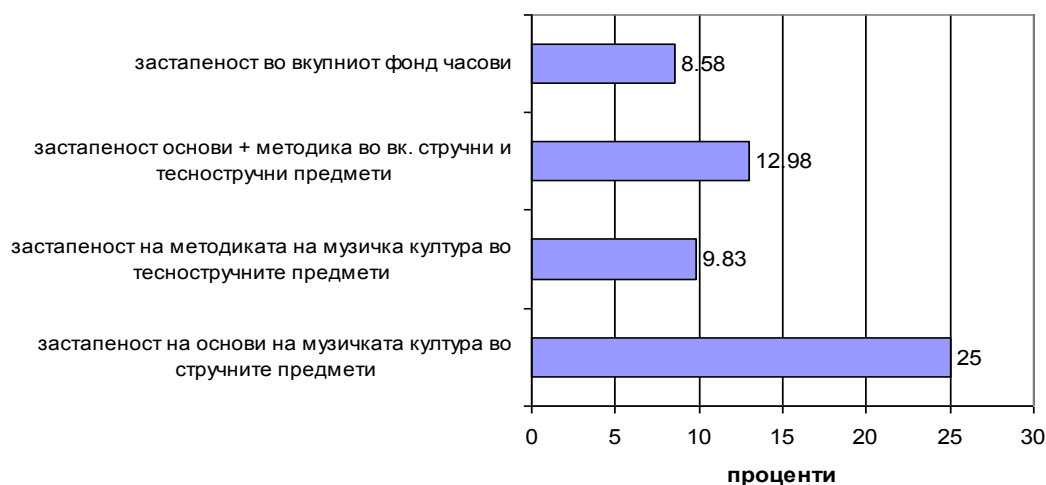
- singing of folk songs and patriotically themed songs;
- study of pitch - high and low;
- singing with the whole class;
- acquaintance with pitch and rhythm;

2. Manual teaching technique

- study of musical rhythm;
- introduction to tact and rhythm;
- musical pace - fast / slow;

- work with rhythm;
3. Knowledge, abilities, skills and habits
- introduction to musical elements;
 - notation marking;
 - acquaintance with the history of music;
 - musical dynamics;
 - introduction to musical dynamics and tempo music;
 - introduction to musical directions

b. Proportion of subjects from the basics of musical culture and methodology of musical culture in professional and vocational subjects closely by programming the core faculties of teacher education (Teacher Education in the Czech Republic, Helena Grecmanová, Drahomíra Holoušová and Eva Urbanovská, Faculty of Education, Palacky University, Olomouc, Czech Republic)



(25% representation of the basics of musical culture in the specific subjects, 12.98% representation of the basic+ methodology in the total number of the specific and narrowly-connected subjects, 9.83% representation of the methodology and the musical culture in the specific subjects, 8.58% representation of the total number of classes)

c. Method of acquiring competencies profile for teachers in elementary school who can perform the teaching of music / music education / musical culture (<http://www1.cuni.cz/fakulty.php?fakulta=p edf&lng=eng>)

Education of teachers of music education in primary education, first level (1-4 grade. I.e. students from 6 to 10 years of age) predicts the Institutes of Pedagogy in the curricula of teacher education profile in primary education and last 3

+2 academic years, i.e. 3 academic years of undergraduate education and **2 academic years of postgraduate education where candidates acquire subject specialty field of music.** Subject programs within which predicted the content area of music are compulsory for all students. **The educational systems in these two states (Slovakia and Czech Republic) is a characteristic that if a student has only undergraduate education i.e. bakelar he cannot be a grade teacher but only as an aide to the class teacher,**

while if the candidate has completed a *master's degree and received a master's degree by assigning a specific subject majors in music education that case though it may be a departmental teacher he can be taught and music education in upper classes.*

4. Slovakia

a. Presentation of vocal and manual teaching techniques and other capabilities, skills, habits and knowledge (The International School of Bratislava, Slovakia, Parent Handbook, 2007/2008)

1. Vocal technique

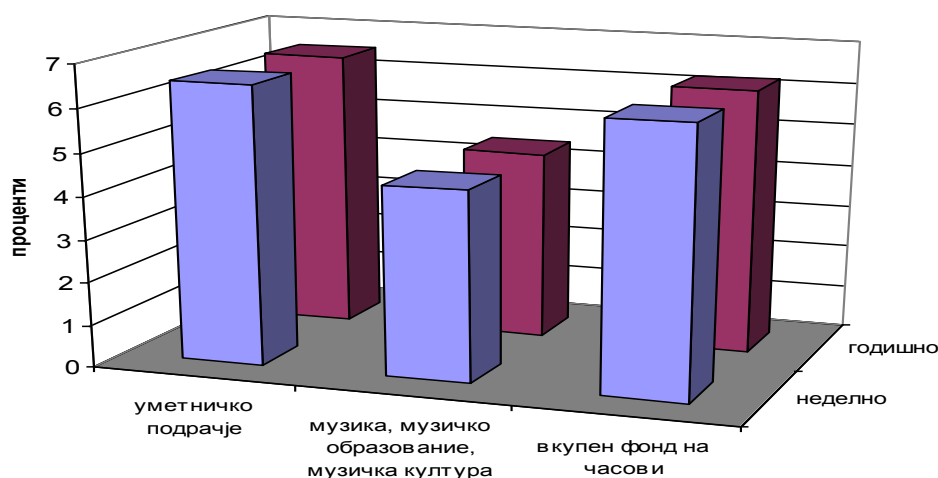
- development of skills for singing and other essential musical skills (listening, aural memory and physical skills);
- development of skills among students to identify different types of notes, a change in the use of voices;

- formation of different types of sounds using their voices, bodies, objects from the classroom and DMI;
- gained knowledge to use in the school choir;

2. Manual teaching technique

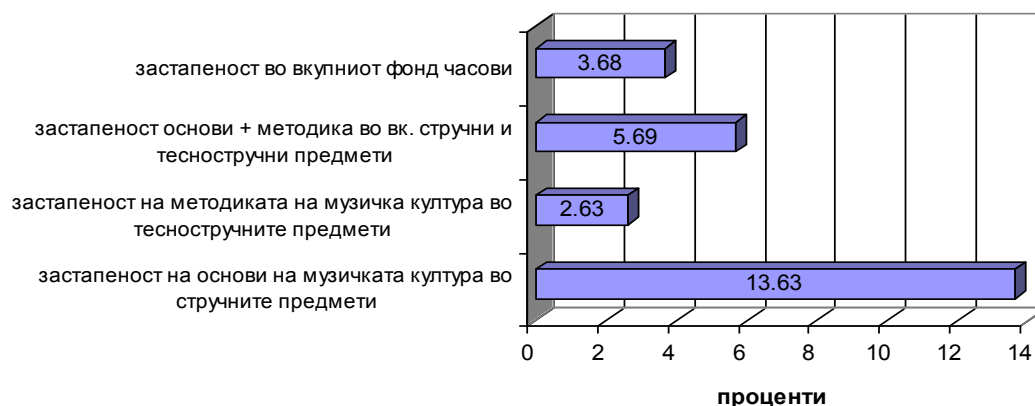
- development of students' abilities to discriminate long and short sounds and to use the formation of sequences of sounds;
- development of students' skills in recognizing the differences between tact sing and rhythm

b. Representation of music education in the art area and that the total number of hours (Eurydice - Slovakia - 2006/2007, www.eurydice.org)



(percentage; artistic area, music, musical education, musical culture, total number of classes, weekly, yearly)

c. Proportion of subjects from the basics of musical culture and methodology of musical culture in professional and vocational subjects closely by programming the core faculties of education of teachers (www.fedu.uniba.sk/fileadmin/user_upload/editors/KP_Rehus/Sylaby/VD-BO.doc)



(3.68% representation of the total number of classes, 5.69% representation of the basic+ methodology in the total number of the specific and narrowly-connected subjects, 2.63% representation of the methodology and the musical culture in the specific subjects, 13.63% representation of the basics of musical culture in the specific subjects)

- d. Methods for acquiring competence profile teacher in elementary school who can perform the teaching of music / music education / musical culture (European Forum for Music Education and Training, Source: Prof.Dr.phil. Irena Mednanska, Music Institute)

Education of teachers of music education in primary education, first level (1-4 grade. I.e. students from 6 to 10 years of age) predicts the Institutes of Pedagogy in the curricula of teacher education profile in primary education and last 3 +2 academic years, i.e. 3 academic years of undergraduate education and 2 academic years of postgraduate education where candidates acquire subject specialty field of music. Subject programs within which predicted the content area of music are compulsory for all students. Educational systems in these two countries (Slovakia and Czech Republic) is a characteristic that if a student has only undergraduate education i.e. bachelor, it cannot be a grade teacher but only as an aide to the class teacher, while if the candidate has completed a master's degree and received a master's degree by assigning a specific subject majors in music education that case though it may be grade teacher he can teach and musical education in upper classes.

5. Spain

- a. Presentation of vocal and manual teaching techniques and other capabilities, skills, habits and knowledge (The School of Gran Canaria, Parent Handbook, 2007/2008)

1. Vocal technique

- In the lower grades of elementary school and more attention is given to singing children's songs, the development of practical skills among students and understanding of music;
- introduction to singing children's songs which develop their vocal cords;
- introduction of DMI so19.1 school choir;
- introduction to vocal music;

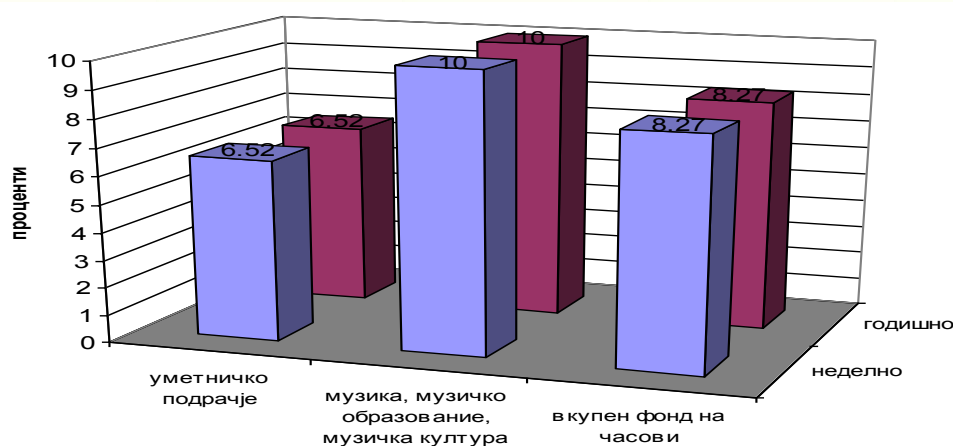
2. Manual teaching technique

- not provide content

3. Knowledge, abilities, skills and habits

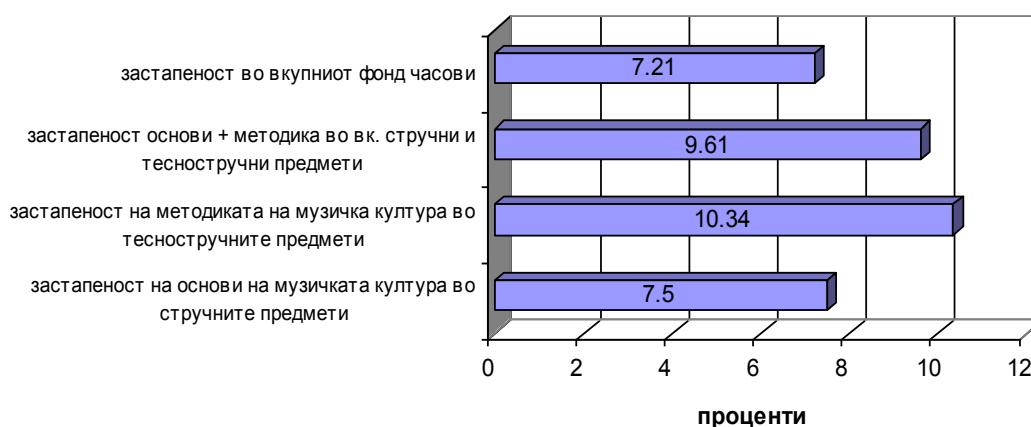
- developing the ability to listen when the teacher plays the children's musical instruments different types of melodies and thereby develop their hearing skills;

- b. Representation of music education in the art area and that the total number of hours (Eurybase - Spain - 2006/2007, www.eurydice.org)



(8.27 % total number of classes, 10% music, musical education, musical culture, 6.52 % artistic area, weekly, yearly).
The colors represent the different percentages, i.e. the difference within the changes in the curriculum

- c. Proportion of subjects from the basics of musical culture and methodology of musical culture in professional and vocational subjects closely by programming the core faculties of education of teachers (<http://www.ucm.es/estudiaconnosotros>)



(7.21% representation of the total number of classes, 9.61% representation of the basic+ methodology in the total number of the specific and narrowly-connected subjects, 10.34% representation of the methodology and the musical culture in the specific subjects, 7.5% representation of the basics of musical culture in the specific subjects)

- d. Methods for acquiring competence profile teacher in elementary school who can perform the teaching of music / music education / musical culture (European Forum for Music Education and Training, Source: Prof. Dr. eur. José A. Rodríguez-Quilles y García (University of Granada))

Education teachers who are competent to teach music according to educational reform in Spain is responsible for university education of staff on primary education and faculties of

education of staff for music pedagogy. According to the Spanish education system in primary education compulsory curriculum in certain subjects including music education is flexible and subject to changes which depend on the region in which the primary school of each individual elementary school teachers who are competent to teach music. In primary schools (for working with students from 6-12 years old) music is part of arts education, along with art and drama. In order to achieve specific goals for music in

primary education is established a new methodology that focuses on three main areas: listening and understanding music creation and comparative analysis. Education teachers who are trained to teach music in faculties of education are in charge of teaching staff of various universities throughout Spain. The wards represented subject or curriculum for training of candidates who are competent to teach music is not allowed to conduct entrance exams to assess musical knowledge, abilities and skills of candidates. As a result, groups of students are significantly mixed: students with knowledge of the elements of music (music students in secondary schools) and students who have no knowledge of the music. As a result of the decisions of the institutes to the title in the diploma, for e.g. Graduate teacher candidates who showed knowledge of music from the first semester of education to the title in the Diploma correspondence subject specialty music education or music education specialist.

6. United Kingdom

a. Presentation of vocal and manual teaching techniques and other capabilities, skills, habits and knowledge (The National Curriculum for England, www.nc.uk.net)

1. Vocal technique

- enable students to sing children's songs, simple melodies and sing Mon rhyme;
- To explore, choose and organize

musical voices and musical ideas;

- concentrated to listen and perceive and repeat notes and thus increases their sluhova memory;
- to enable that way to use the musical elements in terms of height and color tone, duration, dynamics, tempo, structure and in which way they can manipulate the processing of a musical work;

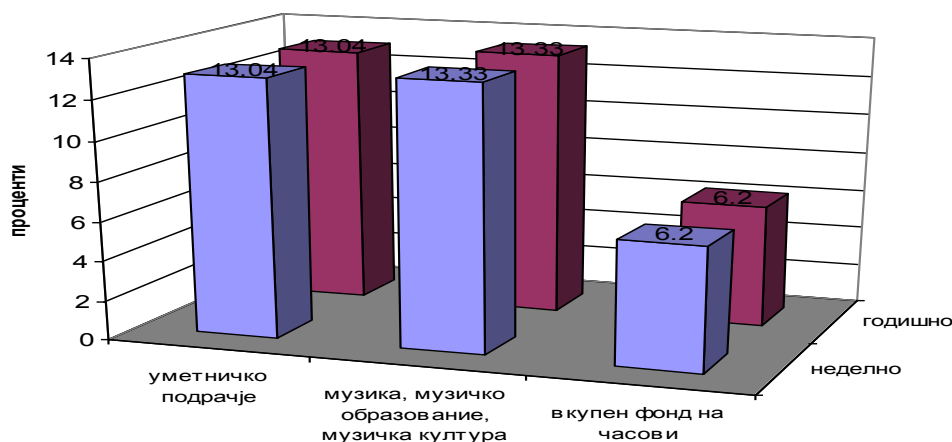
2. Manual teaching technique

- to try and perform with their classmates (e.g. starting and finishing together, keeping the tact);
- be able that way to use the musical elements in terms of height and color tone, duration, dynamics, tempo, structure, and that way they can manipulate the processing of a musical work;

3. Knowledge, abilities, skills and habits

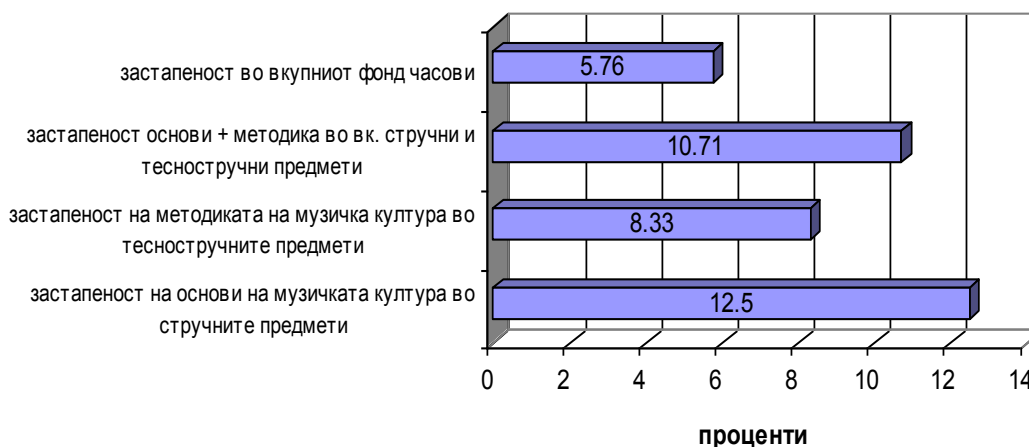
- explore and determine their ideas and feelings about music using movement, playing through musical language;
- be trained on how to use music for specific purposes;

b. Representation of music education in the art area and that the total number of hours (Eurybase - England, Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland - 2006/2007, www.eurydice.org)



(13.33% music, musical education, musical culture, 13.04% artistic area, 6.2% total number of classes, weekly, yearly). The colors represent the different percentages, i.e. the difference within the changes in the curriculum

- c. Proportion of subjects from the basics of musical culture and methodology of musical culture in professional and vocational subjects closely by programming the core faculties of education of teachers (<http://courses.brighton.ac.uk/course.php?cnum=520>)



(5.76% representation of the total number of classes, 10.71% representation of the basic+ methodology in the total number of the specific and narrowly-connected subjects, 8.33% representation of the methodology and the musical culture in the specific subjects, 12.5% representation of the basics of musical culture in the specific subjects)

- d. methods for acquiring competence profile teacher in elementary school who can perform the teaching of music / music education / musical culture (European Forum for Music Education and Training, Source: John Stephens)

For initial teacher education (ITT) in the United Kingdom with its constituent countries England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland are considered common features that apply to the four constituent countries. Education of teachers in lower grades (in primary schools under the jurisdiction of the state) who have competence to carry out teaching music education for universities that provided study groups for this profile of teachers. Education of the profile last 3 academic years after graduation candidates acquire the right of academic degree "graduate teacher" but before they have to meet certain standards such as: 1. knowledge of the educational system, including knowledge of the manner in evaluating education 2. Knowledge about the national curriculum (development requirements), 3. Competencies in formation and changes in the national curriculum 4. Application of modern ICT in teaching, etc.. The curricula of

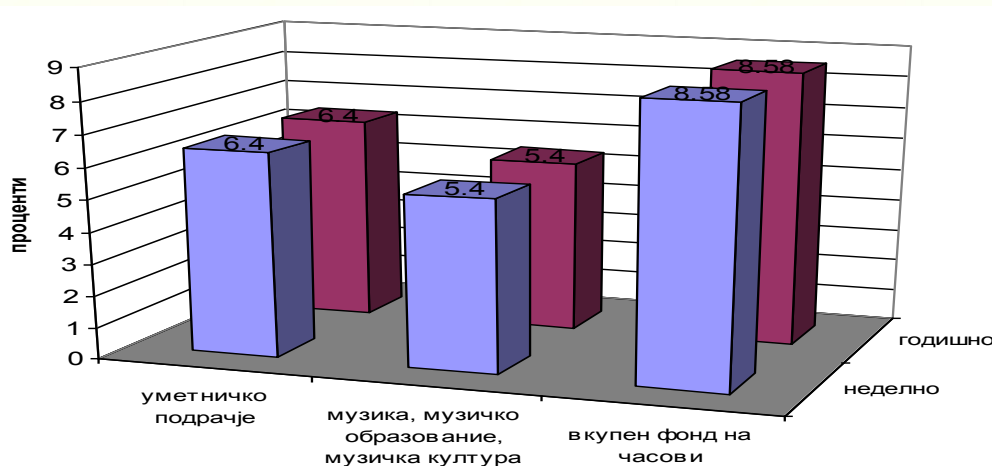
the profile of teachers predict different disciplines, including art as standard curriculum for education of this kind account of teachers. It should be noted that the subject programs within the study groups are not mandatory for students, but if students choose to attend for items with content area of music that lasts too short during the semester (in the opinion of competent in this area).

7. Croatia

- a. Presentation of vocal and manual teaching techniques and other capabilities, skills, habits and knowledge (Hrvatski nacionalni obrazovni standard, GLAZBENA KULTURA 1-3)
- Vocal technique
 - recognizing and distinguishing sense of hearing pitch (high / low tone)
 - sense of hearing differentiating and determining the dynamics of the composition (quiet / loud);
 - sense of hearing distinguish and determine the direction of movement of the melody (up /

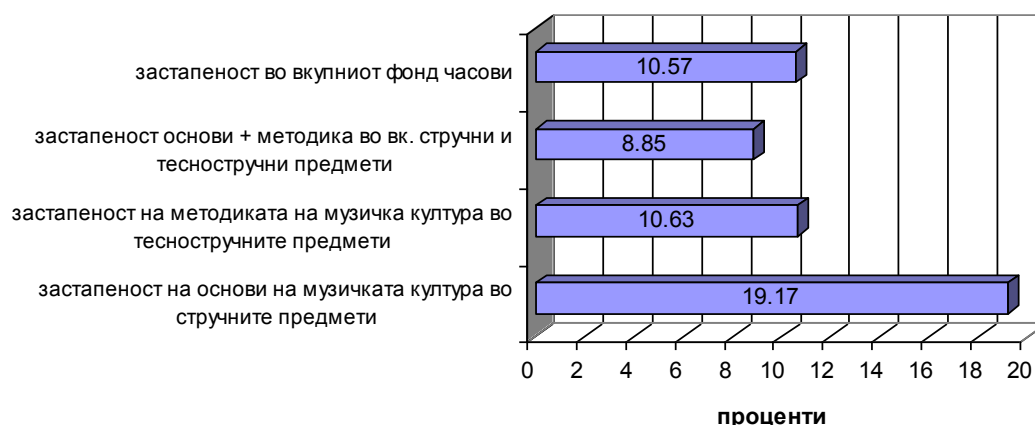
- down);
- Development of intonational capabilities;
 - identifying and differentiating the hearing vocal, instrumental and vocal and instrumental music;
2. Manual teaching technique
- sense of hearing perceiving and distinguishing the tone duration (long / short ton);
 - sense of hearing distinguish and determine the pace of the composition (slow / moderate / fast);
 - Development of rhythmic skills;
 - the development of musical memory;

3. Knowledge, abilities, skills and habits
- develop motor coordination and body to play a children's musical instruments;
 - enrich children's emotional world;
 - development of musical taste through the establishment of values and criteria for critical and aesthetic evaluation of music;
 - encourage confidence in personal musical abilities
- b. Representation of music education in the art area and that the total number of classes (World Data Of Education, 4 the Ed., 2001., page 1762)



(8.58% total number of classes, 6.4% artistic area, 5.4% music, musical education, musical culture, weekly, yearly)

- c. Proportion of subjects from the basics of musical culture and methodology of musical culture in professional and vocational subjects closely by programming the core faculties of education of teachers (http://www.odsjek-gospic.net/sveucilisni_studij.html)
- The colors represent the different percentages, i.e. the difference within the changes in the curriculum



(10.57% representation of the total number of classes, 8.85% representation of the basic+ methodology in the total number of the specific and narrowly-connected subjects, 10.63% representation of the methodology and the musical culture in the specific subjects, 19.17% representation of the basics of musical culture in the specific subjects)

- d. Methods for acquiring competence profile teacher in elementary school who can perform the teaching of music / music education / musical culture (http://www.odsjek-gospic.net/sveucilisni_studij.html)

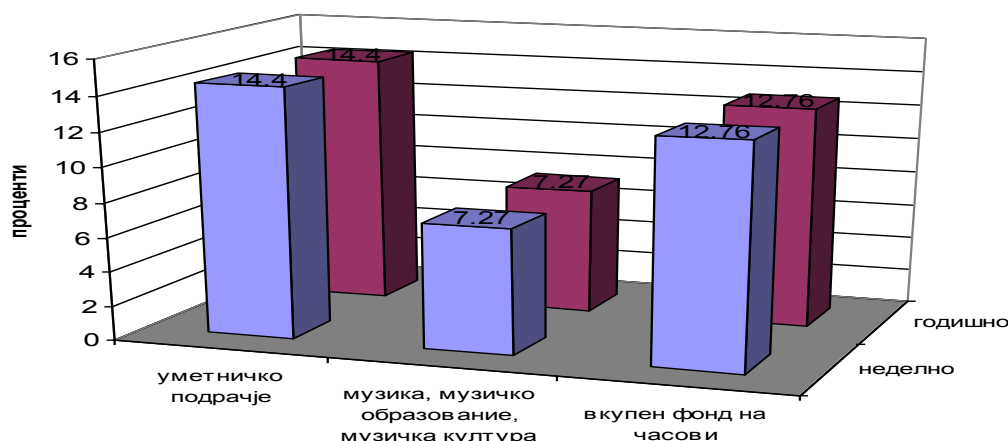
Education teachers in elementary school who are competent to implement teaching music education in Croatia charge Pedagogical academies in Zagreb and Rijeka. Within the curriculum for the profile grade teacher there are study programs in music literature, music, culture, music practicum, methodology of musical culture. Teaching of music culture is connected with music culture and methodology of musical culture. Students are familiar with basic knowledge of musical literature, following the successful implementation of this program subject students will be able to read and write music. The curriculum for the music culture includes the following contents: Music Culture in Ancient Greece, the Middle Ages, Renaissance, Baroque, Croatian music from 18th and 19th century opera in the 19th century musical styles in the 19th and 20th centuries. The curriculum for music practicum includes the following contents: introducing students to musical instruments, application of manual teaching techniques, application of durskite ladder, successfully playing with both hands, use of choral singing for different occasions. The curriculum for the methodology of musical

culture includes the following contents: concept and definition of the methodology of musical culture, the importance of musical culture during the elementary school, teaching forms and methods of work, the importance and development of musical improvisation, meaning the development of musical remembering, singing in the musical culture, and introducing the musical instruments to the children, etc.

8. Slovenia

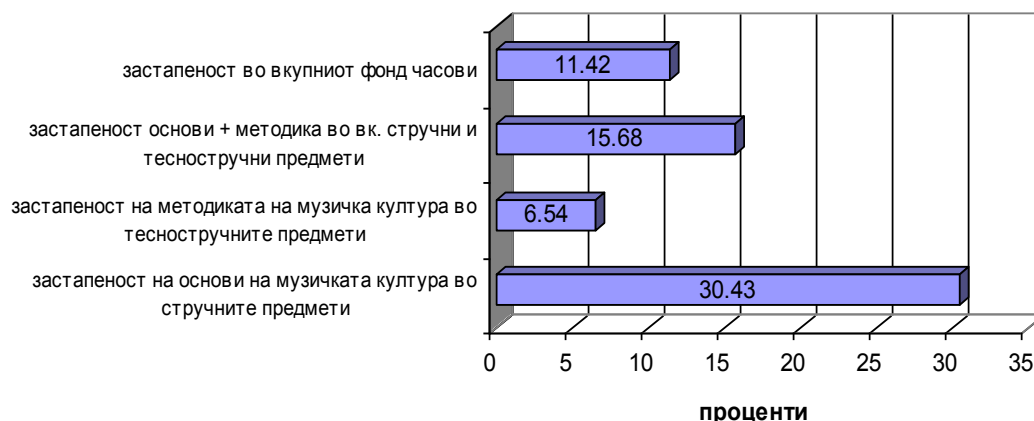
- a. Presentation of vocal and manual teaching techniques and other capabilities, skills, habits and knowledge (Nacionalni kurikularni svet, Podračna kurikularna komisija za osnovno šolo, Predmetna kurikularna komisija za glasbeno vzgojo)
1. Vocal technique
 - Singing for the maintenance of musical abilities;
 1. Manual teaching technique
 - Development of musical skills (melodic, rhythmic, harmonic, aesthetic shape, musicality), techniques of singing and playing musical instruments for children;
 2. Knowledge, abilities, skills and habits
 - interest in the positive sense of music;
 - interest in different types musical works;

- developing a positive attitude towards the Slavic church music;
 - develop responsibility in terms of cooperation Full music
 - correlation of music education content of the native language, foreign languages and art education;
- b. Representation of music education in the art area and that the total number of hours (Predmetnik devetletne osnovne šole, sprejet na 19. Seji strokovnega sveta republike slovenije za splošno izobraževanje, dne 15th 10th 1998)



(14.4% artistic area, 12.76% total number of classes, 7.27% music, musical education, musical culture, weekly, yearly)

- c. Proportion of subjects from the basics of musical culture and methodology of musical culture in professional and vocational subjects closely by programming the core faculties of education of teachers (Študijski program je sprejel Znanstveno pedagoški svet Univerzev Ljubljani dne 27.06.1995, Senat Univerze na sejdne 17.10 .1995,
- soglasje k programu pa je dal Svet Republike Slovenije za visoko šolstvo dne 24.11.1995. Spremembe in dopolnitve programa so bile potrjene na Svetu Republike Slovenije za visoko šolstvo dne 30.01.1996, dne 29.11.2002 in dne 11.04.2003.)



(11.42% representation of the total number of classes, 15.68% representation of the basic+ methodology in the total number of the specific and narrowly-connected subjects, 6.54% representation of the methodology and the musical culture in the specific subjects, 30.43% representation of the basics of musical culture in the specific subjects)

- d. methods for acquiring competence profile teacher in elementary school who can perform the teaching of music / music education / musical culture (European Forum

for Music Education and Training, Source: PhD Branka Rotar Pance, University of Ljubljana, Academy of Music)

Education teachers who are competent to implement teaching music education in the first developmental period of primary education (1-3 grade). Slovenian Ministry has accredited study and subject programs within the Faculty of Pedagogy in Ljubljana, Maribor and Primorsko. These musical education teachers can teach and students of the second developmental period (4-6 grade.), But if created conditions in a primary school then this role is given to subject teachers who have studied music education at the Music Academy in Ljubljana. The specialized programs accredited by the Slovenian Ministry of Education for a period of 2 academic years of graduate teachers can choose subject specialty field of music and thus gain competence to teach the students of the third development period i.e. in subject teaching (7-9 grade). Instruction is carried out according to the system 3 +2 academic years, i.e. three academic years in the first cycle of higher education and 2 academic years of the second cycle.

9. Conclusion

Dynamics of the present rapid flow of ideas, information and goods and reforms in all spheres of life, puts man in a constant position of changing and adapting. These term mean for us looking for timely consideration of the needs and problems of the present in preparation for a successful celebration of the future. In all of these situations, the constant changes represent a form of mutual understanding and cooperation, especially regarding the exchange of experiences. The art of sound expression penetrates into all areas of human life and child development. The music however, in itself, is not used nor could have a significant impact. The interweaving and complementing of music to the other arts, social influence and various kinds of education get some aesthetic and ethical sense and represents a contribution to the development of the young person. "Every child is a potential artist." "No art cannot act without a drop of didacticism."

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PRIMARY EDUCATION HEAD TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS CONCERNING THE SCHOOL- FAMILY RELATIONSHIP

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Abstract

This paper aims to record the status quo, according to the legal framework that defines the cooperation between schools and families to explore the way in which school directors perceive:

- The content, forms, fields and relations of cooperation within the school and family
- The role of teachers and parents in this partnership and
- The extent to which they can effectively manage their meetings with parents.

The questionnaire was completed anonymously by 115 head teachers of primary education in the Ionian Islands region, school year 2010-11. According to the results, we observe that head teachers emphasize their roles hierarchically in fields related to learning, physical, social and emotional development of children, adapting instruction to the class data and the school-community relationship. The findings of the study indicate the need to enrich the knowledge and training of school directors in effective communication techniques and to design joint plans for cooperation with their students' families. This is evident from the fact that school directors lack theoretical knowledge of certain factors which can promote an effective communication with parents.

Keywords: *family-school relations, parents, perceptions, school directors, teachers*

1. Introduction

Cooperation between schools and families began to be an important topic of educational research, particularly in the U.S. and Great Britain in the 20th century (Berger 2004). This is due, among others, to the common problems faced by parents and teachers in relation to children and the need to address these problems together (Mprouzos 1995). The family as a system with specific national educational, cultural and economic characteristics can also affect education of children to a large extent (Coleman 1998). There is a need to enhance the education of children with special needs in collaboration with the family, but there is also general requirement for the academic success of children

and reduction of the percentage of students who leave school (Berger 2004, Epstein 2001).

Cooperation between schools and families and teachers is characterized by mutual trust and appreciation. It is a complicated and not binary relationship which is influenced by the different environments-social, geographic, economic, cultural and educational resources within which parents and teachers act. The quality of this collaboration affects the quality of education (Georgiou 2000, Mprouzos 1995, Epstein 2001). Numerous studies confirm the positive results of cooperation between school and family and the involvement of parents in their children's education. The results are related to children, parents and families in general, and teachers and schools generally (Coleman 1998, Dodontsakis 1995, Epstein 2001, Georgiou 1998, Griffith 1996, Liou and Chien 1998). What seems to be important is the efficiency of communication between school and family for the cases of children with special needs and behavioral problems (Mc Conaghuy, Kay & Fitzgerald 2000, Walker et al. 1998).

The relations between school and family are different in several periods. These relationships are shown through certain models on the basis of different theoretical approaches (Georgiou 2000). According to Matsagouras (2005) the models developed and implemented are categorized as follows: (a) School-centered ones, (c) Negotiating models in which the psycho-pedagogical and the policy parameter rule jointly and (d) family-centered models in which the policy parameter dominates (Matsagouras 2008). Epstein (2001) categorizes the models according to the way responsibilities are allocated between school and family during the education of children. From the distribution of responsibilities between the two organizations certain models arise: (a) the ones with separate school and family responsibilities (b) models in which the school and the family share responsibilities and (c) models in which the school and the family take responsibility successively. Epstein (2001) also proposed the spherical model of overlapping spheres (overlapping spheres) which is based on the systemic one. According to this the relations of school, family and community and the degree of interaction between organizations and their members is proportional to the degree of overlap of the spheres, in the

intersection of which is the child (ibid. 2001).

The different ways in which the family communicates with the school are attributed with the generic term "parental involvement." In literature, the term tends to be an "umbrella title" quite "unclear" (Georgiou 2000), under which can fit any practical involvement of parents in their children's education. This parental involvement can affect the effectiveness of the educational process (Pasiardi 2001) and is included in the 16 criteria of the European Union for the quality of education (European REPORT FOR THE QUALITY OF SCHOOL EDUCATION SIXTEEN EDUCATION INDICATORS, 2000). The benefits of involvement vary according to the practices put into effect (Epstein 2001).

During the literature survey various types of parental involvement have been recorded in education (Georgiou 2000, Vincent 1996), which according to the activities of parents are distinguished in: (a) those which aim at strengthening school programs generally and indirectly affect only their own children, and (b) those types targeting to support only their own children (Greenwood & Hikman 1991).

The classification proposed by Epstein (2001) for communication and cooperation between schools and families is the most useful and acceptable (Georgiou 2000) and includes the following: 1. School assistance at home (parenting): parents are educated with school initiatives to be effective in their role 2. School and family communication (communicating): parents and school inform each other on issues relating to the child in order to be more effective in their role, 3. Voluntary assistance of parents at school (volunteering): The school creates the conditions and determine the ways in which parents will help teachers, 4. Learning at home (learning at home): teachers provide guidance to parents so as to help their children constructively in their homework, 5. Participation in school management issues (decision making): parents participate after training and through parents' associations at all levels of decision-making on educational issues. 6. Cooperation school-family-community (collaborating with the community): it is the activation of organizations and helping to strengthen school programs, education and development of children, assisting family and promoting children's health (Epstein 2001).

The framework of communication between

the school and the family within the Greek educational system is defined by N. 1566/85 and Presidential Decree 201/98, Article 11. According to these, school undertakes the responsibility mainly to inform parents about the progress and conduct of students and issues of the school function. Teachers will convene a meeting with the parents so as to notify the goals of APS and DEPPS (Pedagogical Institute 2003) and the methodology to be applied, and the school proposes and implements training workshops for parents. Parents work with teachers in the classroom in case their children have some learning or other disabilities. Parents have an important role in preparing children at home through the institution of "homework." They are also expected to participate voluntarily in organizing various events. The school and especially the head teacher is responsible for and takes the initiative in organizing these meetings and the communication.

Parents communicate with the school and through statutory bodies that is, the Parents Association of the school, the parents' union, and federation and co federation of parents (N. 2621/98, article 10, paragraphs 1-10). Cooperation between schools and families is affected by factors which relate to all involved both as personalities and as organizations. These factors relate to teachers and parents as personalities, to the school as an organization and society, while the interest of researchers focuses on turns and role of children the last years (Beveridge 2004, Georgiou 2000, Coleman 1998, Epstein 2001). There are certain important factors, as regards the school, which play a decisive role, that is, efficacy, interests and attitudes of teachers towards cooperation with parents play an important role (Georgiou 2000, Greenwood and Hikman, 1991), their individual elements, poor teacher training the issue, lack of time on the part of teachers (Mponia, Mprouzos, Kossyvaki 2008), the relationship which they can develop with kids (Beveridge 2004) and teachers' perceptions of foreign parents.

The type and extent of communication between school and family depends largely on the attitudes and opinions of school directors on this issue. Surveys have shown (Stravakou 2003) that the Greek directors do not have regular contact with parents' associations and do not inform them about school documents;

nevertheless, they urge teachers to collaborate to a larger extent with their student's parents and even to ensure peace and cooperation between teachers and parents.

2. The aim of the research

This research work aims, firstly, to record the status quo in line with the legal framework that defines the school family cooperation and to explore the way in which Head teachers perceive:

- The content, forms, fields and the framework of relations of cooperation within the school and family
- The role of teachers and parents in this partnership and
- The extent to which they can effectively manage their meetings with parents.

3. Research instrument

The first section of the questionnaire investigation included 20 proposals related to the perceptions of school directors for their instructional and administrative roles and 22 proposals for the respective roles of parents-of which 20 were common to the perceptions of directors for their work .

These questions were grouped into the following statistical scales:

- learning process,
- adapting instruction to the needs of the class,
- physical, social and emotional development of children,
- school-community relationship (for the role of head teachers and parents) and parental involvement (for the role of parents).

The second section included 8 questions about the perception of head teachers on their ability to work with families of their students. The third and final section consisted of 10 questions in the areas of collaboration between school directors and parents. In every sentence of the questionnaire head teachers were asked to respond in a five-point Likert type scale according to the response which represented them (0 with the absolute refusal of the proposal and 4 the ultimate acceptance of the proposal).

4. Participants

The review of existing international and Greek literature and the analysis of free interviews with 15 head teachers who voluntarily participated in the pilot study led to the formulation of the final questionnaire, with which the perceptions of directors are detected in relation to the content, forms, fields and frame of relations of school cooperation with the family, the role of the director and the parents of children in this collaboration.

The final questionnaire was completed anonymously by 115 practicing primary school head teachers of the Ionian Islands educational district during the school year 2010-11.

5. Results

a) Perceptions of primary school directors for their role as teachers in relation to the role of parents in school-family relationship.

Table 1 shows the averages, standard deviations and reliability indicator (s), from the viewpoints of head teachers of Primary Education for their role as teachers in relation to the role of parents in school-family relationship.

According to the results, we observe that head teachers emphasize their roles hierarchically in fields related to the learning process ($M = 2,94$, $SD = ,244$), physical, social and emotional development of children ($M = 2.72$, $SD = ,559$), the adaptation of teaching in the class data ($M = 2,61$, $SD = ,489$), and the school-

community relationship ($M = 2,44$, $SD = ,567$). Reverse image presents the responses of head teachers as regards the role of parents where their responses have first hierarchical fields related to school-community relationship ($M = 1,40$, $SD = 1,13$), the learning process ($M = ,79$, $SD = ,75$), the physical, social and emotional development of children ($M = ,68$, $SD = ,79$) and the adaptation of teaching in the class data ($M = ,62$, $SD = ,669$).

In particular, to determine whether there are differences in the perceptions of head teachers of Primary Education for their role as teachers in relation to the role of parents in school-family relationship, a multivariate analysis of variance (Paired Samples Test) has been conducted with dependent variable their perceptions of their role as teachers in relation to the role of parents. The analyses showed that head teachers give significantly higher importance in their role as educators than the parents, as also shown by further analysis with t-test for independent samples. Specifically the corresponding results showed the following statistically significant results. Regarding the learning process ($t = 28,3$, $df = 110$, $p = 0.000$), the adaptation of teaching in the class data ($t = 25,4$, $df = 110$, $p = 0.000$), physical, social and emotional development of children ($t = 22,5$, $df = 110$, $p = 0.000$), school-community relationship ($t = 8,27$, $df = 110$, $p = 0.000$).

Table 1: Averages, standard deviations, reliability indices alpha, perceptions of Directors for their roles teachers in relation to the role of parents

report fields	perceptions of Directors							
	role of Teachers			role of Parents				
	Mean	SD	alpha	Mean	SD	alpha	t	Sig.
learning process	2,94	,244	0.66	,79	,752	0.75	28,380	,000
adapting instruction to data class	2,61	,489	0.61	,62	,661	0.82	25,405	,000
physical, social and emotional development of children	2,72	,559	0.68	,68	,798	0.81	22,514	,000
school-community relationship	2,44	,567	0.70	1,40	1,138	0.64	8,274	,000

* $p0.05$, ** $p0.01$

Perceptions of roles teachers - parents:

1. To what extent do you consider that the teacher assumes an important role in the following areas:
2. To what extent do you consider that parents have an important role in the following areas:

b) Perceptions of Primary Education head teachers for the role of parents

Table 2 shows the averages, standard deviations and reliability indicator (s), from the viewpoints of school directors of Primary Education about the importance of the role of parents in school-family relationship. In particular, to determine whether there are differences in perceptions of school directors of Primary Education for the role of parents in school-family relationship, a multivariate analysis of variance was conducted with dependent variable their perceptions about the role of parents. According to the results, it is

evident that through the responses of school directors concerning the importance of the role of parents, their perception is highlighted that within all the factors parents should just "merely suggest" or at best "to negotiate." In no case do the head teachers allow parents to "demand." Head teachers rated the importance of the role of parents in the fields related to the learning process ($M = 1,16$, $SD = ,769$), physical, social and emotional development of children ($M = 1,23$, $SD = ,726$) the adaptation of teaching in the class data ($M = 1,03$, $SD = ,530$), and the school-community relationship ($M = 1,50$, $SD = ,601$).

Table 2: Averages, standard deviations, reliability indices alpha, perceptions of school directors about the importance of the parental role

report fields	perceptions of Directors		
	Significant role of parents		
	Mean	SD	alpha
learning process	1,16	,769	0.71
adapting instruction to data class	1,03	,530	0.68
physical, social and emotional development of children	1,23	,726	0.74
school-community relationship	1,50	,601	0.75

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$

Perceptions of teachers – parents' roles: To what extent do you consider that parents have an important role in the following areas:

c) Perceptions of Primary Education head teachers concerning forms of cooperation between teachers and parents.

Table 3 presents the averages, standard deviations and reliability indicator (s), from the viewpoints of school directors of Primary Education for the way they believe they should cooperate as teachers with their students' families. We also note that in this section of questions, the aggregate reliability index was $\alpha = 0.72$.

In particular, to determine whether there are differences in perceptions of head teachers of Primary Education for the way you think it should work as teachers with families of their students, a multivariate analysis of variance was conducted with dependent variable their views on the forms of teacher-parents collaboration.

School directors agree on the main forms of cooperation of teachers and parents, which hierarchically are:

- "Parent- teacher meetings at school" (M

$= 3,80$, $SD = ,464$)

- "Invitation to parents for classroom cooperation" ($M = 2,65$, $SD = 1,36$)
- "The individual notes to parents" ($M = 2,12$, $SD = 1,32$)
- "Telephone calls at students' homes" ($M = 2,07$, $SD = 1,18$)

The least desirable forms of cooperation are:

- informative leaflets concerning the class news "($M = 1,93$, $SD = 1,31$)
- "diary recording between family and school" ($M = 1,81$, $SD = 1,32$)
- "teacher-parent meetings out of the school programme" ($M = 1,86$, $SD = 1,41$)
- 'teachers' visiting students at home "($M = ,64$, $SD = ,81$)

In all the proposed forms of cooperation within the questionnaire, the differences between the responses of school directors are not statistically significant.

Table 3: Averages, standard deviations, reliability indices alpha, the way head teachers think that they should work as teachers with the families of their students

report fields	perceptions of Directors		
	Mean	SD	alpha
1. parent-teacher meetings at school	3,80	,464	,702
2. telephone calls at students' homes	2,07	1,189	,639
3. separate notes to parents	2,12	1,329	,659
4. by inviting parents to cooperate in the classroom (to talk about their specialty or their personal experiences)	2,65	1,366	,680
5. informative leaflets concerning the class news	1,93	1,318	,591
6. diary recording between family and school	1,81	1,326	,614
7. meetings with the families of students out of the school programme	1,86	1,417	,666
8. teachers' visiting students at home	,64	,812	,670

*Forms of cooperation with parents***d) Perceptions of Primary Education head teachers in the areas of educational co-parents.**

A final section of the questionnaire was 10 questions which were the views of head teachers concerning the areas they believe they should cooperate as teachers with their students' families. The reliability indicator of head teachers' responses in these questions was alpha = 0.74.

Table 4 shows the averages, standard deviations and reliability indicator (s), from the viewpoints of head teachers of Primary Education in the areas they believe they should cooperate as teachers with their students' families. In particular, to determine whether there are differences in perceptions of head teachers of Primary Education in the domains they believe they should work as teachers with their students' families, a multivariate analysis of variance was put into effect with dependent variable their views on the forms of teacher-parents cooperation.

Head teachers *agree* on the main areas of cooperation forms with their parents, which hierarchically are:

- "To provide information to teachers about their child" (MC = 3,83, SD = ,420)
- 'Addressing behavioral problems of their child' (MC = 3,74, SD = ,55)
- "School's partnership with community agencies" (M = 2,92, SD = 1,02)

- 'Voluntary help at school' (M = 2,66, SD = 1,15)
- "The organization of activities to enhance the school fund" (MD = 2,34, SD = 1,32)
- "The completion of children's projects with the provision of knowledge" (M = 2,03, SD = 1,12)

The least desirable forms of cooperation are:

- 'Involvement in their child's homework' (MC = 1,74, SD = 1,16)
- 'Participation for selecting alternative books' (MD = 1,48, SD = 1,22)
- 'Participation in issues of school management' (M = ,95, SD = 1,15)
- "The conduct of the teaching with the role of 'assistant teacher'" (M = ,79, SD = 1,01)

Table 4: Averages, standard deviations, reliability indices alpha, of the sectors in which school directors believe that parents can get involved

	perceptions of Directors		
	Mean	SD	alpha
1. provide information to teachers about their child	3,83	,420	,768
2. participation in their child's homework	1,74	1,165	,757
3. in addressing behavioral problems of their child	3,74	,551	,768
4. The completion of children's projects with the provision of knowledge	2,03	1,120	,732
5. participation in the selection of alternative books	1,48	1,223	,731
6. in conducting the teaching with the role of 'assistant teacher'	,79	1,016	,748
7. in organizing activities to boost school funds	2,34	1,321	,745
8. voluntary help at school	2,66	1,153	,735
9. participation in issues of school management	,95	1,155	,743
10. school- community agencies collaboration	2,92	1,024	,761

*p0.05, **p0.01

Areas of cooperation with parents

In all proposed areas of cooperation in the questionnaire, the differences between the responses of school directors are not statistically significant.

6. Discussion

Both the school and the family are the institutional areas whose contribution is essential for the normal development of the child especially in the early school years. On condition that, the main objectives of both institutions, namely socialization and child's progress at school are common, we would expect to a large degree compatibility between goals. Correspondingly, we assume that those persons who particularize these two institutions that is, teachers and parents, are in constant collaboration. However, research shows that these two institutions are often in opposition.

According to research data, "social trust" between teachers and parents is an important factor for improving the school (Bryk & Schneider 2002). Teachers who believe that parents support their efforts are more willing to try new ideas and suggestions in their classroom. On the other hand, parents who feel that their offer is appreciated are willing to contribute to their children's school success. Additionally, students who know that parents and teachers

work together tend to work harder (Waller 1932).

This study attempts, through the use of a questionnaire, to explore the perceptions of primary education school directors in the Ionian Islands region, complementing the findings of previous investigations.

According to the perceptions of head teachers their roles as educators and the respective roles of parents differ, with the directors assuming a leading role in issues related to the learning process of children, while their parents are limited to physical, social and emotional development of children as well as to the growing of school-community relations, findings that are consistent with other studies (Graue & Brown 2003, Hughes & MacNaughton 1999). These differences in perceptions of school directors suggest that the key issue in school-family relations is the issue of having "knowledge-supremacy» (Hughes & MacNaughton 1999) or the "area of expertise" of each one (Phtiaka 1999). According to Phtiaka (1999), parents' knowledge is based on a case study, because they refer only to their children, and are often characterized by biases and contradictions. On the contrary, directors' knowledge is based both on their theoretical studies and on their experience on a large number of children, and it is free from bias.

Consequently, part of the problem in school-family relations lies on the fact that the directors consider that the specialized knowledge they have for children is the "scientific truth" and degrade the non-systematic, non-grounded theoretical knowledge from their parents. The determining, then, of the relationship of "knowledge-supremacy" between the school and parents is the first step towards the clarification of parental involvement.

In line with their perceptions of the role of teachers and parents lie the forms and areas of cooperation which head teachers prefer with parents. With regard to the forms of cooperation, head teachers prefer the traditional and standard formats, such as meetings with parents at school. A "standard" form of cooperation, however, is not successful. Effective communication presupposes that parents' voices should be heard, without jeopardizing the professional identity and scientific training of school directors (Hughes & MacNaughton 2001). Miretzky (2004) recognizes the importance of discussion between parents and school directors as the most important strategy to strengthen relations. What is more, regarding the areas of cooperation between teachers and parents, school directors preferred those domains of our research which suggested less parental involvement. Mprouzos (2003) reached a similar conclusion, whose research showed that while teachers said they are willing to cooperate with parents, in fact teachers sought cooperation from which they would derive information for their students.

The findings of the study indicate the need to enrich the knowledge and training of head teachers in effective communication techniques and design joint plans for cooperation with the families of their students. This is evident from the head teachers' admitting that they lack the theoretical knowledge of the basic factors which can promote an effective communication with parents. Besides that, the view of certain specialists that it is the school's responsibility to make the first step to approach the family (Harris, Kagay, & Ross 1987, Patrikakou & Weissberg 2000), makes it imperative to enrich initial training programmes with issues on school-family relationship. It is necessary, therefore, that school directors be trained with the aim of realizing the complicated situation

parents experience.

The basic principle of this research work is the belief that a genuine democratic and intercultural orientation of the multinational Greek school cannot be realized without the transformation and expansion of educational interaction and communication between school directors and their students as well as with their students' families. We refer to an interactive process that does not work negatively towards diversity, mutual respect, acceptance and enrichment of different cultural groups which coexist in the same classroom. This interactive process does not weaken the teacher and does not charge him/her with a sense of cancellation of his/her role; unlike it feeds the possibilities of equal children development. The additional communication between school and family can contribute actively to the effectiveness of learning and to the work of the teacher. According to the above, it is important to further investigate the importance of the relationship between school and family in Greek society and reality.

In addition, certain limitations of this study have to be identified. The sample came from a single educational area - the Ionian Islands. Consequently, the study findings should be read with appropriate caution. We believe it is necessary to convince school directors that the doors of the school must be open to parents, who are also members of the educational community. It may be taken for granted that school directors believe in the value of parents' participation but in our opinion this does not apply to everyone. On the one hand, the Ministry of Education itself does not grant substantial power in the family in decision-making on educational issues; on the other hand, the first word in all issues belongs to the Ministry. It is natural therefore, that school directors are more interested in developing good relations with the hierarchy from which certain important issues are dependable such as appointments and transfers, and much less in cultivating a positive climate with parents and the local community. Thus, head teachers generally justify this lack of communication with parents as parents' indifference. We believe that parents will be more interested if the school directors themselves recognize them as partners. If parents are given the possibility, they can

release a huge potential, and approach the school community as observers, assistants and mediators with the wider society. Furthermore, parents can enhance learning activities at home, participate in the school management and generally assume an active role so that they become part of the solution overcoming the problems.

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PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF THE PROFESSION OF TEACHERS, NEEDS AND EXPECTATIONS. (THE CASE OF KORCA)

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Abstract

The aim of this research is to find out which are the dominant psychological factors of the teacher, which directly affects on the process of teaching and learning in the district of Korca, which are the dimensions of the perceived effectiveness of teachers by teachers and which are the needs and expectations of teachers and community. This research comes as the need of bringing the new findings in the field of education in this region, to improve training of teachers from the University Fan Noli in accordance with the requirements of the community and time, and for existing teachers to promote continuous training to professional growth in consistent with the requirements of time and new developments in the community in all aspects. At the same time these findings will serve the regional directorate of education policies Korca to improve education in this region with a tradition of successful education throughout Albania is a largely qualitative research, based on use of these techniques: questionnaire, semi-structured interview, observation at the three target groups included in the study and his beneficiary, teachers, community, educational institutions.

Keywords: *psychological factors of the teacher, perceived effectiveness, expectations of teachers and community*

1. Background Information

As a citizen of Korca and as an employee in the educational system, i feel the moral and professional responsibility to bring this contribut, refering to the educational system in our country and especially referring to the figure of the teacher, since the majority of the reseaches about the factors of student's accomplishments present the results that **high quality teachers affect powerfully on student's success.**

"Not only the educational system reflects on social, economical and cultural nationality but also gives a form to it". This is an important principle, which also is the base of the development of all the politics that guide us to a better teaching process in all the cycles of educational system, making the majority of the European countries to pay attention to the central governing interests of crossing powerfully

in the globalism process.

If we refer to the twenty last years, we understand that this transitive period in the political, social economical and many other systems has brought to important transformations in the Albanian social systems, influencing deeply in all its institutions, including here the educational system, family and even the individual itself who has been transforming deeply its values.

Referring to the individ as a teacher, if we try to look through a pshycho – historical perspective, easily we'll find out that there is a fondamental distinction from the yesteday's educator individe to the nawaday's one. I used the term educator instead of the term teacher since from the informations gathered from 698 questionnaires from which 578 distributed to the citeizens of Korce and the rest to the teachers that have already retired results that there is a similarity in the opinion of both members of our society, who think that before the transitive period the teacher used to be considered ans an educator of the individ in school to prepare the individ itself to be an aproppriate member of the society, since the educator considered itself as an appropriate member of the society having so a connective role between the student and their society. The educator applied the abilities of being, teacher, trasmiting so knowledge to a pupil, trainer, trasmiting the minimum of the basic principles of knowledge, leader, suggesting the methods that needed to be used to make deeper the knowledge, surveyor, controlling the individ, and as an individ leaving to the pupils the opportunity to choose the different works. The educator also served as a professional guider.

Having these functions in the small microcosmos of the classroom and in the meantime in the big society, the yesterday teacher used to identify itself with a high social status, and so was perceived from all society's classes. But is should not be forgotten that the faith of the teacher was supportet from the social faith and also from thir academic professional status, on the other hand the behaviour of the pupils was supported from the mentality of always being obeyed. Pupils used to accept naturally the respect for the teacher and it's authority.

Meanwhile with the dynamic demographic,

cultural, political and social transformations in our country during the last years, we distingush a total change in all the aspects within the figure of the teacher.

It is true that the competence and the knowledge of teaching a specific subject are necessary, but not enough. What miss is a psychological maturity and a human healthy development of the teacher (Amonns & Huchthetson 1989).

In nowadays Albanian society, the challenges to which a teacher is confronted with, are related with its ability to manage certain situations like, unrespected students, or internal conflicts, abilities that go beyond what a teacher has learned during its preparation in university. If we refer to Ward 1999, he reported that when a teacher feels insecure, or when a teacher does not have the control of itself, he cannot be successful as a teacher despite its professional preparations.

In this aspect, the psychological maturity is necessary more then ever nowadays. Teachers cannot create a community of knowledge for the students without meeting before their psychological needs (Gold & Roth 1993).

So, understanding the psychological conditions of the teachers and their general psychological condition is a fundamental factor to help them understand their individuality.

2. Methodology

This paper using secondary data, tends to highlight the most dominant aspects of the psychological conditions of the teacher, presented in the psychological service of the appropriate school for a period of time from 2006 to 2010. The data related with the psychological conditions of the teacher, its needs are taken totally from:

- The documents taken during the psychological counseling, showing the problems that I found in there, which made me write this paper applying totally the rules of the ethics of the service and of the participation in this modest study in the meantime.
- Natural observations within different schools and the community of these schools.
- Focus-Groups with 10 or 12 students.

- Interviews with 103 in service teachers, registered at "Fan Noli" University, during September and October 2012 at Faculty of Education, to attend the new trendy of professional trainings this University offers.

From 103 teachers in the tree high schools in Korca, "Raqi Qirinxhi", "Themistokli Germenji", "Ymer Dishnica" during 2006 – 2010, almost 56 of them have asked for social help of the psychological service, for individual counseling, even taking in consideration that the psychological service was a new service in our country.

Are used also the information from focus-groups of students which mostly treat the relations teacher – student.

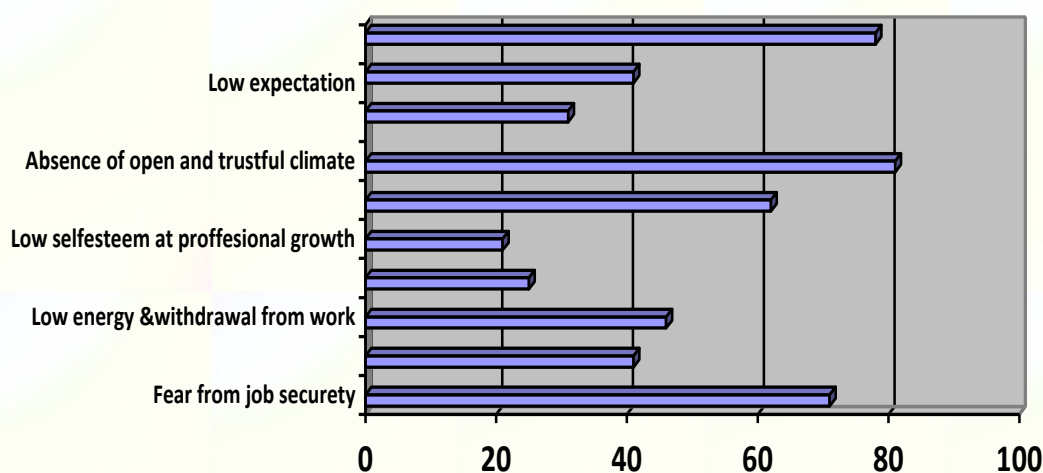
As we see, is extremely important the fact that 54% of all the teachers that work at the three main high schools of Korca city, want to take the psychological service applied at school, even that this service is a new one, which results were not known yet. And it's normal that 93% of these teachers are female, taking in consideration the gender conditions of female in service teachers in Albania, where the contribution on time and efforts to family/home, is greater than that of the partner, so the need for psychological service or counseling is greater. And the most important data result, is that 58% of the teachers came to the counseling by themselves and not referred by colleges or the school lieder.

3. Data analyses

Table 1: Teachers' participance

Teachers in counseling	Number
Female	52
Male	4
Middle age	30
Others	22
Referred from others	19
In counseling by themselves	33

Fig.1: Different problems rose during individual psychological counseling of teachers



It's pretty clear that the absence of open and trustful climate at school community, the absence of an regular frequent assessment of teacher individual work, which may affect the

teacher inner motivation for job efficacy and meanwhile the fear from absence of job security, are the main concerns of teachers who frankly took part at psychological counseling within

school and expressed the concerns above without any doubt.

This amount of absences accompanied by low self-esteem both at personal and professional growth, low energy and withdrawal from work and the presence of burn out symptoms, let us understand that during a four year period of time, the new psychological service in school has faced these continuous components of a psychological state of a considerable number of in service teachers at the main high schools of Korca city. To match such results shows us the importance of psychological state of our teacher and arise within us the concern to take researches upon the factors that cause it.

It's true that people who are faced with the demands of a teaching career are exposed to a number of situations which can cause stress. And stress may arise from within one's self, from various outside sources, or from a combination of internal and external factors.

The internal factors that may cause stress at Albanian teachers vary from the psychological typology of the person, but even from the very dynamic Albania lifestyle today, where the high level of social stress is easily noticeable.

But according to the counseling files of the teachers, very important factors related to this psychological state of the teachers are external

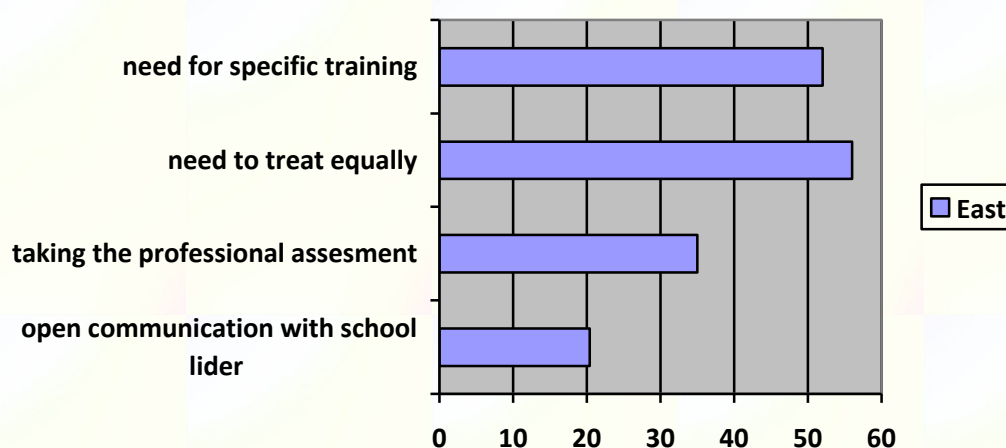
factors, related directly with school community and environment.

If we refer to fig 1, we may notice easily the presence of personal risk factors involve concerns related to self-esteem, personal goals, changing values, social needs, personal competence, and abilities.

In the United States, Nye, Konstantanopoulos, and Hedges (2004) analyzed the experimental data, collected for the Tennessee Class Size Experiment and reported that teacher effects were much larger than school effects, and certainly large enough to have policy significance (p.253). They found that "The effect of one standard deviation change in teacher effectiveness is larger than, for example reducing class size from 25 to 15"(p.254).

Interviews taken with 103 teacher in service, at "Fan Noli" University, applying to attend the master degree, shade light on the fact that the main reason of attending the master degree, of first level, even after five or more years of work, is not the necessity of in service teacher continuous professional learning, but a new condition needed to maintain the work, because of the lack of job security, one of the most important factor of the perceived fear in teachers.

Fig 2: Main needs expressed by teachers, involved in individual counseling



4. Implication

This paper shade light on some inner and external factors that affect the psychological state of in service teacher, based on the data

from psychological counseling files during four years of service in high schools of Korca. As the findings were presented at this service from a considerable number of teachers, a wider study research must be taken upon a greater number

of teachers even at primary education too, using surveys combined with observation, including parents and students too.

5. Discussion and suggestions

The most important factor, affecting student learning is the teacher. In addition, the results show wide variation in effectiveness among teachers.

Taking in consideration such findings, we see that improvement of teacher quality, affects the university preparation for them as much as the personal and psychological statement of them.

- The nature of teaching and the kind of relationships among students and teachers depends on inner and external factors, the study of which will be helpful in preventing and building new policies by University of our city and the Education Directorate Office
- New policies, used by the Education Directorate Office, could be centered to the teacher professional assessment strategy, applied by school leaders, necessary to affect teacher self-esteem.

This professional assessment strategy would help not only at the self-esteem factor, but maybe at the job security too.

- Considering these external factors, personal risk factors and the feeling of isolation or alienation, that affect teachers, university programmers that prepare teachers, would prepare some changes due to new teachers needs, to cope with stress and its consequence, components of burn out and withdrawal from work.

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REDEFINITION OF EDUCATION STRUCTURE OF REPUBLIC OF SERBIA

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Abstract

Education in future implies a reconstruction of the education system. This practically means implementation of reform of the entire educational system and development of a conception of the permanent education according to social needs and changes. The presented work here is an integral part of a broader set up and realized preliminary project on "Redefinition of Education Structure of Republic of Serbia" forwarded to the Ministry of Education of the Republic of Serbia in 2010. The preliminary project guided by Ph.D. Miroslav Kuka and Ph.D. Vukosava Zivkovic was realized in the team work and in coordination of the work of the central and regional working groups in Serbia and the surrounding countries having 80 collaborators in total working on the project. The model of our structure of the education system extends the period of compulsory education up to 10 years of age (till the first grade of high school which is the same for all regarding the curriculum) and is based on the differentiation of the education levels (from preschool to high school) in cycles, which, on their part, are defined by aims and tasks. Short-term, middle-term and long-term aims have been clearly defined and a concise division of competence and the follow-up methods of successfulness of its implementation has been made within the proposal of our model.

Keywords: *education system, redefinition of education structure, modifications and reform*

1. CATEGORIZATION OF OUR EDUCATION STRUCTURE

A learning process can be concisely described as the process of the confrontation of a motivated or unmotivated individual with certain obstacles which represent a difficulty for achieving his objectives (or educational objectives) and fulfilling his motives. In order to overcome those obstacles and eliminate the difficulties, the individual takes investigative steps (or they are often being recommended) until he overcomes the obstacle with those steps, that is, until he eliminates the difficulty towards the objective.

The pressures aimed at modifications that would get the educational process in the position in which it would suit better the new needs are increasing with time. Pedagogical

practice confirmed many times that some modifications not only don't lead towards the improvement of success within the education, but also become the source of regression in this area (advocating the so-called general socio-trend directions with the tendency of incorporating them into the educational process as well).

Our project with its conceptual approach, the reform within the structure of the education system, implies the strategy of modifications "from the bottom up", that is, the strategy in which the local initiatives of higher education institutions (faculties, institutes, vocational schools...) come to expression. This approach would suit the thesis which believes that less successful strategies of improving the educational process are the ones that operate from higher levels, where the politics is being created, and which are characteristic to rely on consultants that influence externally and have no connection with educational practice except intuitive assumptions.

In which category would our redefinition of the education system structure be classified?

Depending on the principle of modifications (reforms), we can speak of four types of possible changes in the existing pedagogical practice: adaptive, external, regulatory and structural. Our reform in this general setting refers to the structural type of modification, which is aimed towards changes in the organizational structure of the education system, but it doesn't affect the realization of the educational process.

Primarily, the structural systemic modifications are directed to economy, rationality, educational liberalization and acquisition of specific knowledge. Essentially, education is, with our structure, directed to results, that is, to defined knowledge, skills, attitudes and values that students should have after finishing a certain education cycle. Our modifications within the already existing structure can be categorized under the model of the so-called controlled expansion.

This approach to reforms is the most appropriate for education systems which don't need radical changes, but the interventions of limited proportions – alterations, repairs, modifications, that is, the implementation of new details into the existing system, i.e. structure. Modifications of this kind have a

character of conceptual modernization aimed towards better achievements of students in school.

In the educational process, the main attention should be paid to knowledge structure, to the development of one idea from another, and to what age level can given algorithm (with its structural concretization) be applied. The structure is what enables to sort out and classify unfamiliar impressions and in that way what is learnt gets meaning and through meaning it initiates other motivators in the educational process. What should be emphasized in our approach is the idea that every content of teaching can be taught effectively at any level of student's development, provided that the given ideas and principles are adapted didactically in order for the student to use them. Our starting point in these evaluations, which differ from structural conceptions from 30 - 40 years ago, starts from the point that the development of a child is mostly conditioned by social factors. How far will a child get in the intellectual development and when we ourselves can influence the same, primarily depends on the cultural surrounding, that is, on the impact of the environment.

The development of consciousness of every individual, including children aged 7 – 18 years (our sample within the redefined structure of the education system), has had such a cognitive leap in the last 30 years (perception, reasoning, anticipation, the critical thinking process, the time consistency of attitudes, interests...), that everything that was true in perceptive age gradations of the children at the given age once, has now moved for at least one generation up. Many social psychologists that analyse the mental and manual skills of the children of different age and compare them with earlier similar studies share this view. Hence, in our system of education structure we start with perceptively cognitive and psycho-motor, manual skills of the children at the given age, with aims and tasks that have been placed upon them as well as with the relevance of the process of rationalization and economy of the educational process. Specifically our education structure, the model of controlled liberal education – is oriented towards the child, supports active teaching concretized on the example of the differentiated cycles at given educational levels, as well as the redefined

curriculum according to it.

2. SOCIO-EDUCATIONAL RATIONALE FOR THE IMPLEMENTATION OF OUR EDUCATION STRUCTURE

The model of our structure of the education system is based on the differentiation of the educational levels (from pre-school to high school) on cycles, which are determined by the defined aims and tasks for each specific age. Those aims are defined within the reform of the existing education itself which is directed to curriculum and its transfer to education directed to outcomes, that is, defined knowledge, skills, attitudes and values that students should acquire after finishing a certain education cycle. One of the main outcomes of our structure, which is in this segment primarily sociologically determined, is the extension of the period of compulsory education from 8 - 9 years, to 10 years (V cycles) which is in accordance with European and other international tendencies in education. In most countries of the world education begins at the age of 6 or 7 years, and in some countries even earlier. The duration of the compulsory education varies, but in most cases is 9 years and it is finished at the age of 15 - 16 years. From the objectives set within the pre-school education (stands for 0 grade, i.e. I cycle), the same transforms from the current playgrounds into a program defined socio-educational environment.

The responsibilities of the educator increase with regard to the demands that are being requested from him. Terminological dichotomy, as in our country so in the world, about defining the notion of primary education (*primary education, elementary education, l'enseignement primaire élémentaire*) in the period from year 1992 - 1996 is defined by means of the new version of the International Standard Classification of Education. According to the new version of the classification of education, primary education includes the first level of education (ISCED level 1) that is the first cycle of basic education. This level generally lasts from 5 - 7 years of regular schooling that includes all levels of education. The second level of education (secondary education) has two levels: the first level or the second cycle of basic education (ISCED level 2) and the second level or the third cycle (ISCED level 3). Unlike the concept

of basic education, compulsory education is more easily defined and regardless of the structure of the education system in certain countries, it (*compulsory education, schulpflicht, obligatoire, objazatel'noe, etc.*) represents schooling that is obligatory by law for children of certain age. Compulsory education by its essence and purpose makes the basis for the formal structure of the education system.

What is in common for almost all countries is the fact that compulsory education is of general education character. Its duration differs and depends on a school system and prerequisites for mass education. In most countries, besides primary education, compulsory education also includes the first level of secondary education, which is the conception of our structure as well (V cycle). In our conception of education structure, the grade repetition is abolished and replaced with the form of moving students to a higher grade with obligatory re-attendance of subjects that are not acquired properly in terms of knowledge (at least 50% of the anticipated number of classes for that subject at the year level). Starting from III - V cycle (with the transition from class to subject teaching) the student can transfer four or less subjects from one grade to the next. In case that at the end of a school year a student has more than four negative grades, the categorization of subjects is conducted for the level of compulsory education (basic subjects → compulsory subjects). If a student is being moved more than three times during compulsory education, therefore almost every grade, he limits his education in that way to the level of compulsory education (to the end of V cycle). At the end of III cycle, the check of the acquired knowledge is introduced, by means of the test of general knowledge as well as the check of potential advancement within intellectual abilities as compared to the enrolment period.

Through these data and information on typifying students' personalities → completed by a class master as well as an educator at the end of I cycle, a new formation of the groups (classes) of given grades is conducted, within the already familiar educational environment (school). This is, in addition to monitoring the rate of acquired knowledge, skills and character traits, a way for the children to be directly exposed to the challenges of social adaptability within the partially familiar social environment,

which is also a good preparation for the next redefining of groups that follows in high school and is predominantly determined by the unfamiliar social environment. The first grade of high school is obligatory for everyone and regardless of the type of school has the same curriculum. This structure initiates the idea that through the controlled liberalization of the educational process, the same enhances and develops the interest of children for education even after a cycle of compulsory education.

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ROLE OF PUPPET THEATER IN EARLY CHILD DEVELOPMENT

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Abstract

The early child development from 0 -6 years is the responsibility of all of us and the whole society. This age is the basis for further overall development of every living person. Every child is different and therefore there are differences in type and in the way of education, and whether it takes place only within the family or experts taking care in certain institutions, opens key needs for cooperation and support of educators and other professionals and parents and families. The paper focuses on the role of the puppet theatre in early childhood development and the power of the puppet play when parents are involved in it. Parents and families through the use of puppet amateur theater play in early childhood development will be able to identify ways that would affect cognitive, affective, psychomotor area in the development of the personality of the child.

Keywords: *puppet theatre, early child development*

1. Introduction

It is known that the appearance of the puppet, puppet play and their animation dates back to a time of the oldest civilizations and also is known that expression with puppets remained as a traditional form of artistic expression in many cultures. Today because of the importance of playing with puppets confirmed by numerous authors and researchers, it is used in the process of education and early child development.

Educators in pre-school institutions together with children play with puppets, made different types of puppets, made scene, choose a place, space to play with puppets, choose texts appropriate to the age and interest of the children and realize theater with puppets, as animators of puppets appear educators and children. But a large number of children from 0-6 years do not attend kindergartens. These kids play with puppets, but do they realize puppetry? The fast way of life increasingly requires parent's obligations that reduce the time to socialize and play with their children.

2. Research

To answer some questions about the involvement of parents in animation of puppets for puppet shows, we realized survey where

were involved 100 parents / families who have children from 0-6 years from Bitola, FYROM Macedonia. What we were interested in was whether the parents / families of children who attend and those who do not attend pre-schools institutions are taking part in their children play with puppets and do they practice animation of puppets and performance of amateur puppetry in their home? Apart from this question was asked whether parents / families (meaning parents/families of children who are involved in pre-schools institutions and those children who are not included) understand the importance of puppets animation and puppet theater in the process of early childhood development. To obtain answers to these questions we conducted a survey where was included the parents / families of children attending and children who do not attend pre-schools institutions.

3. Results

The research results have shown us that parents / families in a large percentage believe that children should be familiar with puppet theatre and also they think that puppet theatre has contribution in early childhood development. Also the results showed that parents / families often engage in play with puppets of their children in the home. But in terms of animating puppets and practicing amateur puppet theaters, the survey showed that the involvement of parents / families in this way is very rarely. Parents / families of those children attending pre-schools institutions include only when they need to help their children in the procurement of materials if their children participate as animators in a performance on the occasion of a ceremony organized by the pre-school institution. Research has shown that surveyed parents / families were not engaged as animators in puppets play in pre-school institutions. Percentage of parents / families (parents/families of children who are attending and children who are not attending pre-schools institutions) who practice play with puppets in the form of amateur puppet theater is very small. These parents / families who practiced these play at home, has received the idea from their children or from websites, TV shows or after visiting a theater play with puppets.

After the results of a survey, we realized two workshops in a kindergarten in Bitola and at the

Pedagogical Faculty in Bitola. Workshops that connected the educators, students and parents / families aimed to promote the importance of involvement of parents in the theater with puppets, to able parents / families to acquire certain knowledge and skills and to identify ways to include them in theatrical plays with puppets and implementation of practical activities. Parents / families had the opportunity to see performances of puppet shows with hand puppets types, gained skills for making and with educators and students made several types of hand puppets: finger puppets, sock puppets and gjinjol. Upon completion of the workshops, involved parents / families have said they are satisfied of the workshops, that together with their children made puppets and they have animated them, involved parents/families said that they want to be a part of future workshops of this type and this positive experience helped their children's education and development of children's personality. Parents / families said that the practice of puppets animation have helped especially for speech development, motor development of children, the development of intellect and opinion, as well as for the development of children's emotions and senses. Children of involved parents / families expressed their satisfaction with the involvement of parents / families in the preparation and realization of the puppet shows. They declared that they feel much happier and that such plays are becoming more interesting when their parents / families.

4. Conclusions

What we can summarize by recognizing situations from practice is that the puppet theater is one approach to the process of education which enables children learning through play. Power of play with puppets and realization of puppetry in the process of early childhood development increases if the parents / families are involved in it.

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SCHOOL ADVISORS AS SUPPORTERS OF GREEK TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT: PROBLEMS AND BARRIERS

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Abstract

In the Greek educational system School Advisors are responsible for the scientific and pedagogical guidance of teachers. Although the institution of the School Advisor at the time of its introduction, in 1982, was solemnly received by the educational community, it soon began to contradict the initial expectations. In the survey to be presented, we have investigated, from the perspective of School Advisors, the factors that preclude their work. Our research shows that School Advisors face a plethora of institutional and economic problems, notably the lack of funding to conduct training sessions that would abet the professional development of teachers and their absence from the policy making educational institutions. These problems largely justify the scorn that the institution has received and indicate the measures which the state should take in order to support teachers more effectively. We will attempt to interpret our findings by setting a framework based on the history of the institution (School Advisor) and the particularities of the Greek education.

Keywords: Greece, teacher, guidance, supervision, School Advisor

1. Introduction

In the Greek education system School Advisors are responsible for teachers' scientific and pedagogical guidance. These are experienced and qualified professionals, selected for a four-year period, amongst the body of teachers to be exclusively employed in providing support to their colleagues to improve the pedagogical and teaching act. School Advisors are, therefore, supervisors of instruction (Pawlas and Oliva 2007; Beach and Reinhartz 2000; Wiles 1989).

This study records the history of the institution and empirically investigates, from the perspective of School Advisors, the factors that preclude their work. By studying these factors, which have not yet been adequately explored, we hope to contribute to the body of knowledge required for the revision of the supportive structures for teachers.

2. Theoretical framework

Before proceeding to the research findings, a short informative presentation on the interesting

course of instructional supervision in Greece is given here, to better understand the concerns that accompany teacher guidance.

2.1. The Inspectors and the conditions that led to the advent of School Advisors

The institution of the School Advisor gets into the fourth decade of existence, having been introduced in 1982. Nevertheless, supervision of instruction has been inherent in the educational system of the Modern Greek state which was established in 1830. During this protracted period of over 150 years, the prevailing emphasis of supervision was rather on inspection than on guidance. The basic body consisted of the Inspector, who would monitor the implementation of teaching methods and then pass judgment on the suitability of teachers, often with a disastrous impact on their careers.

The institution of the school Inspector has been harshly criticised by the vast majority in the education domain. This has largely been due to the predominance of official control at the expense of scientific guidance, the lack of objectivity, and its being employed as an instrument of exploitation for ideological enforcement (Yokarinis 2000; Iliadou 2004; Katsikas et al 2007; Papavassiliou 2008).

Replacing the Inspectors with School Advisors was the cumulative result of teachers' opposition that had culminated following the collapse of the Colonel's dictatorship in 1974, as well as, the change of government in 1981. Among other things, the Law established 300 positions for School Advisors in Primary Education, which are the subjects of this study.

2.2. Duties of School Advisors

The School Advisor's task for the guidance of teachers can be summarised as follows (Laws 1304/82, 2525/97 and 2986/02, MD 353.1/324/105657/2002):

- To ensure the implementation of educational policy and promote educational innovations in schools.
- To propose and coordinate the implementation plan for the curriculum or to ensure the implementation of the curriculum proposed by the Pedagogical Institute.
- To collaborate with teachers on all educational and teaching issues, to

monitor teachings after having notified teachers and to organise exemplary teachings lessons.

- To superintend teachers' in-service training.
- To propose personalized training programmes for teachers who may prove to be inefficient.
- To evaluate the scientific, educational and teaching competence of teachers. In order to assess, School Advisors are expected to take into account: a) teacher's active participation in training and other meetings; b) specific information obtained from monitoring at least two lessons during the school year. As previously stated, this function of the School Advisor is still inoperative.

2.3. The subsequent development of the institution

Initially, there was enthusiastic reception of the School Advisors on the part of teachers. Not long after, however, the climate altered to such a degree that by the second half of the 1980s it was argued that the reform had already been nullified (Andreou 1986).

The root cause of the friction was the issue concerning evaluation. The prospect of it being instigated through the application of School Advisors as the actual assessors of teachers' pedagogical and teaching competence triggered a strong reaction by the latter which undermined the supervisor-supervisee relationship. The basis for this was the fear that the institution of inspection would be re-established in an underhand way (Mavroyorgos 1994). Indicative is the fact that the Teachers' Association urged its members to oppose the School Advisor's visits to their classrooms, unless, of course, they themselves wanted to be monitored (Karayeorgos 1994). In a nutshell, despite the fact that by 2002 the state had adopted three laws and two presidential decrees for the introduction of teacher evaluation, protest action in the form of strikes and strong criticism, coupled with the government's timidity and recurrent parliamentary elections deterred their being implemented.

Moreover, mention needs to be made of the other problems that led to the initial enthusiasm being suppressed: namely, the training of School

Advisors in instructional supervision was inadequate; the mindset of the 'isolation' of teachers in their classrooms; the considerable number of teachers that each Advisor was responsible for guiding; the lack of funds for teacher training; and the centralized structure of the education system that left little or no room for innovations.

Today, the tension of the initial period described above appears to have subsided, though not because the differences have been bridged, but on account of the fact that the institution has been reduced to "a common public service level" (Yokarinis 2000) which does not disturb the Greek educational system in any substantial way (ibid.), nor does it constitute a significant reform (Katsikas et al. 2007). School Advisors themselves claim that their neglect by the state has undermined and discredited the institution (PESS 2009).

3. Research framework

3.1. The need for the research

As seen above, School Advisor is in the current education reality the sole body guiding teachers in Greece. Taking into account that the institution has not measured up to the expectations that accompanied its introduction, School Advisors' views on the factors that set barriers to their work, as well as their estimates on the effectiveness of the institution they serve, are of great interest, because they could indicate the measures required to improve teachers support. The importance of such survey is furthermore emphasised by the limited activity so far in this research field.

Moreover research on supervision in Greece provides the opportunity for comparisons with the other European countries and contributes to the enrichment of the scientific information on teacher support in Europe.

3.2. The research methodology

The survey was conducted early in 2010. The sample consisted of 137 (from a total number of 299 or 45.7%) School Advisors employed in primary school education. The sample is representative of those currently working as Advisors, both in terms of gender and geographical location. In this paper we are going

to present certain dimensions of the survey, granted that some other of its elements have been presented elsewhere.

4. Results

4.1. Personal, educational and occupational characteristics

Of the 137 participants, 79 (57.7%) are male and 58 (42.3%) women. The proportions in the whole population of School Advisors are similar, although women are the majority in the population of teachers, from which Advisors are chosen.

Most Advisors are in the age group of 48–52 years (45.2%), followed by those aged 43–47 (32.6%). Only 8.9% are aged over 58 years. The data, compared with those of a previous research (Papavassiliou 2008), indicate a clear shift to younger ages.

Regarding the education level of the Advisors, the vast majority of respondents (89.1%) indicate that they have completed postgraduate studies of all types (Master or Ph.D.). More details are given in Table 1.

Table 1: School Advisors' education level

Nr	Education level	Number of advisors	%
1	Exomiossi ¹	1	.7
2	Didaskalio ²	1	.7
3	Other diploma of higher education	9	6.6
4	Postgraduate studies in progress	4	2.9
5	Master's degree	42	30.7
6	Doctoral dissertation in progress	24	17.5
7	Doctoral degree	56	40.9
Total		137	100.0

¹ These studies compensate the difference between the older teachers who have attended the now-abolished two-year Pedagogical Academy and the younger ones, graduated from the four-year University Department of Primary Education.

² It is an institution which aims to prepare education executives.

The number of teachers within the jurisdiction of each School Advisor is shown in Table 2. As can be seen, not only are there unjustifiable differences between Advisors, but there is also a remarkable percentage (37.2%) of those who bear the burden of more than 200 teachers, which hinders the individualized support promised by the institution.

Table 2: Number of teachers within the jurisdiction of the School Advisors

Nr	Number of teachers	Number of advisors	%
1	≤100	11	8.0
2	101–150	50	36.5
3	151–200	25	18.2
4	201–250	26	19.0
5	≥251	25	18.2
Total		137	100.0

Disappointing are the data relating to the training of School Advisors concerning instructional supervision: The 29.9% of the School Advisors do not have any specialisation, even by the short-term, evaluated as inadequate, seminars organised by the Ministry of Education after the Advisors' selection.

4.2 Problems and barriers

Seeking the systematic assessment and comparison of the severity of the difficulties faced by School Advisors, we gathered and processed a number of references from the relevant literature and asked the participants to report what every difficulty means for them, choosing a value from 0 (no difficulty) to 10 (very difficult).

The comparison of the average rates (Table 3) indicates that the most serious problem for School Advisors is the lack of their financial support to conduct training sessions, having the higher mean value (9) and the lowest standard deviation (1.9). Indicative is the fact that 78.8% of the Advisors gave to this difficulty the values 9 and 10.

The training that School Advisors should conduct for the teachers' professional development is not funded by the state. Therefore, the School Advisors' training activities are developed either with the aid of local

sponsors, or at their own expense, or, at worst, are forestalled (Vagenas 2001; PESS³ 2009).

³ PESS: Hellenic Union of School Advisors

Table 3: Difficulties faced by the School Advisors

Nr	Difficulties	Mean	SD
1	No state funding for conducting teacher training sessions	9.01	1.89
2	Non-representation in education policy-making bodies	7.65	2.74
3	Limited ability to innovate due to the centralisation of education	7.10	2.50
4	Inadequate infrastructure of schools	6.76	2.58
5	Lack of performance incentives	6.54	3.17
6	Large number of teachers within the Advisors' jurisdiction	6.44	3.22
7	Poor care of the state for School Advisors' training	6.23	2.97
8	Insecurity because of potential political interference in the selection process	5.93	3.46
9	Non-implementation of the provisions for teacher evaluation	5.35	3.54
10	Unclear legal framework as for their responsibilities	5.32	3.39
11	Lack of cooperation among teachers	5.13	3.07
12	Unwillingness of teachers to improve their performance	4.89	2.84
13	Insecurity because of the statutory selection criteria	4.71	3.68
14	Problematic cooperation with higher-level bodies	4.69	3.14
15	Insecurity caused by the temporariness in the position of School Advisor	4.57	3.58
16	Lack of coordination among School Advisors	4.18	3.29
17	Problems related to their workplace accommodations	4.03	3.58
18	Long distance between Advisors' office and the place of their residence / family	3.54	3.57
19	Mistrust of teachers towards the Advisors	2.55	2.58
20	Negative attitude of School Principals	2.35	2.74
21	Legal obligation to inform teachers before visiting their classroom	2.10	2.66

Their non-representation in education policy-making bodies is the next issue which the Advisors consider as a major problem (mean 7.7, SD 2.7). The School Advisors do not participate in the education policy formation, although their skills and experience could be utilised in matters related to curriculum, teacher training and research (PESS 2009; Yokarinis 2000).

The limited ability to innovate, due to the centralisation of education, follows in the ranking (mean 7.1, SD 2.5). Despite efforts of decentralisation, the Greek education system has been described as a centralised and authoritarian one, as the Ministry of Education has the sole responsibility for the financing, the recruitment of teachers and the selection of books, learning objects, even of audiovisual materials used in the classroom. Regional and local dimension of education has been set aside,

although it could be a critical complement to the national policy (Fullan and Hargreaves 1992; Mavroyorgos 1999).

The fourth problem in order of importance is the inadequate infrastructure of schools (mean 6.8, SD 2.6), which places severe restrictions on the realisation of teachers' and School Advisors' initiatives (Yokarinis 2000).

The lack of (positive or negative) performance motivation is next in the ranking, with a mean of 6.5 and SD 3.2. The performance of the Advisor is not evaluated and is not included in the criteria for their reselection; even though legislation generally provides for the control of the improper performance of duties, in fact a School Advisor can have poor performance with no consequences whatsoever.

The "large number of teachers that Advisors have in their jurisdiction" ranks sixth (mean 6.4,

SD 3.2). As expected, Advisors who supervise a larger number of teachers value this problem as more important than their peers with fewer burdens ($F_{2,134}=11,717$, $p<0,001$). The number of 300 School Advisors for the support and guidance of 49 390 teachers in such a country with particular landform characteristics (many islands and mountains) is considered also in the literature as an important factor raising barriers to the regular supervisory operation and, thus, to the individualised support of teachers (Iliadou, 2004; Yokarinis, 2000).

Poor care of the state for School Advisors' training is the next problem in the order of importance, with a mean of 6.2 (SD 3). It is a widespread belief that School Advisors are not adequately prepared for their work and their training is limited to some introductory courses, which are not positively evaluated (Iliadou 2004; Yokarinis 2000). This problem deteriorates by the fact that the potential already existing expertise in supervision is not taken into account for the Advisors' selection, neither as a requirement nor as an additional criterion.

The eighth and thirteenth problem in the ranking are those associated with the selection of Advisors: Potential political interference in the process and the statutory selection criteria cause insecurity for most people and take the average values of 5.9 (SD 3.5) and 4.7 (SD 3.7), respectively. The results were expected, seeing that in the literature the adequacy of certain individuals who occupy positions of Advisors is challenged (Dimitropoulos 1998; Iliadou 2004) as a result, mainly, of the case-specific prevalence of political or subjective criteria in their selection.

Non-implementation of the provisions for teacher evaluation ranks ninth, with an average of 5.4 and SD 3.5. As seen above, the resistance of teachers to their evaluation (at least under those particular conditions), ultimately lead to the long-term suspension of its implementation. The impact of the state handling related to evaluation is obvious: Teachers, like the education executives, have not been assessed for decades; their performance entirely depends upon their conscience. As for School Advisors, because of this de facto removal of the evaluation from their jurisdiction, they were left with minimal formal power, thus their efforts to motivate teachers to enhance their professional

development are mostly based on their own potential scientific and personal prestige.

The unclear legal framework as for their responsibilities (mean 5.3, SD 3.4) is another difficulty for several Advisors. This issue generates problematic situations occasionally, when Advisors and supervisees interpret in different ways the supervisors' statutory duties; in addition, confused hierarchy and overlapping responsibilities in relation to other executives of education sometimes lead to controversies (Iliadou 2004; Kavouri 1997; PESS 2009; Yokarinis 2000).

Lack of cooperation among teachers (mean 5.1, SD 3.1) and unwillingness of teachers to improve their performance (mean 4.9, SD 2.8) are problems of medium severity. The absence of evaluation as well as the weak learning culture in schools, which brings about the 'isolation' of teachers in their classrooms (Mavroyorgos 1999), obviously contribute to these phenomena. It is argued that teachers often have difficulty communicating their classroom problems and the ineffective handling in their effort to resolve them to their colleagues, thereby reducing the potential feedback in their formal or informal interaction with the people who could be sources of professional learning for them.

Problematic cooperation with higher-level bodies follows with a mean of 4.7 (SD 3.1), which is lower than previously expected. Representatives of School Advisors have repeatedly pointed out the downgrading of their role by the Ministry of Education and the obstacles posed to their work by several Regional Directors of Education who are indisposed to approve funds for their visits to remote schools or for office equipment (PESS 2009).

Next in the ranking (mean 4.6, SD 3.6), is the insecurity caused by the temporariness in the position of School Advisor. It is worth mentioning that the School Advisors' Union (PESS) has called for a review of the relating provisions, so that its members become permanent after a period of good service.

Lack of coordination among School Advisors (mean 4.2, SD 3.3) is another problem of medium severity, possibly related to the lack of institutional provision for coordinator of School Advisors at any level of educational administration (PESS 2009) and / or to possibly problematic cooperation among School Advisors.

Problems related to their workplace accommodations are recorded as another moderate difficulty considering the average value (4.0); nevertheless it should not be overlooked that a significant proportion of participants (17.6%) chose the values 9 and 10, while the range equals 10 points and the standard deviation (3.6) is the second highest among the variables. Inadequate housing and lack of secretaries, libraries, free access to electronic libraries and databases, PC and internet connections, are the main factors of this field reported as raising barriers to the work of several Advisors (PESS 2009).

In the matter of the distance between Advisors' office and the place of their residence / family, the conditions are also not uniform (mean 3.5, SD 3.6), granted that this problem is faced by a specific number of Advisors. According to the current provisions, when an Advisor's position is vacated because of retirement, an Advisor already serving far from his place of residence is not entitled to step in; instead the position is covered by a runner-up.

Finally, mistrust of teachers towards the Advisors (mean 2.6, SD 2.6), negative attitude of School Principals (mean 2.4, SD 2.8), and legal obligation to inform teachers before visiting their classroom (mean 2.1, SD 2.7), seem to concern less the participants.

The participants eventually were asked their opinions on the extent to which the institution of the School Advisor meets its initial objectives (Table 4); the prevailing answer is "moderately", with a rate of 46.7%. The 34.1% chose the answer "fairly", while fewer were those who answered "slightly" (11.1%) or "perfectly" (8.2%). However, no Advisor has given a completely negative answer. The average number of responses is located in between the values "moderately" and "fairly", amounting to 2.3 points, with standard deviation 0.79. Correlations with the independent variables showed no statistically significant difference.

Table 4: Does the institution of School Advisor meet its initial objectives?

Nr		Number of advisors	%
1	Not at all (0)	---	---
2	Slightly (1)	15	11.1
3	Moderately (2)	63	46.7
4	Fairly (3)	46	34.1
5	Perfectly (4)	11	8.1
	Total	135	100.0

5. Discussion

The research confirmed the existence of a plethora of factors that the participants consider as major deterrents to their work.

It can therefore be argued that many Advisors feel they have undertaken the very responsible role of teachers' guidance in a context in which:

- They are expected to develop training courses without being funded for these;
- they have no say in decisions on education;
- they cannot innovate to the extent they wish, because mainly the Ministry of Education decides what should be done in classrooms;
- their performance is not being institutionally recognized;
- they often have the responsibility of more than 200 teachers, thus they do not have enough time for their support;
- they find it difficult to define their exact responsibilities;
- they know that it is very likely to lose their position at the end of the four-year period, not because they are unqualified, but on account of the potential prevalence of political or subjective criteria in the selection process;
- they are stripped of any power – such as the power provided by the evaluation – which could effectively promote the professional development of teachers.

The picture is certainly not describing a favourable field for the School Advisor and can interpret previous research findings that pointed out the teachers' dissatisfaction for the

institution. The fact that the executives asked to serve the institution, express scepticism about its efficiency, is apparently a result of the complex inhibiting factors revealed by the survey.

For the development and maintenance of these problems, the state carries the overwhelming share of direct or indirect liability. The institution strains under the weight of long-standing indifference, of diffidence and ineffective handling (on issues such as evaluation), of the decisions made opportunistically for political benefit and of the lack of accountability. These conditions reasonably leave room for the growing of a culture of minimal effort, both on the part of School Advisors and teachers. The motivation for change is found only in the individual conscience, not in the institutional arrangements.

The responsibility of the central administration is even more severe, considering that the problems mentioned above are not only induced by the given economic difficulties, but also by the institutional gaps and errors, the generality regarding responsibilities, the limited possibility for innovation, the lack of evaluation, the lack of performance incentives, the Advisors' non-participation in decision-making bodies, are not imposed by any financial constraints. Simultaneously, however, this finding is somewhat optimistic, because it indicates that the political will is enough to introduce changes in many fields, without a corresponding increase in funding. This does not mean, even so, that economic matters may remain unresolved and lead Advisors to permanent seeking of financial support in local bodies.

The recently passed Law 3848/2010 on education, attempts to address, to an extent, some of the failures of educational guidance, providing for the introduction of the institution of mentor for novice teachers, for the implementation – once again – of the evaluation and for the establishment of more reliable and valid selection procedures for School Advisors. In addition, for the first time, it provides for training of prospective Advisor candidates by a state institution; such training courses will lead to the award of a certificate of competence in guidance, as a prerequisite for participation in selection process.

However, considering that the Law basically

expresses only intentions, leaving a good time to work out implementation details, and on account of the non-implementation of previous provisions, there are reservations as to when and how objectives will be converted into action. Moreover, even if a positive outcome occurs, other problems of major importance remain unresolved, for which the state, in our opinion, may take steps such as:

- Increase of the number of School Advisors, or, at least, tackling of the highly uneven distribution of teachers under their jurisdiction;
- evaluation of both teachers and School Advisors by use of a multi-method approach and with procedures that will convince the education community of the state's determination to mitigate subjectivity;
- integration of School Advisors in key decision-makers;
- clarification of Advisors' responsibilities;
- integration of the evaluation results and of postgraduate guiding qualification in the School Advisors selection criteria.

Finally, particular emphasis should be placed on the redirection of guidance activities aimed at the professional development of teachers. Traditional practices such as, interpersonal communication with the teacher and organising of training sessions, must be complemented by additional methods to support professional development; in this direction, School Advisors can play the role of coach and coordinator, as long as their role is enhanced by measures like the ones mentioned above. To be precise, the new challenge for Greek education is the creation of conditions that will hamper teachers' loneliness and lead to the establishment of professional learning communities, permanent partnerships among teachers, in which, as seen above, they will learn how to learn (Snyder 1997). The aim needs to be the intervention to school culture, as this is recognized as one of the most critical factors responsible for stagnation or promotion of change (Day 1999; Maynard 2000; Stanulis, Fallona and Pearson 2002).

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SCHOOL FAILURE: WHAT DO TEACHERS MEAN ABOUT REASONS FOR SCHOOL FAILURE?

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Abstract

School failure, as well as school success, permanently become challenge for the process of education. Recently there have been a great number of questions arising and seeking for answers dedicated to effectiveness, efficiency, achieving greater academic success among pupils. From teacher point of view, everyone demands to be more effective in his work. We constantly debate about successful teachers. In the same time we also talk about effective learners which manage to be successful in learning process. Beside all relativities of meaning of success, effectiveness, we got failure on our minds all the time. We talk about the failure in educational context very rarely. In the paper we compared things and made a conclusion that someone is weaker than another one. The paper goes inside of teacher's opinion about the reasons of school failure. Such area of interest until now has never been subject of research in our country. This is important to do because this is the only way to establish two educational actions: corrective and preventive one. One more ambitious project in the future will be to find out more about pupils opinion on this matter. Then the mission will be completed: we will find out if two of sides share the same opinion about location of problems.

Keywords: *school failure, corrective and preventive, teachers perception*

1. Introduction

Some questions in the area of education are permanently open. They seem like some kind of meta- questions which constantly demand new answers. In practice of educational work it means offer of new solutions which have the role of redefinition, purification and redesigning of it. One of these questions is question of school failure, phenomenon which could be seen permanently as side effect of educational process. If we analyze this question on the basic of time continuity we can see that it has evaluated in many of its aspects. Looking from the outside, we can make a conclusion that things are changing very fast, but some of them still remain the same.

Is there any universal definition of school failure?

We can give positive, as well as negative

answer. And both of them will be true. When we talk about school failure we expect that everyone will have the same thing on his mind. But, that is not the case. Beside the definition of school failure on the individual level, there are definitions of schools which demonstrate school failure, which raises this question on the institutional level. *School failure represents inability of person to achieve minimal academic standards that are established by educational institution. School failure is process in which lagging behind and behind his peers and finally he disconnects from educational system. According to his abilities fail* These opinions represent individual aspect of school failure. *Failing schools according to Her Majesty inspectorate are those which can not achieve academic standards, lack of quality of education which is provided by school, efficiency of financial management, spirituality, morality and cultural development in school.*{Muijs, D}

No democratic society should tolerate adults who cannot interpret bus schedules, or newspaper articles. When job applicants cannot pass a seven-grade-level employment exam, we have a problem, even if the promise of jobs for those who pass is a false one. This approach means that sometimes we have a long term consideration of school failure: we consider learning outputs as relevant ones for evaluating pupils, as well as educational system success.

The definition of school failure can be ambiguous, since it not only entails the student failure, but also that of the educational system as it has not successfully met the students needs {Papadopoulos 1990}.

Maybe we will not make a great mistake if we consider that reasons for school failure depend on student are more similar, than reasons depending on school. School work in a different environment, sociological, cultural, financial and other matters which influence school work to be various. But when we talk about student it seems that their individual reasons are same all over the world. There is no universal definition about school failure, but the most important thing for us is facing and founding a way to overcome it. It is a serious obligation for society simply because it can be a witness of increasing drop out rates which directly implicates: unsuccessful at school, unsuccessful at life and society.

2. Are reasons for school failure some kind of mystic?

There is no mystic when we talk about reasons for school failure. Many researches around the world do an effort to determine reasons for school failure. Some experts consider school failure as consequence of intellectual disability of person; some of them talk about condition of illness such as depression, anxiety. Objective reasons such as learning disability, family problems, lack of motivation, disadvantaged leaving surrounding, being minority, talking other language, poorness, all of them factors which are beyond school walls and beyond school control. We can consider those factors as factors which are connected to person. Another group of experts put school in the center of observation. They talk about range of reasons such as: a lot of school material, unintelligible content, too many obligations to be realized at home, a big size of classes, absence of student support service at every school, the inability to make a connection between school content and real life situation, template approach, lack of individual treatment of every pupil such as one to one tutoring, felling of boring, many mistakes in process of assessing pupils knowledge and skills, low self-esteem, lack of learning skills, learned helplessness, fear of school, stress, poor organization of time, lack of effort, low grades, poor academic achievement, poor test performance. Sometimes experts underline inappropriate staff development, lack of professional skills, which means that they consider school organization as well as knowledge and skills of teacher most common reasons for school failure. Also there is an opinion about special group of students, so called students-at risk, a group of students with some kind of common characteristics such as belonging to minority group, among which we expect to see school failure. Generally there are personal, family, academic and social factors that influence over school failure.

There is no hierarchy when we talk about reasons for school failure. Every reason is unique and important for every pupil. And every reason should not be underpinned. The main problem for educators is reasons which are beyond their control and influence. But many of reasons for school failure can be prevented, or overcome if there is real picture about reasons for school

failure. If we have clear situation we can make plans for taking actions at every level in order to overcome school failure.

3. What is the reality?

In Republic of Macedonia school failure is one of the actual facts. But, unfortunately there is no study dedicated to school failure. Many of Government practical initiatives are taken to increase efficiency, effectiveness of educational system, but lots of those initiatives and actions have not been established over research activities. So many of them lies on assumptions what causes school failure and assumptions which steps must be taken. Many of those steps are taken uncoordinatedly, or few of them are taking part in same time. To make prediction that taking same changes or taking interventions in educational system without detecting real situation is not the most appropriate strategy for education. Sometimes reasons for school failure could be located in society, so only school interventions are not enough for overcoming failure. It will be wasting of people, money and time. School failure is serious problem for every society, school system, parent, and pupil. This means that every serious educational policy must have serious approach over this problem. We do not have real data about causes of this problem. This is most important thing if we consider variation of sub cultural circumstances in which schools work differences between various regions with different language and religious domination, between poor and welfare parts of the country.

4. The purpose of the research

Our research is not ambition one. We try to start treating this problem since we are aware that until now there is no real and serious research of reasons for school failure, research which will take a part in Macedonian educational institutions. The simple's version is to try to find out more about those reasons by hearing the voice of practitioners: teachers. We create questioner in which we put statements on school failure reasons. This problem must be taken seriously under the observation and treatment of educational authorities. Finding real reasons in practice that influence over school success means good planning of intervention in area of

prevention, as well as in the area of taking effective measures for overcoming school failure.

5. Methodology of the research

The main research question is the perception teachers about the school failure. The hypothesis of the research was defined as: *The teacher have no clear and unique picture about the reasons for the school failure.* The decision to examine this hypothesis using the random sample was set according to the sensitivity of the question and the possible responsibility for the common situation in the school failure.

Table 1: Structure of the sample of the research

Living places	Primary school teachers		
	All-class teachers	Subject teachers	Sum.
Bitola	46	31	77
Prilep	21	18	39
Ohrid	12	14	26
Struga	17	19	36
Demir Hisar	9	10	19
Sum.	105	92	197

In the table above is presented the structure of the research sample: 197 primary school teachers located in the south-west part of Republic of Macedonia, 105 all-class teachers and 92 subject teachers. In the questionnaire the teachers were asked about their opinion for: the characteristic of the school failure, the reasons about the school failure, the teacher and the school failure and the management and the failure.

Table 2: Characteristic of the school failure (A teacher perception)

Qualitative statements	All-class teachers		Subject teachers		Sum.	Sum.	Rang
	Mean	St.dev.	Mean	St.dev.	Mean	St.dev.	
The feeling that you miss the point	3.200	1.709	2.685	1.188	2.942	1.449	7
Dissatisfaction of the pupil	2.143	1.528	1.946	1.219	2.044	1.374	17
Law grades of the pupils	4.152	1.372	3.533	1.463	3.842	1.417	3
Dissatisfaction of the parents	3.048	1.055	2.652	1.331	2.850	1.193	9
Unrealized curriculum	2.343	1.667	2.293	1.529	2.318	1.598	15
Partially realized curriculum	2.571	1.579	2.707	1.493	2.639	1.536	11
Lack of cooperation among the teachers	2.790	1.602	2.587	1.105	2.689	1.353	10
Lack of cooperation among the employees	3.886	1.720	3.772	1.568	3.829	1.644	4
Bad management with the school	4.448	1.280	3.989	1.448	4.218	1.364	2
Non participation on the local pupil competitions	2.705	1.543	2.348	1.281	2.526	1.412	12
Absence of cooperation with the community	2.276	1.470	2.500	1.363	2.388	1.417	13
Non functional vocational teams	2.838	1.251	3.130	1.065	2.984	1.158	6
Lack of professional development of the teachers	4.486	1.228	4.696	0.671	4.591	0.950	1
Not taking part in the projects	3.324	1.142	3.228	0.782	3.276	0.962	5
Lower grades on the external evaluation	2.667	1.066	1.793	1.089	2.230	1.077	16
Lower grades on the integral evaluation	3.571	1.085	2.163	0.924	2.867	1.005	8
Bad working conditions and environment	2.819	1.766	1.924	1.086	2.371	1.426	14

In the table 2 are presented the qualitative and quantitative dimensions of the teacher opinion about the characteristic of the school failure.

There are no differences between qualitative teacher statements according their number and content. The number of teacher statements is limited on seventeen, and they are thematic focused on four areas: curricula, parents and community, evaluation and feeling of satisfaction.

When we talk about different categories of teachers we can see small differences in correlation with characteristic for school failure:

- In average for the great number of teachers characteristic of school failure are: lack of professional development,

bad way of managing school and law grades of pupils. We must mention that in the category of all-class teachers degree of significance is higher. In this category of teachers there is greater dispersion between their statements.

- Also the significant number of all-class teachers considered dissatisfaction of pupils, absence of cooperation with community and unrealized curricula as significant characteristic of failing schools, and among subject teacher lower grades on external evaluation, bad working conditions and environment, and dissatisfaction of the pupil are main characteristics of failing schools.

Table 3: Reasons for the school failure

Statements	All-class teachers		Subject teachers		Sum.	Sum.	Rang
	Mean	St.dev.	Mean	St.dev.	Mean	St.dev.	
Family matters	3.629	0.969	3.880	0.819	3.755	0.894	3
Different cultural background of the pupils	4.171	0.786	3.554	1.077	3.863	0.932	2
Poverty in the society	4.114	0.949	4.424	0.695	4.269	0.822	1
Diversity in the classroom	3.010	1.797	3.587	1.002	3.298	1.399	6
Non equipped classrooms	3.438	1.086	3.587	1.181	3.513	1.133	4
School distance from the pupils home	2.343	1.202	1.783	0.919	2.063	1.06	9
Local weather	2.867	1.043	1.804	1.209	2.336	1.126	8
Bad political environment and conditions	4.514	0.874	3.609	1.113	3.442	1.044	5
Envy among the teachers	3.752	0.993	4.043	1.083	3.061	1.103	7

From results presented in the table No 3 we can see results of teacher opinion about reasons for school failure. Results show that:

- The main reasons are mainly from community nature, which can be seen from values of statements. Bad political environment and conditions, different cultural background of pupils and poverty in a society have the bigger influence over school failure.
- The intensity of statements is more equivalent between subject teachers which stressed poverty in a society, envy among teachers and family matters.
- There is certain non significant dispersion of answers among all-class teachers and subject teachers. This means that there is cohesion over their statements.

Table 4: Teacher and the school failure

Statements	All-class teachers		Subject teachers		Sum.	Sum.	Rang
	Mean	St.dev.	Mean	St.dev.	Mean	St.dev.	
Insufficient pedagogical knowledge	4.000	1.441	3.859	1.578	3.929	1.510	3
Too many general subject in initial teacher training	3.543	1.195	3.891	1.521	3.717	1.358	5
Insufficient didactical knowledge	3.676	0.834	4.011	1.220	3.844	1.027	4
Low motivation of the teacher for accepting the changes	3.000	0.986	3.587	0.957	3.293	0.971	7
Lack of interest of teachers for	3.095	1.391	3.163	0.959	3.129	1.175	8

Statements	All-class teachers		Subject teachers		Sum.	Sum.	Rang
	Mean	St.dev.	Mean	St.dev.	Mean	St.dev.	
permanent education							
Insufficient pedagogical practice in initial teacher training	3.933	1.106	4.511	1.005	4.222	1.056	2
Not taking part in the design of the school change	2.790	1.602	2.989	1.463	2.89	1.533	9
Low salaries for the teachers	4.038	1.460	4.413	0.911	4.226	1.185	1
Lack of possibility for teacher's development	3.533	1.139	3.152	1.318	3.343	1.228	6

When we talk about teacher possibility to give answers about their role in school failure we can see this picture: (See Table 4)

- They consider low salaries both all-class teachers and subject teachers as significant factor for school failure.
- We must stress the lack of pedagogical and didactical knowledge, as well as insufficient of pedagogical practice in initial teacher training as factor of school failure.

Table 5: Management and the failure

	All-class teachers		Subject teachers		Sum.	Sum.	Rang
	Mean	St.dev.	Mean	St.dev.	Mean	St.dev.	
Inappropriate people on a leading position	3.990	1.231	4.011	1.156	4.001	1.193	2
Lack of knowledge for school management	3.381	1.124	3.370	1.494	3.375	1.309	3
The manager follows the politics of the political parties	3.990	1.320	4.087	1.139	4.039	1.229	1
Friend oriented management	3.114	0.760	3.011	1.175	3.063	0.967	4
Satisfaction of personal interests	2.724	1.199	2.348	1.470	2.536	1.335	6
School management based on financial benefits	2.924	1.247	2.370	1.213	2.647	1.23	5

When we analyzed relation between management and school failure we can see that: (See Table 5)

- There is equivalence in intensity of statements among all teachers that the manager follows the politics of the dominant political parties, lack of knowledge about managing the school, and inappropriate people on leading

position. Also the less significance they give to satisfaction of personal interests and school management based on financial benefits.

- Teacher think that personal interests are not significant for pupils who manage schools.
- The greatest equivalence among intensity of answers between all-class

teachers is over statement about friend oriented management.

- Among all teachers there is domination of believes that political parties have a great deal over management of the school, that means they indirectly influence over school failure.

6. Conclusion

The main research hypothesis: *The teacher has no clear and unique picture about the reasons for the school failure* has confirmed. Teachers from both categories choose different statements as characteristics of failing schools. Significant number of teachers in both categories considers that the main reasons for school failure are located outside of school, in wider society and community. In position to be self- critic about own influence over school failure teachers are united in their answers: they all agree that low salaries are responsible for teachers influence over school failure. Many other situations which are dedicated to deeper matters of teacher profession are not so important for them. This means that again they consider outside factors for school failure as significant one. Reasons for school failure seen from the angle of school management show that teachers consider influence of politics over managing the schools the most important one, which leads to wrong choice of people who manage schools.

The results of this research are very important, simply because this is the first step for exploring this area in our country, and we are aware that we have to make further steps to explain this complex problem. This is the only way for taking concrete measures to overcome some problems of school and people failure in schools.

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STUDENT'S VIEWS OF THE CHARACTERISTICS OF 'BEST PRACTICE' ACTIVITIES IN PRIMARY SCHOOL

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Abstract

Best practice in education is the action which gives opportunities to all pupils to improve their performance. Thus, it's important for the teacher to find strategies and initiatives that create perspectives in their pupil's development. The aim of best practice activities is to face school failure having as a basis the need for social justice and equality of opportunities. So, the aim of our announcement is to examine the views of students of primary education department regarding: firstly, the practices that teachers use in classroom and can be considered as 'best practice' activities and secondly, the way that students evaluate and judge the characteristics that 'best practice' activities should have in order to be effective. For this purpose, an observation sheet was given to students asking them to record which of teacher's activities they watched in classroom during the educational process can be regarded as 'best practice'. Additionally, it was asked to classify in order of importance eleven characteristics of 'best practice' activities which they were given to them in a relevant catalogue. The whole observation process took place in the 'experimental' primary schools of Florina in autumn of 2011.

Keywords: *best practice, activities, classroom strategies*

1. Introduction

1.1. The concept of 'best practice' activities

The term 'best practice' has been used to describe 'what works' in a given situation or environment. Alternatively the term 'good practice' is also used. As far as education is concerned, best practice is the action which gives opportunities to all pupils to improve their performance. It's about practices in everyday school life which are successful and effective responding to young people's needs (in this context, school culture seems to be a key factor in organizing curriculum or extra curriculum initiatives). Creativity and innovation are two elements determinant in defining the substance of best practices, concerning both students and their teachers (Banaji et. al, 2010).

Thus, it is important for the teachers to find strategies and initiatives that create perspectives

for their pupils' development. The teachers' role in everyday school life is very important, as long as the school curriculum doesn't seem to offer learning experiences suitable for all students. However, it must be noted that 'best practices' as a concept and implementation are student oriented and focused.

1.2. Theoretical framework

The theoretical and pedagogical context is based on critical pedagogy, as elaborated by Freire, Giroux, Apple and others (McLaren, 2010) according to which the aim of education is the personal and social empowerment of the pupil beyond the conquest of knowledge and technical skills which proclaim a traditional perspective that claim education to be neutral and apolitical. On the other hand, it comes in contradiction with the social determinism according to which the wider social, economic and institutional environment determines all aspects of school life and therefore, the social background of every pupil sets his school career.

The notion of 'best practices', based on critical pedagogy, presuppose that the school is a medium for progressive social change and transformation, which means generally a medium to a more stable and fair democracy (Kellner 2000). Some of their basic features both in teaching and learning, adapted in primary education, are: a) the collaboration among students, b) the active learning, c) feedback and reflection, d) high goals and respect for each student different talents and learning styles (Chickering & Gamson 1987). So, the aim of best practice activities in education is to face school failure by supporting all students and especially vulnerable social groups (ethnic, cultural, religious etc.) in all kinds of discrimination and having as a basis the need for justice and equality of opportunities (Carr & Kemmins 1997).

2. The study

2.1. Aim of the study and research questions

The survey aims at recording the views of teacher candidates in relation to "best teaching practices". The value of research lies on the fact that it offers research data that can support the theoretical background of a relatively new theme

(at least for the Greek bibliography), such as that of "good practices" in teaching theory. Specifically, the aim of our study is to examine the views of students of a primary education department in relation to: firstly, the strategies that teachers use in classroom and can be considered as 'best practice' activities and secondly, the way that student-teachers evaluate and judge the characteristics that 'best practice' activities should have in order to be effective. We support that the survey reflects a) the opinion of the student-teachers about which are the most important characteristics of "good practices" and b) the preferred strategies followed by primary teacherstogether with the frequency of their application in educational practice.

2.2 Methodology

The survey involved 52 students (21 male and 31 female students), who were going through the third semester in the Department of Education of University of Western Macedonia (Florina) and participated in the 1st phase of their teaching practice. In this context, students initially attend theoretical lectures about the "best teaching practices" where the "characteristics" and "implementation strategies" of 'best practice' in teaching are discussed (Table 1, Dimitriadou 2011). Then student-teachers were given a list of 11 characteristics of "best teaching practices" which were asked to rank in order of importance. Finally, in a later stage, they observed two hours of teaching in classes of experimental primary schools of Florina and were asked to write down on an observation sheet, implementation strategies that teachers use in classroom and can be considered as 'best practices' within the 2 hour of instruction attended. A catalogue was also given consisting of 19 strategic implementations. The whole observation process took place in autumn 2011. The data collected from the observation sheets were transferred to statistical data processing platform SPSS 17.0 where they were processed to extract the basic statistical measures.

Table 1: "best teaching practices"

A. Characteristics of 'best practices'	B. Strategic implementation of 'best practices'
1. The notion that there is scope for action at the school and education system	1. differentiation of instruction,
2. A strong school leadership ready to take initiatives for good practice and excellence	2. use of multimodal texts,
3. A philosophy that gives priority to students needs	3. Storytelling,
4. Unified approach for the development of programs supporting pupil's needs	4. use of authentic texts,
5. The presence of interference and high expectations for all students performance	5. use of bilingual texts,
6. Orientation for change in the existing school system	6. teaching group cooperation,
7. Socio-political climate that supports growth and change	7. cooperative research projects (project)
8. Support from the state	8. interdisciplinary approaches
9. Cooperative bonds with the local community	9. research-discovery method
10. Teaching staff with professional competence and experience	10. role-playing activities
11. Involvement of family in finding solutions	11. simulations
	12. front-organizers
	13. short-term groupings
	14. experiential learning
	15. teaching with ICT
	16. development of creative thinking
	17. brainstorming
	18. use of texts with antiracist content
	19. parental involvement in the teaching process

3. Findings

3.1 Characteristics of 'best practice' activities

The results (see Table 2) showed that, firstly, for 8 (out of 11) characteristics that students were asked to prioritize in order of importance, there was no agreement as far as their significance was concerned, because they took all possible ranking (range 10, min 1/max 11). That means that they all have been evaluated case by case by the most significant (first position) to the least important (11th place). The range is limited (range 9) in the results regarding the characteristic related to 'family involvement in finding solutions' (f_11). That means that no one thinks that this is the most important characteristic of 'good practices' (min 2/max 11). Moreover, the characteristic 'cooperative links with the local community' (f_9) assessed at best, as the third most important feature of 'good practices' (min 3/max 11) as well as for the feature 'presence interventions and high expectations for student performance' (f_5) it didn't gain in any student preference outliers (1st and 11th), (min 2/max 10).

More specifically, the feature that students

seem to evaluate as the most important is that of the 'existence of a philosophy that gives priority to the needs of students' (f_3) because 17 of them (32.7%) put it in the first place in the ranking position and 10 (19.3%) in the second (mode 1 / median 2 / mean 3,54). The second more important feature is referred to proper 'training staff with professional competence and experience' (f_10) (mode 5 / median 4 / mean 4,62). It is characteristic that 7 out of 10 students (71.2%) evaluate this feature in the first 5 positions of their list. As the third most important feature of "best practices" in teaching was evaluated "the notion that there is scope for action at the school and education system' (f_1) (modes 1 & 7 / median 6 / mean 5,08).

On the contrary, the feature that is considered less important, according to the respondents, is the one concerning the need to have "cooperative links with the local community' (f_9) (mode 11 / median 9 / mean 8.63). Finally, low in students' ranking is the feature 'involvement of family in finding solutions' (f_11) (mode 11 / median 7 / mean 7.50) and 'the need for a" unified approach to develop programs to support students '(f_4) (mode 9 / median 7 / mean 6,92).

Table 2: Statistic analysis of the characteristics of 'best practice' activities

	f_1	f_2	f_3	f_4	f_5	f_6	f_7	f_8	f_9	f_10	f_11
Valid (N)	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52
Missing (N)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	5,08	5,48	3,54	6,92	6,10	5,83	6,19	6,38	8,63	4,62	7,50
Median	6,00	6,00	2,00	7,00	6,50	6,00	7,00	6,00	9,00	4,00	7,00
Mode	<u>1^a</u>	<u>2^a</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>4^a</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>11</u>
Std.Deviation	2,963	3,122	2,954	2,969	2,312	2,735	3,266	2,958	2,575	2,998	2,941
Variance	8,778	9,745	8,724	8,817	5,344	7,479	10,668	8,751	6,629	8,986	8,647
Range	10	10	10	10	8	10	10	10	8	10	9
Minimum	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	3	1	2
Maximum	11	11	11	11	10	11	11	11	11	11	11
Sum	264	285	184	360	317	303	322	332	449	240	390

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

3.2. Strategies for implementing "best practices"

The results showed that teachers employ a variety of classroom strategies that can be used to implement best teaching practices. According to students, the more commonly used "strategic implementation of best teaching practices" from teachers is "storytelling" as seen by 20 students (38.5%) followed by "exploitation of creative thinking" mentioned by 17 students (32.7%). As the 28.8% of students in the sample (15 students) remarked, teachers seem to apply the strategy of "differentiation of instruction". The same percentage appeals in "cross-curricular activities'. Fourteen students (26.9%) indicated strategies of 'experiential learning', while twelve, (23.1%) noticed the "teaching group cooperation', and eleven (21.2%) the 'brainstorming'. Finally, in 10 cases (19.2%) the 'front organizers' was used by the teachers.

On the other hand, the results show that the least used by teachers' strategies are, according to students: the strategy "teaching using ICT", which was observed in two cases (3.8%) and "cooperative research projects (project)", which was applied in one case (1.9%). Finally, strategies that are not used at all in the observed lessons are those of the "use of bilingual texts", the "simulations" as well as "short-term groupings."

4. Discussion

In accordance with the theoretical analysis that was preceded and the results of the hybrid research that was conducted, we can argue first of all that 'best practices' are present in everyday teaching practice in Greek primary school since we identified strategies in the educational process that can be defined by this term. The research has shown that the strategies of 'storytelling', the creative thinking, the differentiation of instruction and the execution of interdisciplinary activities are the most widely used teaching practices. On the other hand, there is a lag of the use of ICT and the use of project method, whereas absence of the use of bilingual texts was observed as well as simulations and teaching actions that require short-term groupings, practices relatively new in the Greek educational system.

Based on the above, the question which arises and requires further investigation, is if the strategies that are used or not, is the result of the curriculum and the textbooks that support it or are they associated with teachers themselves and their personal teaching and pedagogical theory. Research findings in this direction can help the discussion of the range of 'best' teaching practices that teachers use with the appropriate interventions.

Finally, the results from the evaluation of the characteristics of 'best practice' activities made

from the students have shown some interesting details. They support that the use of 'best practices' presupposes, first of all, the existence of an educational philosophy that gives priority to the students' needs whilst it's important to have a sufficient and capable teaching staff who can be able to implement them (education is historically teacher-centered). The educational system as a whole, according to the students, should be guided by a general perception that there is scope for action and change both at school level and more generally. On the other hand, students don't evaluate as so important, characteristics like the cooperation with the wider community or the pupils' families, indicating the strong belief that still exists, according to which the school is considered as a closed system that doesn't except interventions from the 'outside'.

Closing this brief research it should be mentioned that recently the term of 'best practices' has been established in the Greek educational system. The ministry of education developed the 'institution of excellence and Promotion of 'best practices' in education' in 2010. Its scope is the development of innovation and creativity in order to strengthen the educational work. Unlike our theoretical analysis, the main goal, as mentioned, is the professional improvement of teachers. Besides, and in contrast with the philosophy of education that we supported, it emphasizes on evaluating, rewarding and public promotion through posting the 'best practice' activities in the internet.

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SUPPORTING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT THROUGH ACTION RESEARCH: BASIC PRINCIPLES AND SUGGESTED PROCESSES

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to clarify the basic principles and processes employed to support teachers' professional development through action research. The principles of professional development are based on the need for a bottom-up approach of professional development in which practitioners are active agents in shaping, planning and evaluating their own professional development. The necessity for adopting a new role by practitioners, who study, document and reflect upon the daily educational process is stressed. The proposed processes in this paper for enhancing teachers' professional development within an action research paradigm are based upon close links among theory, research, practice and reflection. Specifically, we argue that these processes include the support of teachers to a) explore their personal theories and reasoning of the perceived problem (reflection), b) document the problem through the use of specific research methods (theory and research), c) revisit their understandings of the problem based on theory and documentation (theory and reflection), d) enrich their strategies and design whole-class interventions (theory and practice), e) proceed to formative and final assessment of their plans and strategies based on documentation regarding pupils' outcomes and reflection strategies (research and reflection) and, finally, repeat the previous processes within an action research spiral to improve their practice.

Keywords: *professional development, action research, role of facilitator*

1. Introduction

This paper will attempt to propose a model with basic principles and specific processes for supporting teachers' professional development. This model emerged from a need to clarify steps, tools and processes to support teachers in their professional learning within an action research project. Teacher professional development is understood as professional learning that leads to educational improvement.

This professional learning gives emphasis on teachers' ability to learn how to learn and lead their self-development. Thus professional development, in this sense, involves both processes and outcomes, not only for the benefit

of the teachers but also for the benefit of the pupils.

The rationale of the proposed model is based on the need for a bottom-up approach of professional development (Fullan, 1993) where practitioners are active agents in shaping, planning and evaluating their own professional development (Day, 1999). In addition, professional development is based on the adoption of a new role for practitioners that of researchers who study, document and reflect upon the daily educational process (Altrichter, Posch & Somekh 1993). A theoretical framework to challenge teachers' understandings and frame their selected actions is indeed needed to support teachers' professional development as an inquiry and reflection process (Shosh & Rappe Jales, 2007).

Action research provides us with a context for applying the aforementioned principles: the *active role of teachers in their own professional development*, the role of *reflection* and the *use of research* to document, plan and evaluate the outcomes of an educational program based on a solid *theoretical framework*. Thus, professional development within an action research project focusing on educational improvement does not only refer to the acquisition of new knowledge, theories and skills and the enrichment of teachers' educational strategies. Such an understanding of professional development as an "acquisition" process of new skills and knowledge highlights, on the one hand, the "external" and rather imposed character of teacher's professional development and, on the other hand, the "technocratic and managerial" aspect of teaching. However, within an action research paradigm two more elements are crucial for teachers' professional development: teachers' acquisition of research abilities for documentation and evaluation of practice and the ability for critical reflection in order to revisit past practices and improve them. These elements highlight action research as a teacher empowerment process with the support of facilitators. Teachers have a central role in educational improvement based on inquiry and reflection. Therefore, professional development as an inquiry and reflection process (rather than as "acquisition" process) views teaching as a complex and dynamic process based on multiple understandings of actions in the classroom,

teachers' personal theories and knowledge, pupils' background and so on.

However, while we have a detailed description of the steps/phases a teacher is expected to go through in order to be involved in an action research spiral (Carr & Kemmis 1986, Altrichter, Posch & Somekh 1993), we have little knowledge of the processes we, as facilitators of action research, should employ to support teachers move through these phases. This model is an attempt to add to existing knowledge (Avgitidou 2009, Koutselini 2007, Messner & Rauch 1995, Shosh & Rappe Jales 2007) regarding the organization and structure of facilitating teacher professional development as an inquiry and reflection process.

As a facilitator of action research myself for many years, I realized various issues during the process of supporting teachers to improve their practice through action research. Most common issues were the following: teachers are expected to question their practice and reflect upon it in order to enhance their professional development. However, why teachers may revisit a teaching experience or practice? What is their motive? Which understanding of their practice (i.e. pupils underachieve) will lead them to a questioning of their current practice (i.e. are my teaching methods ineffective)? Even, if this revisiting of practice takes place, which, out of many, directions will it follow? (i.e. will I blame the "poor" family background for pupils' underachievement or the ways I organize my teaching?). What is the role of theory in providing teachers with alternative explanatory frames for understanding their current educational practice? In which stage theory could support teachers and how? How will teachers make decisions about new actions and strategies that will alter their current educational practice? What will be the content and process of this new action? What will be its evaluation criteria? How can teachers' reflection process be supported during the implementation of these new actions? These are significant questions that a facilitator comes across when aiming at the support of a group of teachers he or she collaborates with.

Moreover to these questions which focus on the practical issues related to the support of teachers within an action research paradigm, it is important to discuss on an epistemological basis

how educational theory, research, reflection and practice might be linked and related in action research and teachers' professional development. Which is the role and significance of each element (theory, research, reflection and practice) and what might be the links among these elements during an action research spiral aiming to educational improvement? The proposed model is based upon close links among theory, research, reflection and practice and underlines the ways each element intertwined with other elements. The specific model was constructed and developed through my participation as a facilitator in various action research projects and reflexive research accounts of this experience (Avgitidou & Marselou, 2007, Avgitidou, 2009; 2012a, 2012b). The specific version of this model developed recently during a six-month collaborative action research project with 16 early childhood and primary education teachers within the context of the European Program "Education of foreign and repatriated pupils". All 16 teachers gathered together from different schools having as an initial concern the improvement of peer acceptance and social inclusion among their pupils in their classrooms. After a fifteen hour educational seminar, this group of teachers decided to stay together aiming to design, try out and evaluate an educational intervention program based on inquiry, theory and reflection.

2. Main goals and basic principles for supporting teachers' professional development through action research

The goals of the proposed model for supporting teachers in action research focus on:

- making sure that teachers are actively involved in all phases of action research, thus during the exploration of the "problem" that concerns them, description of the problem and the processes of planning, acting and evaluating teacher action. Teachers' experience in these guided steps of inquiry, reflection and action is expected to contribute to their professional development by providing them with the tools and processes for improving practice in the here and now sphere as well as supporting their future autonomy

in later attempts to improve their practice.

- making sure that decisions and actions are collaboratively made through dialogue, discussion of research-based evidence and reflection, all aiming towards the effort to improve pupils' educational experience and outcomes.
- the empowerment of teachers with a theoretical framework that provides them with varying and alternative frameworks for understanding their educational practice as well as possible ways to intervene to improve it.
- providing opportunities for systematic reflection and focused evaluation based upon tools for documentation, analysis of data, teaching designs and evaluation methods.

The main principles underlying the above chosen goals emphasize:

- a. a collaborative process of co-planning and co-directing the action research by teachers and facilitator as well as their joint decision making processes before any action,
- b. the utilization of teachers' practical knowledge and support of reflection upon both teachers' personal theories and their present experience and practice,
- c. the role of theory and research to provide specific information that will lead to teachers' actions based on documentation and reflection, and
- d. the context-specific character of teacher action. The context of teacher action is expected to be shaped by i) teachers' understandings of the 'problem', existing repertoire of 'good' practices, teachers' expectations from the collaboration and their devotion to the project and b) the context of each classroom, specific space and resources of each classroom, size and composition of pupil population, pupils' interests and relationships and so on.

Regarding this specific action research project, the active role of teachers in co-planning and co-directing the action research project together with the facilitator was possible

because teachers had to the opportunities to:

- -choose the theme/problem of action research
- -specify the theme/problem of action research according to the specific setting of their classroom which contextualized meaningfully the whole endeavor to improve practice
- -document their current understandings and practices and involve in dialogue with colleagues about them. This was an important process before challenging these beliefs and practices through new theoretical frameworks and potential strategies for adoption.
- -state their expectations from the action research which then shaped the context of collaboration
- -have the central role in collecting and analyzing data, designing, implementing and evaluating educational action.

3. A description of the proposed processes for supporting professional development within an action research paradigm

At this point we describe the processes included in the model for the support of teachers to

- a. explore their personal theories and reasoning of the perceived problem (reflection),
- b. document the problem through the use of specific research methods (theory and research),
- c. revisit their understandings of the problem based on theory and documentation (theory and reflection),
- d. enrich their strategies and design whole-class interventions (theory and practice) and last,
- e. proceed to formative and final assessment of their plans and strategies based on documentation regarding pupils' outcomes and reflection strategies (research and reflection) and repeat the previous processes within an action research spiral.

3.1. Exploration of teachers' personal theories and reasoning of the perceived problem (reflection)

Research shows the crucial role of teachers' personal theory since it acts as an interpretive filter through which teachers understand educational situations, interpret scientific theory, evaluate actions and take decisions (Carr & Kemmis 1997, Bennet & Carre 1993, Fullan 1993, Matsagouras, 1997). Thus, in the beginning of our collaboration with the teachers and in order to know each other better, it was important to give opportunities to teachers to state their personal theory about the goals of education, their priorities, their expectations from pupils and their role. In this model, a questionnaire with open-ended questions was used to help teachers clarify their personal theory and state it in a written form.

Tool 1: identification of teachers' priorities and selected actions

1. The most important things I want to achieve in my class are:
2. I am happy with my work when
3. How would I like my pupils to be and behave so that I am happy in my class?
4. What do I do to achieve this?

After this first questionnaire, another one was immediately administered where teachers were asked to provide their understandings of children's priorities in the classroom.

Tool 2: identification of children's priorities and selected actions

1. The things that are most important for my pupils are:
2. My pupils are content and have a good time when:
3. What do I observe by comparing my priorities and children's priorities?

Teachers were asked to compare their answers in these two questionnaires and actually compare their perspective as teachers with that of their pupils. Discussion based on this comparison was made in pairs and then in fours and then as a whole group with immediate results in relation to reflection since teachers

realized their often teacher-centered goals and that more attention should be given to children's perspective.

After this first step aiming at self-knowledge and reflection, it was important to gather teachers' initial descriptions and understandings of "the main and most important problem" that concerned them in their class, which in our case related with social inclusion. A specific tool was provided to help teachers proceed in a description and understanding of their current most important problem based on the proposal of Altrichter et al. (1999).

Tool 3: Initial identification of the educational problem (prior knowledge before documentation)

A. Themes/issues:

Which are the issues that concern me most in my everyday educational practice? Why do they concern me? Make a list with all the issues that concern you.

B. Which one of these matters is it more worthy to examine? Choose one of the above matters and think about the possibility to arrive at a point after its study .

C. analysis of the situation:

What takes place in this situation?

Who does what?

Which factors play an important role and influence this situation?

How did I come to my understanding about what happens in this situation and what affects it? (what kind of information do I have and from which source? How did I collect this information and how systematic is it?)

What do I want to improve or change in this situation? Why do I want to change it?

Do I influence this situation? In which ways?

Do I believe I can change this situation?

What do I do to improve or change this situation?

An additional tool was administered to explore teachers' practices (tool 4). Specifically, teachers were asked to describe their effective and ineffective practices when facing a problem such as the one they described in tool 3. Moreover, tool 4 asked teachers to clarify their expectations from the collaborative action research project.

Tool 4: Effective and ineffective practices / expectations from the project

Please describe an incident such as the one that concerns you most that you have handled effectively in your past practice.

Now describe an incident such as the one that concerns you most that you have not handled effectively in your past practice.

What do I expect from the specific project and in which case will I be content with its outcomes?

All this written information was then analyzed by the facilitator before the next meeting with the group in order to better understand what the members of the team thought and did and identify points for future reflection. For example, when a teacher/member of the action research project working on social inclusion, stated as her main priority (tool 1) children's achievement and children's discipline, I understood as a facilitator that we should discuss the relationship between our priorities as teachers and the ways we do things in the classroom and, finally, to the outcomes of these actions (i.e. if I don't perceive children's positive relationships and a climate of social inclusion as my priority, maybe I create less opportunities and space for its occurrence).

Another important point that came out of the analysis of tool 3 was that most teachers could not reason why this problem occurs in their classroom, so research methods to proceed to a reasoning of the problem from their perspective and children's perspective was necessary. More, when teachers reasoned the existence of a social problem in their class, they attributed this reasoning either to external factors (i.e. family background) or intrinsic factors (i.e. the child is aggressive) without positioning themselves as teachers in this context who make most of the decisions about the content, ways and rules of the educational process.

Last, in analyzing tools 3 and 4, teachers did not have specific strategies to improve social inclusion. Rather the majority of teachers used discussion and positive reward as main effective practices and employed situation-specific responses to children's actions (i.e. "I will go and tell them that they should play together"). Regarding their expectations from the action

research, teachers emphasized the need for acquisition of new knowledge and effective practices, successful problem-solving as well as learning to research, interpret, reflect and evaluate their practice. Their expected results from action research were not only related to improving themselves as educators but also to improving peer relationships in their classrooms.

This analysis of teachers' initial understanding of the problem led us to the next two steps: the support of teachers' documentation process of the problem based on inquiry and the provision of a theoretical framework to challenge teachers' understandings of the problem and provide alternative lenses to view it as well as alternative strategies for practice.

3.2. Documentation of the problem through the use of specific research methods (theory and research)

After discussing with the teachers the fact that there was not a clear reasoning of the problem in their written accounts and that this was a presupposition to plan their future actions, two research tools were proposed to collect the necessary information. The first tool (tool 5) aimed at acquiring children's positive and negative peer preferences as well as their perspective regarding reasons for peer acceptance and peer rejection. A short interview based on children's peer nominations for kindergarten children and an open-ended questionnaire for primary children was designed for this purpose. The second tool (tool 6) was designed to encourage teachers' observations of pupils' peer relationships during break time as well as in their classroom. Last, we proposed a questionnaire with specific close-ended questions for parents regarding a) children's enjoyment at school, b) their own satisfaction from their child's education, c) what they disliked and felt that it needed improvement and d) a final open-ended question about how they would like to contribute in the educational process at school (this questionnaire is not included here because it is lengthy).

Tool 5: documentation 1 – semi-structured interview with children –main questions

1. Who do you play with in your school; (children can name as many as they want as playmates)
2. Why do you choose to play with them; (we also ask reasons for each one of the children he/she named)
3. With which children in your class you don't want to play with; (children can name as many as they want as playmates)
4. Why you don't want to play with them; (we also ask reasons for each one of the children he/she named)

Tool 6: documentation 2 – observation guidelines

Note in your observation who does what with whom, when, where and with whose initiative. Note the positive or negative affect of interaction. Who is included or excluded in this interaction, when, how and why. Identify the main issue that concerns you in this specific relationship.

It was important that teachers not only collected but also analyzed this information. For this reason and since the majority of teachers did not have any research experience, I provided them with a tool to analyze children's responses and proceed to a new understanding of the problem based on the interview/questionnaire data.

Tool 7: Analyzing data

- A. What did my research with children and parents show?
 - A1. What did the children tell me regarding all the things I asked them?
 - A2. What were the new things I learnt from asking children? Was there something that I haven't thought or imagined before this research?
 - A3. How will I utilize this knowledge?
 - A4. What did the parents say regarding my questions?
 - A5. What were the new things I learnt from questioning parents? Was there something that I haven't thought or

imagined before this research?
A6. How will I utilize this knowledge?

Teachers' inquiry and documentation process during action research was not only important during the initial understanding of the problem. It was also employed at the phase of formative and final assessment of the processes and outcomes of the educational program they designed, as it will be shown in 3.5 section.

3.3. Teachers revisit their understandings of the problem based on theory and reflection upon documentation (theory and reflection)

In university-school collaboration, universities often have used their academic role to emphasize the significance of theory against the practical orientation of schools, a fact which has not helped in successful partnership and improvement of educational practice (Day, 1998). Educational theory develops from an investigation of practice and also has practical consequences. Theory and practice are continuously interlinked. In the proposed model, the introduction of theory in action research does not come from a top-down perspective as the content and ways of what teachers should adopt and practice. Theory and different theoretical perspectives are needed as tools to support teachers in the different stages of action research, specifically during the process of clarifying the practical problem (i.e. describing the problem and finding possible reasons for its existence) and during the process of developing action strategies. Further, theory in this model is closely linked to teachers' already stated personal theories and practices and is deliberately focused and organized in such a way as to challenge them and also provide alternative ways of viewing them. I will give several examples to show the role and use of theory in this model of supporting teachers during action research.

As stated above, when teachers were asked to identify the causes of the problem of peer rejection (2nd step of action research), they either stated children's behavior or family problems as a cause or they did not refer to a specific cause for the problem that concerned them. Thus, for example, they believed that children were not accepted by their peers

because they were aggressive to other children. A set of several questions occurs as reflection points to challenge this teachers' understanding of the reasoning of the problem. How can we be sure that aggressiveness is a reason for peer rejection rather than an outcome of rejection? Can we document why this aggressiveness occurs, when and how? More than that, how can the specific reasoning of peer rejection (an observation of a child's aggressiveness) lead me to a decision about what I should do to change the situation in my class? Is the aggressiveness of this child what I need to change? If yes, the aggressive child becomes the problem and not peer rejection. In this way, the "problem" is identified as an individual and not as relational problem, as a problem that relates to a specific child and not to the whole classroom. What are my options now that I have understood this problem as an individual problem? Probably, to talk to the specific child, discipline him or her and teach rules. Again, the strategy involves specific action towards specific children rather than an educational program with a broad goal to enhance social inclusion in the classroom. Therefore, the analysis of teachers' reasoning of the problem called for a theory of systemic understanding of social inclusion. In addition, as already stated, teachers mainly referred to external causes and not to their own role as reasons for peer rejection and ways to alter the situation. Theories and research that explicated the crucial role of teachers in enhancing social inclusion was therefore necessary. Therefore, without a specific theoretical framework that challenges reasoning from an individual to a systemic understanding of social inclusion and empowers teachers that they can make a difference, how does one proceed to further steps of action research?

I discussed my observations from the analysis of tools 3 and 4 with the teachers and they realized that we needed an alternative understanding of the pre-conditions and contexts for achieving social inclusion in the classroom. Systemic theory and various research studies that explained the role of school and peer culture as well as the role of specific educational strategies in creating spaces for social acceptance or peer rejection were presented to the teachers. Based on the documentation process and the new theoretical

framework, teachers restated the problem that concerned them as a relational problem, clarified their goals for intervention and suggested specific strategies for achieving this goal. This is evident when one compares in the following example, teacher's first initial understanding of the problem and her understanding of the problem after documentation and theorizing of the problem.

- A. 1st description of problem by the teacher:

Problem: "I have a child who is hesitant in interactions, does not take any initiative and is insulted very easily

The teacher leaves the section about the factors that influence the situation in tool 3 blank (she can not proceed to reasoning of her stated problem).

Aim: to encourage the child's boldness.

Ways: I don't pressure him, I ask other children not to judge him".

- B. The same teacher restates the problem after documentation and theory:

Problem: There are no mutual preferences in the same group. Some children are not approached by other children.

Causes: Children give emphasis on external characteristics as the main criterion for preferring a peer. Children do not seem open to other relationships. They seem to have stabilized their friendships.

Aims: to enhance peer interaction, to help children realize positive things about all children.

Ways: activities: encourage children to talk positive things about oneself to others and how each one of them can contribute in a group, children will be asked to recognize something good in their peers. I will support mixed-group play and children's reflection of their experience with playing with a new partner. I will organize co-operative activities among children with a common goal.

The suggestion that the facilitator proposes a theoretical framework does not mean that teachers should not be encouraged to read a bibliography and choose a theoretical perspective on their own. The specific suggestion comes as a pragmatist choice that teachers should be provided with different theories as an initial (and not exclusive) and planned step to challenge existing beliefs and practices. In addition, teachers should be encouraged to read further texts and search on their own related texts and resources. It is expected that at the phase of designing a plan for improving their educational practice (3rd stage of action research) teachers will base their suggestions on routine action. The role of educational theory as a suggestion of strategies, practices, ideas from other educational programs is important to enrich teachers' existing practices and provide alternative actions. Last, in action research teachers come at a point of theorizing their own work and developing practical theories about what worked, why and how in their effort to improve their practice. So theory is not only guiding teachers' actions but can also be generated by them as practical theory. Teachers stated such practical theories in our final reflection meeting as best practices which identified the crucial role of giving opportunities for peer-interaction and co-operative learning, children's participation in shaping the content and ways of education in their class and also teachers' listening to children's thoughts and wishes and providing time for discussion with them and among them.

3.4. Teachers enrich their strategies and design whole-class interventions (theory and practice)

After the phase of an evidence-based specification of the problem, teachers were asked to design their practice based on the theoretical framework they received and their specific goals. Teachers provided a written account of their designs and received individual as well as group feedback. Written designs involved activities as well as strategies for action (i.e. collaboration with other teachers, inter-thematic approach of knowing and trusting activities, pupils' involvement in group-work and problem solving).

3.5. Teachers proceed to formative and final assessment of their plans and strategies based on documentation regarding pupils' outcomes and reflection strategies (research and reflection)

Teachers' reflection was encouraged after 3 weeks of implementing their specific educational program with the following questions:

Tool 9: Formative assessment (after 3 weeks)

1. A) What were the opportunities I created for communication, interaction, problem solving and co-operation among children? Am I generally happy with those opportunities?
B) Which of my practices do I consider effective and why?
C) Which were not so effective and why?
2. What was the response of children to the activities I designed to improve peer acceptance?
3. Did I observe any change in children's behavior or in the classroom climate?
4. Specifically, what was the nature of this change?
What did I see and hear so that I realized this change?
What are the reasons for this change?
5. How do I proceed from here;
6. Specifically, what are my goals from now on?
What are my plans for action? Why do I make these choices?

It was important to receive teachers' written accounts as a response to these questions before the next meeting to organize the discussion agenda and feedback based on the specific issues that arose from their analysis. After the collection and analysis of teachers' written accounts of their formative assessment we had a meeting to exchange as team experiences, strategies and proposals as well as video and photo material collected with the consent of the parents and children. This was an empowering process, since the teachers saw how many things they were able to design and how they affected peer relationships in their class. We agreed that the interview (with younger children)/questionnaire (with older children)

would be administered to children at the end of the project and that sociometric results would be compared with the initial ones and discussed. So the final tool aimed to help teachers proceed to a final evaluation based on their observations and documentation with research results.

Tool 10: Final assessment (after 8 weeks)

1. What were the new activities, themes, strategies and processes I employed since my last evaluation to improve peer acceptance in my classroom?
2. Were these helpful in improving social inclusion? Specifically, which of the things you described above you think it helped and why?
3. Do I observe any changes in children's peer relationships? What kind of change do you observe? Please write indicative examples that show the change that you have observed.
4. Is there something that still concerns me? Why does it concern me?
5. What did the results of the interview and sociometric technique show at the end of the project?
6. Specifically, if you compare the results of the first sociometric interview with the results of the second interview what do you find out about the following:
 - 6.1 has the number of children only with positive peer preferences increased? For how many children?
 - 6.2 Did the negative peer preferences have reduced in number? For how many children?
 - 6.3 Are there more positive peer preferences for children of the other sex? How many more?
 - 6.4 Has the number of negative peer preferences for the other sex been reduced? How much?
7. In conclusion how has the classroom climate changed? Am I satisfied with these changes?

Conclusion

One of the preconditions for educational improvement is the co-construction of a

community of practice through the common and systematic effort of teachers to question their practice and look for a more effective one (McLaughlin & Mitra, 2001:310). However, this precondition alone cannot warrant the best support for teachers. I have argued in this paper that if we really want teachers to improve their practice we should assist them with a theoretical framework and specific tools that will guide their inquiry, reflection and action and with processes that emphasize their active role as researchers and reflective practitioners. The role of theory, research and reflection are intertwined since theory guides our research questions and interpretation of data (theory and research) as well as our decisions for action (theory and practice). Theory is also generated from research on practice (theory, research and practice).

Supporting a group of teachers needs also devotion and great motivation. One realizes, from the number of tools presented in this paper, that teachers proceeded to a significant amount of research, reflection, planning and evaluation of their practice which was systematically recorded in their written accounts. Analyzing carefully these accounts, preparing points for reflection and theoretical input and finally discussing as a team all the emerging issues was a continuous and developing process rather than a static and taken for granted process. Teachers shaped the course of action research with their concerns, observations, ideas, research and practice. The climate of trust and pleasure that developed among all members of action research was based on this systematic communication and observation of short-term improvement of peer relationships in their classrooms. Concluding, one important factor that came out from experiencing this model in practice is that as facilitators we should plan for context and content specific support of teachers' inquiry and reflection. This support has benefits for teachers' professional learning when it is based on a systematic analysis of teachers' personal theories, understandings and practice rather than on a pre-determined set of stages and phases teachers should go through.

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TEACHER, VIOLENT BEHAVIOR IN PRIMARY SCHOOL AND POSSIBLE PREVENTIVE STRATEGIES

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Abstract

Effective teacher, effective school" Modern trends in education are directed towards the creation of effective schools. But what happens in our schools? Every day we hear, we are witnessing the violent behaviour of students just in schools, school yards. What forms of violent behaviour occur in schools? Who has the role of perpetrator, victim of violent behaviour? Where and what is the role of teachers in the prevention of violent behaviour? In this paper we present theoretical treatise of the problem of violent behaviour at the schools, teacher's role in the prevention of violent behaviour, possible preventive strategies and results of a research obtained by applying the method of theoretical analysis and descriptive-analytical method, and application of appropriate techniques and instruments: content analysis, the technique of interviewing, corresponding instrument free interview intended to the representatives from the expert teams from the primary schools in FYROM and technique survey intended for teachers in primary education. The results speak about the current state on the field, talking about the treatment of violent behaviour at the schools, preventive strategies which are used, engagement of certain institution, and the overview of their proposals and suggestions in the direction to prevent these phenomena.

Keywords: *elementary school, preventive strategies, violent behaviour, pupils*

1. Introduction

Violence, violent behavior presents a complex problem, problem that exists in every sphere of human life. It is a result of bad communication, intolerance, weak interaction among individuals in a certain sphere. The educational sphere is unavoidable, more specifically expressed and present in the school as its institutional form. The contemporary school aims to prepare the youth for the future, to train them for permanent education, for their holistic, versatile development. It becomes open institution for new content, organizational modules and staff collaboration with everything that surrounds them (Stevanović & Ajanović, 1977: 113). The school is a pedagogical, cultural, and social community of pupils, teachers, parents, and all others which contribute to the realization of its

program content. It aims to provide to the pupils all the necessary knowledge, skills, attitudes, and habits which are necessary for life and furthermore education. The basic task for the school is to assure the continuous development of the pupils as spiritual, intellectual, physical, social, and above all, moral beings with their capabilities and dispositions (Stevanović & Ajanović, 1977: 113). Other than assuring the basic academic knowledge and skills and promoting the development of the character, the school has a primary role in the decision of multiple social problems amongst kids and youth (Bojkovski, et al, 2007: 12-15).

Is the contemporary school immune to the problems that are happening in the closer and wider community? Are the problems such as social-economic crisis (poverty, unemployment), weak family connections (preoccupation of the parents, the decline of the educational function in the family, unfavorable material circumstances in the family), the problem with the violent behavior in it (overemphasized meaning of material values, opposed to the spiritual), lack of parent warmth, supervision), environment factors (bad friendship, forming gangs), unorganized free time of the pupils, character of the person, reflect and have their impact of the phenomenon of violent behavior in the schools? Of course the answer to that question is affirmative. We are witnesses, we have heard of, saw, beside us, in the media, information's that speak of the existence of violent behavior in the schools, primary, secondary, where different shapes of violent behavior are identified, violators are identified, victims of violence.

Why these problems appear exactly in the school?

The reasons can be found in the following facts:

- they are the first, sometimes the second institution (after the pre-school institution) in which the child is taken care of institutionally, a part of the child's environment;
- it is legally regulated the compulsory coverage of the children in the primary and secondary education;
- the compulsory coverage has longer timespan, twelve, thirteen years (5,8 years – 18 years), period especially meaningful for the forming,

development of the pupil's personality, his attitudes, values, believes, his relation towards the environment and the surroundings;

- These are places where there is intensive interaction, work, rivalry, stress

Therefore, it is not odd that inside the schools appear various problems, violence problems, violent behavior. The violence regards to wide spectra of various behavior which take place amongst the children, from solving the collision through violence, unacceptable expression, anger or frustrations, to serious incidents and use of weapons. The problems take place in the presence and in the absence of adults. It is possible to appear occasionally, an incident to happen, but it is not excluded the possibility for increasing their frequency. They can occur in the same type and shape, for example, peer violence (bullying) (violence towards the pupils from the employees of the school, violence of the pupils towards the employees of the school), the school institution as a violator, but also occur in other shapes, to make a modification.

Uzelac (2007:186) among the shapes of behavior present in children from primary school age, which present a type of unacceptable behavior acknowledges:

- behaviors typical for the educational environment: unjustified absence from separate classes, arbitrary leaving of the teaching, unjustified whole-day absence from teaching, courtship the teacher, the act of telling the teacher of the actions of classmates, opposition to collective actions, cheating in exam situations, interruption in education etc.
- addiction behavior: taking pills, consuming narcotics;
- active shapes of behavior: opposing, verbal aggressiveness, physical aggressiveness, lying, abandonment of the family (running away from home), sell or giving personal stuff, theft, socializing with persons with asocial behavior, begging, wandering, malicious lying, resale of valuable objects;
- Passive shapes of behavior: timidity, withdrawal, depression, sobbing, negligence (laziness), indifference (boredom), spoiled, emotional coldness.

- Although active shapes of behavior disorder are more common in boys, and passive more common in girls, the frequency of manifestation of separate behavior in boys and girls depends on the age (Uzelac, 2007: 186).

These shapes of unacceptable behavior that occur in the school environment are just some of the shapes of unacceptable, violent behavior in the school. From the school is expected to deal with this problem. Still, it is unreal to expect that every problem, the employees at the school can and must solve. It is their obligation and task to take whatever is in the limits of their power, to try to solve a specific problem, but at the same time to work on the preventive measures plan, train plan in the sense of their moral and socially responsible behavior in the school premises, and also outside of, fostering and practicing this relation towards the teachers, parents, and mutual school relations.

In the school, a set of preventive measures are taken indeed, taking in account the primary and secondary prevention. Certain preventive programs are being realized in which a lot of tasks are set. According to Popadić (2009: 228) tasks of preventive programs are:

- Development of social skills – children should be taught appropriate skills in social communication;
- Solving of social problems – children learn to solve the social problems step by step;
- Development of empathy – powerful protection to stop the already started molesting or incentive the witnesses to stand in defense of the victim.
- Anger management – children learn how to recognize and control their anger through various techniques: relaxation, deep breathing, counting to ten, giving instruction to oneself etc.

In the realization of the tasks provided with the preventive programs, every person employed at the school takes participation, as involved parents, members of the wider community. Still, the greatest part in the prevention of this phenomenon, its overcome, plays the teachers. They are the most directly related to pupils; they are the model that influences them, the model they identify with. They are the ones which recognize, identify the

violators, the persons to whom the victims of violent behavior address to, the persons that are giving the warning, advising the pupils to positive behavior, responsibility, non-violent behavior. Their reactions to the manifested violent behavior are different. While one teacher warn them, punish them, the other teachers give the caring to the expert services in the school, the principals, and third ones, downgrade the mark for the behavior of the pupil, call their parents for a meeting (Topalova, 2007).

The role of the teachers is not exhausted with the reaction at the moment, the intervention in the whatever has happened, but to give support, to cooperate with the victim of the violence, the parents; talk to the violator and the victim separately about the incident, explain the violator which behaviors are acceptable, and which are not, offer leverage if problem is observer and accept responsibility; to provide the pupils an atmosphere in which they can report the intimidation without fear; inform and include the parents of the violator and the victim in order to stop further violent behavior and intimidation, and in the end, to give an example with their own proper behavior.

The teachers in the contemporary school are the ones who every day:

- follow the everyday behavior of the pupil;
- intervene if needed;
- transmit pro-social messages in which the unnatural of the violent behavior is emphasized;
- stimulate the feel for responsibility for rejection of violent behavior in pupils;
- establish quality communication and interaction with the pupils in the class, parents, and the employees at the school;
- on the grounds of their mental, moral, social maturity, their education, recognize the victim pupil and the violator pupil, because every exaggeration or low level of tolerance in aspect of these kids can have far-reaching consequences;
- protect the pupil victim and if the violence comes from pupil or group of pupils, they create a sense of protection, self-respect and self-esteem;
- create conditions in which the pupil victim doesn't feel neglected or left even

for a moment;

- animate a group of pupils that have already developed empathy feelings, pro-social, altruism, and tolerance with endeavor to protect the pupil which is a victim by some other peer or group of peers;
- constant education about the problems with violent behavior and the ways for overcoming them through seminars, expert and academic gatherings;
- Work on forming inclusive expert teams that will deal with the school violence in a wholesome way, especially when it comes to prevention, re-socialization, rehabilitation, etc.
- In order to get data that relate the current situation regarding the problem of violent behavior in schools, the phenomenon of different shapes of violent behavior, the role of the teacher, expert services, and other affected parties in overcoming this problem, we conducted a micro research in Eastern Macedonia, more specifically in the municipalities of Shtip, Karbinci, Veles, Sv. Nikole, in which we had two sub examples – sub example teachers and sub example expert coworkers. Techniques for collecting data that were applied were questioning intended for the teachers, and interviewing intended for the expert coworkers.
- The purpose of the interview was to investigate the opinion and attitudes of the expert coworkers for the phenomenon of violent behavior in the school, the roles that they play in its prevention. Fifteen expert coworkers were interviewed, on previously mentioned themes. The instrument applied was protocol for free-form interview.

2. Interview results

On the basis of conducted interviews with the expert coworkers, we obtained the following results:

- There are no implemented contents for the prevention of violent behavior in the year's school plan and work program;

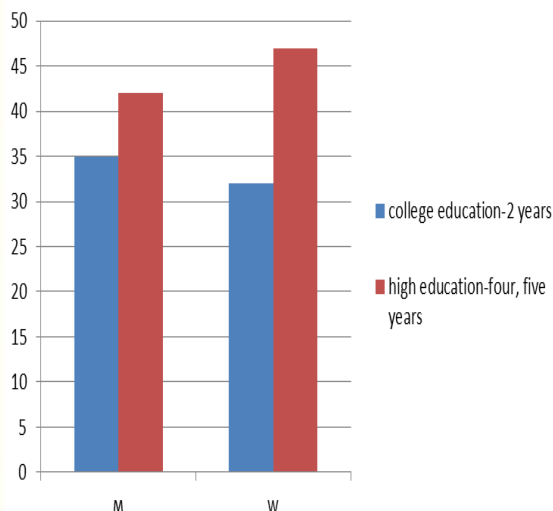
- Education in the area of preventing violent behavior, acquiring social skills, conflict resolutions skills, students acquire through the program "Life Skills program" for the pupils from the primary schools, but it is done very rarely, once in two or three weeks;
- There are various forms of violent behavior at schools, on different relation student-student, student-student group, teacher-student, student-technical staff, most commonly physical or verbally;
- Cases of violent behavior expert coworkers often notice personally, sometimes from teacher, but most commonly from the victims of violence;
- For cases of violent behavior they usually inform parents and the school principal;
- Cooperation with parents to overcome this problem is not high level, parents of violator often do not come to school, probably they shame,
- School professionals take various measures like: individual counseling conversation, group discussion; workshops, conflict resolution;
- Frequently taken measure is reprimand in accordance with the Law on Primary Education;
- On the prevention plan, expert coworkers mostly cooperate with the Centers for social protection, Ministry of Interior, Medical Center, NGOs;
- There is a proposal of measures for preventing of violent behavior- more workshops that include representatives of parents, professionals, teachers, parent; attendance of education seminars at the schools municipality and dissemination of results; adopt a national strategy for save schools', schools without violent behavior.

3. The results of survey

The results from the questioning of the teachers are analyzed and interpreted. The questioning was used to test the teachers of information about the violence in the school, the presence and appearance of shapes of violence, personal experiences, the violators in the school, and also proposals and ways for solving the

problems amongst pupils. The questioning covered 156 teachers from the afore-mentioned municipalities.

Figure1: Structure of respondents by gender and level of education

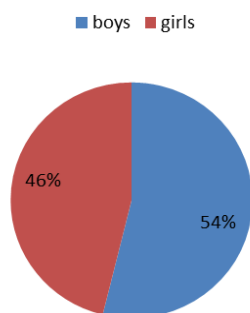


We got the following results:

- The phenomenon of violent behavior is present in schools;
- Most common shapes of violent behavior are: peer violence, physical violence, emotional violence amongst the pupils;
- Both sexes of pupils behave violently;

Figure 2: Violent behavior of students by sex

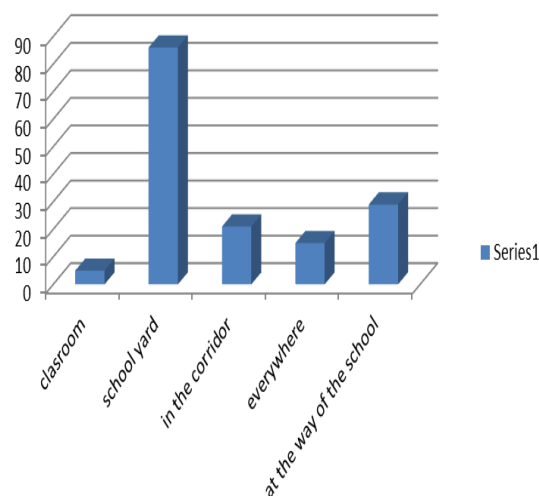
Chart Title



- Most common violators are pupils from upper grades, male sex;
- Victims of violent behavior are more peaceful, calmer, withdrawn pupils, and hyperactive pupils are more troublesome;
- The violence takes place everywhere in the school premises – the classroom, the

hall, the schoolyard;

Figure 3: The place of violent behavior



- The teachers have the need from supplementary education in order to be able to deal more successfully with the phenomenon of violent behavior;
- In cases of violent behavior they offer help, support for the victims of violence, cooperate with the parents, and send the violators at the expert coworkers that are trained to work with them;
- The only program that helps in solving certain dilemmas is the "Life Skills" program, but it is insufficient in dealing with the various shapes of violent behavior;

Their proposals are:

- teamwork, formation of inclusive teams for dealing with this phenomenon of violent behavior;
- dissemination of information from various trainings, seminars, so that every teacher is familiar;
- greater involvement and cooperation with the parents, members of the local community;
- more frequent debates, workshops on the topic of violent behavior, prevention, intervention, that leads to raising of the awareness for overcoming this problem;
- closer cooperation with Center for social affairs, Ministry of Interior;
- Involvement of the teachers from the faculties in the education of the teacher staff.

4. Instead of a conclusion

A famous child psychologist once said: "The punishment teaches the kid to punish, the insulting – how to insult. Showing that we understand it, we teach it to understand, helping it, we teach it how to help, cooperating with him, we teach it how to cooperate".

"Let us help and guide the child towards the real spiritual values. We will achieve this with our personal example, our commitments for better, successful, bright future."

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TEACHERS' EXPECTATIONS AS REGARDS COOPERATION BETWEEN SCHOOL ADVISOR AND FAMILY OF THEIR PUPILS

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Abstract

This study explores how teachers in primary education perceive the role of School Advisor and specifically what they expect from the cooperation between School Advisors and parents. 349 Greeks Teachers filled out a questionnaire to express their views and expectations on this specific issue, as part of a large scale research related to the institution of School Advisors. According to our findings teachers need, in many cases, the support of School Advisors in order to cooperate in a better and more efficient way with the families of their pupils and to deal with problems and conflicts between school and family. In addition teachers claim for professional development programs related to communication competencies (interpersonal and intercultural communication) decision making competencies, and skills on conflict managing between family and school.

Keywords: *school-family cooperation, School Advisor, teacher's expectations*

1. Introduction

The functions of the School Advisors shall be defined including the obligation to train teachers in their region in order to improve the quality of education provided. Cooperation among institutions and Parents' Associations of Schools within the area that the School Advisor is responsible for is also mentioned. In collaboration with school principals they organize parents' to exchange views on issues of treatment, learning, behavior of students, and to strengthen and promote cooperation among family and school (1. F.353.1/324/105657/Δ1/8-10-2002 Y.A. (FEK 1340.T.α'2002, Arthro 12, par.1, ed.2α. and 2. F.354.11/121/123215/Δ1 of 4-10-2010, ADA 4IK29-School Advisors' duties).

However, the work of consultants includes almost daily communication with families and students so as to learn about their learning issues, behavioral, psychological and social adjustment, especially foreigners, and diagnosis of learning disabilities and even material support to families in poverty situations.

Teachers state that through their profession they are willing to a great extent to offer social work. A quite satisfactory percentage of teachers express via their profession to offer social work. Therefore, according to surveys (Papanaoum

2003), teacher-parents' relationship is an element which provides great satisfaction in the two-thirds of teachers (69.7%).

Nevertheless, Greek teachers (pre-service and in-service) state that they need training on issues of cooperation with parents. From the findings of research on the Family - School collaboration, the need for increased knowledge and practice of teachers in effective communication techniques and designing joint plans for cooperation with the families of their students has emerged. (Matsagouras & Poulou 2009). This was evident from the fact that teachers admitted lack of theoretical knowledge of certain basic domains of effective collaboration with parents. It is essential therefore, that teachers be involved in training programmes aiming at understanding the complexity of the situations experienced by parents. Parents should also participate in these programmes on issues that complicate the task of the teacher, with the aim of mutual understanding.

A survey on the views of parents concerning preschool age in Greece (Xenaki 1998) has shown that 49% of parents are not satisfied with the effectiveness of their parental role. Also, 83% said that they feel the need to be guided by their teachers while 64% said they are willing to participate in parental groups.

School Advisors have a duty to contribute towards this direction and based on the stated needs of teachers and parents to help them gain a sense of self-efficacy and have a lot more possibilities to be lead to success in the joint work of their children's treatment (Bandura, 1986). One of the aspects of parenting that affects the student's progress is the parental involvement and particularly their collaboration and contact with the school.

2. Family and School Collaboration

The collaboration between family and school aims to increase the rate of parental involvement. The term "parental involvement" means anything a parent does to assist the school performance and progress of his/her child. According to findings of various surveys, the family as a system with specific characteristics, educational, cultural and economic might affect the education of children

to a large extent. (Coleman, 1998).

Several studies in Greece and abroad (Coleman 1998, Dodontsakis 1995, Epstein 2001, 2002, Epstein and Salinas 2004, Georgiou 1998, Griffith 1996 Liu and Chien 1996) reported the positive role of the family environment on the performance of student. It was also considered necessary to involve families in the school in order to compensate for the disadvantages of a child deriving from a deficit of family environment (Coleman 1998, Dodontsakis 1995, Epstein 2001, 2002, Epstein and Salinas 2004, Georgiou 1998, Griffith 1996 Liu and Chien 1996). From the afore mentioned studies it is evident that students have better academic performance and positive attitudes towards school when their parents are aware of and / or are fully aware of the school life, encourage the child and actively participate in her/his school career. It seems that all these actions of parents expressed and received by the child as emotional support and lead to improved performance. A series of research resulted in the following specific aspects of parental involvement:

- a. Help in homework : It includes teachers' actions which show the extent to which they check their child's homework, they help her/him correct his/her mistakes etc (E.g "I help my child with his/her homework when s/he does not understand).
- b. Organization of child's time: This dimension refers to parents' tendency to control the way the child exploits his/her time out of the school (E.g. "I organize my child's free time in order not to waste his/her time in useless hobbies").
- c. Expectations and pressure for better school performance: This factor represents parents' anxiety for their child's school performance, which is expressed in the form of pressure on the child for improvement (E.g. "I demand from my child to keep improving in her/his lessons").
- d. Encourage development of interests: This kind of parental involvement is related to parents' effort to encourage their children to broaden their intellectual interests with extra-curricular activities (E.g. "I encourage my child to develop new hobbies and interests")

- e. Advising – Discipline: This factor refers to parents' tendency to advise their child in relation to exploiting their free time and about the value of education (E.g. I warn my child about the consequences of laziness).
- f. Contact with the school: This dimension describes the kind and the frequency of contact which parents have with the school and their child's teacher (E.g. "I visit the school to talk to my child's teacher").

The school and family collaboration contributes positively to the academic performance of students (Laloumi-Vidali 1997, Coleman 1998), the effective communication and student participation in school-family relationship (Beveridge 2004), increased school attendance (Greenwood & Hickman, 1991), the cooperation between parents and children as far as their homework is concerned (Epstein & Lee 1995), to the improvement of behavior, motivation and self-esteem of students (Haynes, Comer, & Hamilton-Lee, 1989) and the satisfaction of parents of the teacher's role (Rich 1988).

The greatest obstacle though to parental involvement at school is the lack of knowledge from both the side of the school and the family concerning the effective ways of cooperation. Parents need information and guidance by the teachers. On the other hand, teachers seek cooperation with parents in school activities, but do not have the skills or knowledge to achieve this cooperation (Leitch & Tangri, 1988, Morris & Taylor 1998, Brouzos, 1999).

The collaboration between family and school therefore is not an easy task. The interest for the child-student on both sides renders it necessary to collaborate with each other but it can also cause frictions if certain rules-presuppositions are not kept: First, both sides should recognize and keep their limits in the area of their jurisdiction and second, school-family roles are obvious and each part's responsibilities are clear. Maintenance of these rules will have two results: teachers won't feel that their professional adequacy is threatened and parents won't feel weak in front of the special knowledge of the teacher. To make successful interactions with parents, teachers will need to develop three key personality characteristics: reflection on their

experiences and on their professional beliefs, commitment to support and safeguard students' benefits and the empathy or ability to recognize and appreciate different approaches (Sumsion 1999).

From all the above it appears the necessity of preparation and ongoing education of teachers, due to the constant changes in the social sector, in terms of communication and cooperation with the family. (Bennet 1997, Filippatou Sakelaropoulou-E 1998). The School Advisor, as a suitable agent for the training of the teachers, will prepare the corresponding training programme after researching and taking into account teachers' needs so that they respond successfully to their work. The future in teachers-parents collaboration lies on the improvement of training and educational programmes of teachers (Epstein 1992). School Advisors are obliged to have a corresponding educational role for the parents of the areas on which they are responsible for.

3. Research design

3.1. Aim of this study

The aim of this study was to research teachers' opinions on the role the School Advisor can assume, so that within the frame of her/his duties to be able to reinforce promoting of School-Family collaboration, while boosting teachers' personal and professional development, parents' suitable involvement in school action, the more educational confrontation of students' from their parents (irrespective of nationality), the more immediate communication (personal and distant) between the two systems (school, family).

Another aim of this research was the study of the influence of certain demographic elements (gender, area of school service, type of school service and years of service) on their perceptions in relation to the researched questions.

3.2. Research instrument

For the purpose of this research part of research of a larger area was exploited in relation to the role of the Primary Education School Advisor was conducted in the Educational District of the Ionian Islands in June, 2012. The particular part

which referred to researching teachers' perceptions for the better function of the School Advisor on issues concerning promoting collaboration between School and Family and consisted of nine questions as well as one blank answer for free completion in case of unpredictable important needs. The five-point Likert scale was employed with gradation from 1-5 so that teachers' opinions would be expressed and for them to appreciate the significance of these nine statements concerning the more suitable function of the School Advisors, selecting the number which represents their perceptions more effectively. Then all positive responses were grouped together (of medium importance, very important, of great importance) on the basis on the percentage, so as to have a more concise picture.

3.3. Participants

Aiming at researching teachers' opinions on School Advisors' contribution to growing collaboration with parents, the opinion of 349 teachers of the island area of Greece was asked. The participants answered a questionnaire anonymously, which is part of a larger research in relation to the Primary Education School Advisor's role, which was conducted in the Educational District of the Ionian Islands of representative sample 26,6%. An anonymous questionnaire was filled in by 349 teachers from the Ionian Islands region. A representative sample of 26,6% of all primary teachers who worked in this area.

The demographic evidence of the participants are shown analytically in table 1.

Table 1: demographic evidence of the participants

	N	%
1. gender		
Mail	106	30,4
Female	243	69,6
2. Family status:		
Alone- single	173	49,6
In marriage	162	46,4
Divorce	14	4,0
3.Age:		

22- 30	141	40,6
31 - 40	56	16,1
41 - 50	128	36,9
51 +	22	6,3
4. Home place:		
Village (2.000 people)	148	45,7
Small town (2.001-10.000)	83	25,6
Town (10.001 +)	93	28,7
5. Years of teaching:		
until 5	97	27,8
6 - 10	96	27,5
11 - 15	69	19,8
16 - 20	25	7,2
6. Type of school;		
All the day regular school	248	81,3
All the day school students with Special needs	37	12,1
Special needs	2	,7
All the day school (ΕΑΕΠ)	18	5,9
7. Type of work service:		
Single teacher	299	88,7
School administration	24	7,1
Senior school administration	11	3,3
In educational office	3	,9

4. Results-Discussion

A significant number of studies have shown that the two institutions of socialization of the child , that is family and school, are often in opposition (Hughes & Mac Naughton 1999).The teachers who answered the questionnaire show that they are willing to promote cooperation with family, as they answered positively to almost all the questionnaire's statements concerning the role of the school Advisor, who work with mutual understanding among School and Family.The School Advisor, as first in hierarchy representative of pedagogical responsibility of school makes the first step towards this direction, as, according to experts opinions it is the school's duty to take the initiative towards approaching the family. According to research data, "social trust" between teachers and parents is an important factor for improving the school (Bryk & Schneider 2002). Teachers who

believe that parents support their efforts are more willing to try new ideas and suggestions in their classroom. On the other hand, parents who feel that their offer is appreciated are willing to contribute to their children's school success. Additionally, students who know that parents and teachers work together tend to work harder. The impact is reflected on students' willingness to work (Waller 1932).

In the following table we can see the questions of our research as well as the statistical results in percentages. We can also distinguish the hierarchical order of preference on the basis of teachers' responses. (There has been grouping of the positive answers of the scale: of medium importance, very important, of great importance).

Table 2: Positive responses (of medium importance, very important, of great importance) on the basis on the percentage were grouped together, on perceptions of Teachers

report fields	Positive total percentage	
1. To train teachers in the region in terms of communication and collaboration with parents.	26,0	7th
2. Be informed about students with learning difficulties and advise their parents about the best possible pedagogical and didactic treatment of the student's family.	3,7	9th
3. Participate in events organized by the parents' school.	60,4	2nd
4. To inform parents of their district about modern treatment for their children in various educational and learning issues, in collaboration with the Directors of schools and parents' associations.	21,5	8th
5. To participate in non-profit organizations to support students and their families from vulnerable social groups.	48,0	5th
6. Inform (in the form of an account) and the parents of her/his district for the project and not only Ministry of Education	76,2	1st
7. To provide for the operation of legislated and not, Schools for parents in every school.	50,7	4th
8. Take special care of personal information about foreign parents of his/her district	33,8	6th
9. To provide the opportunity for electronic information and communication with parents.	56,7	3rd

In the first five teachers' preferences hierarchically on the basis of percentages, questions 6, 3, 9, 7 and 5 emerge.

When teachers answer question 1, (table 2.) they show that they wish to be trained from the School Advisor in total percentage of 26%, on issues of appropriate communication and collaboration with students' parents. Similar study (Brouzos 2003) showed that they wish to cooperate with parents indeed, still, mainly so as to derive information about their students. Irrespective of the gender ($MO=2,14$), the area ($MO=2,14$), the school type ($MO=2,20$) and the years of service ($MO=2,14$), they show average agreement of opinions. Statistically important

difference is presented in relation to the years of school service ($sig=.000$).

Question 2 (table 2.) intended to find whether the School Advisor should be informed about the students with learning difficulties and advise their parents for the best possible pedagogical and instructional treatment of the student from her/his family. Teachers responded to this question in 3,7% in total and showed that they do not need any special assistance from the School Advisor. This can be explained as 65,3% of the sample hold a University Degree of The Pedagogical Faculty and most of them have ten years of teaching experience. What is more, 49,6% have attended introductory training

programmes and 30,9% are computer literate, which allows them to derive relevant information from the internet as well. Additionally, 10,6% has attended relevant seminars. As we can see (in tables 3&4), irrespective of the gender ($MO=1,52$), the area ($MO=1,52$), the school type ($MO=1,56$) and the years of school service ($MO=1,52$) they seem to disagree on this question. Statistically important variance is presented in relation to the variable *area* where the school they work is located ($sig=,000$) and with the years of school service.

Regarding the participation of the School Director on events for parents in the school question 3. (Table 2.) it seems that 60.4% of the teachers wish his/her presence as a reward for their efforts and as a motive for greater cooperation in the progress of the school. Teachers from all the school areas and all school types irrespective of their years of teaching state that they wish the School Advisor's presence in all parents' gatherings, showing a desire for tightening of relationships and contact. There is unanimity in this question from all irrespective (tables 3&4), of the gender ($MO=2,87$), the area they work ($MO=2,87$), the school type ($MO=2,88$) and the years of school service ($MO=2,87$). Statistically important difference emerges in relation to the variable *area* ($sig=,000$).

Question 4 (table 2.) Intended to find whether teachers wish the School Advisor to inform parents about modern treatment of their children in several pedagogical and learning issues, in collaboration with school Head teachers and parents' associations. This question is answered positively by 21,5%. A negative aspect has to do with the fact that these meetings take place in the afternoon but also the possibility of having "uneducated" parents in the right cooperation may cause public hints against teachers. Statistic analysis shows (in tables 3&4), that irrespective of the gender ($MO=1,97$), the area ($MO=1,97$) and the years of school service ($MO=1,97$) disagreement of opinions occurs, whereas for the variable *school type* $MO=2,00$ average agreement of opinions emerges. Statistically important difference is presented in relation to the years of school service ($sig=,002$) as well as on the variable of *school type* ($sig=,002$).

The fact that 48% of the respondents wanted

the School Director to participate in non-profit organizations to support students and their families from vulnerable social groups in question 5 (table 2) suggests that they wish the School Advisor to support them mediating in several difficulties of the students especially currently when an increase of financial difficulties is expected, also undertaking the work of interconnection with social agencies. It also strengthens the necessity of appointing social workers and psychologists who will have exclusive responsibility for their school. It is obvious (in tables 3&4), that irrespective of the gender ($MO=2,59$), the area ($MO=2,59$), the school type ($MO=2,67$) and years of school service ($MO=2,59$) there is an average agreement of opinions. There is statistically significant difference according to the area ($sig=,000$) and the years of school services ($sig=,001$).

According to question 6, (table 2.), 76,2% of the sample and irrespective of variable seems to wish accountability for the School Advisor's work, realizing that this will be a supplementary incentive so that teachers themselves are provided with more assistance. On a global scale there is requirement for more and more responsibility, efficiency ratio and decentralization by increasing parents' involvement. Parents are asked to take responsibility for their strategies and practices relating to the future of their children. They should choose on their own the school in which their child will attend, but also to participate in school management, finance, and even the formulation of educational policy. The modern concept of parent consumer leads to the practice of social accountability of schools towards parents and the community. Part of this accountability could be considered the School Advisor's work, since s/he participates and approves the Annual Planning of schools and must hold, after considering the annual report accounting, the required trainings and activities so as to improve the quality of the produced educational work. This specific question shows (in tables 3&4), complete agreement irrespective of the gender ($MO=3,22$), the area they work ($MO=3,22$) and the years of school service ($MO=3,22$). There is statistically significant difference according to the area ($sig=,000$) and the years of school service ($sig=,000$).

The answers to question 7 (table 2.) whether they agree for the School Advisor to have responsibility for the legislated and non, Schools of Parents in every school, was answered positively by 50.7%, confirming also surveys which show that teachers want the systematic education of parents, understanding that this contributes to proper pedagogical treatment of children in terms of parents and improves teacher-parents relationships, as they "speak" the same language and therefore they will be able to discuss and understand each other's needs and difficulties. The dialogue is the most important strategy to strengthen relations in line with Miretzky (2004). The operation of Schools of Parents within schools removes any biases and stereotypes for their attendance which are clear in cases when this School takes place in other places out of the school. It is evident (in tables 3&4), that irrespective of the gender (MO=2,60), the area (MO=2,60) and the years of school service (MO=2,60) there is average agreement of opinions, whereas in relation to the school type (MO=3,16) there is absolute agreement of opinions. There is statistically significant difference only in relation to the gender (sig=,000), the area (sig=,000) and the years of school service (sig=,000).

Cooperation with foreign parents (question 8) (table 2.) can begin by the School Advisor as the first showing the right example towards the "acculturation." 33.8% of the sample agrees on the school advisor's taking special responsibility for personal information of foreign parents of her/his district for the educational opportunities of the Greek educational system, legislation, educational issues, career guidance, operating schools, Diagnosis and Psychology support

centres, Greek learning programmes, operation of reception classes). In particular, (in tables 3&4), irrespective of the gender (MO=2,32), the area (MO=2,32), the school type (MO=2,60) and the years of school service (MO=2,32), there is average agreement of opinions, whereas as to the school type (MO=3,16) there is absolute agreement of opinions. There is statistically significant difference according to the gender (sig=,000), the school type (sig=,000) and the years of school service (sig=,000).

Training of 30.9% of the sample on using the New Information technologies justifies how a large part of the sample (56.7%) of the sample believes in question 9 (table 2.) that the School Advisor should provide opportunity for electronic information and communication with parents. This is favoured by the existence of remarkable web pages of School Advisors providing information, education and creative suggestions and activities for students and parents. Irrespective of the gender (in tables 3&4), (MO=2,70), the area they work (MO=2,70), the school type (MO=2,36) and the years of school service (MO=2,70), there is partial agreement on this necessity, whereas there is statistically significant difference in relation to the variable *area* (sig=,000) and the years of school service (sig=,000).

Certain threats lurk behind questionnaire studies as to the drawing of generalisable conclusions. Therefore, the research will be continued with semi-structured interviews of teachers from several sub-groups. Also we will research expectations of teachers in a non island area, too.

Table 3: Averages, standard deviations, and Significance on perceptions of Teachers

report fields	Perceptions of teachers in relation to the variable "gender"				Perceptions of teachers in relation to the variable "school district"			
	\bar{X}	SD	t	Sig.	\bar{X}	SD	F	Sig.
1.To train teachers in the region in terms of communication and collaboration with parents.	2,14	1,006	4,455	,036	2,14	1,006	5,147	,002
2. Be informed about students with learning difficulties and advise their parents about the best possible pedagogical and	1,52	,693	2,650	,104	1,52	,693	,898	,000

report fields	Perceptions of teachers in relation to the variable "gender"				Perceptions of teachers in relation to the variable "school district"			
	\bar{X}	SD	t	Sig.	\bar{X}	SD	F	Sig.
didactic treatment of the student's family.								
3. Participate in events organized by the parents' school.	2,87	1,220	2,513	,114	2,87	1,220	1,603	,000
4. To inform parents of their district about modern treatment for their children in various educational and learning issues, in collaboration with the Directors of schools and parents' associations.	1,97	,929	16,579	,000	1,97	,929	2,683	,000
5. To participate in non-profit organizations to support students and their families from vulnerable social groups.	2,59	1,099	2,208	,138	2,59	1,099	1,181	,000
6. Inform (outturn) and the parents of her/his district for the project and not only Ministry of Education	3,22	,983	,902	,343	3,22	,983	,657	,000
7. To provide for the operation of legislated and not, Schools for parents in every school.	2,60	,831	39,217	,000	2,60	,831	,496	,000
8. Take special care of personal information about foreign parents of his/her district	2,32	,833	58,350	,000	2,32	,833	3,647	,013
9. To provide the opportunity for electronic information and communication with parents.	2,70	,921	3,404	,066	2,70	,921	2,183	,000

* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$

Table 4: Averages, standard deviations, and Significance on perceptions of Teachers

report fields	Perceptions of teachers in relation to the variable 'school service'				Perceptions of teachers in relation to the variable "years of service in education"			
	\bar{X}	SD	F	Sig.	\bar{X}	SD	F	Sig.
1. To train teachers in the region in terms of communication and collaboration with parents.	2,20	1,049	1,304	,273	2,14	1,006	6,705	,000
2. Be informed about students with learning difficulties and advise their parents about the best possible pedagogical and didactic	1,56	,714	1,942	,123	1,52	,693	5,575	,000

report fields	Perceptions of teachers in relation to the variable 'school service'				Perceptions of teachers in relation to the variable "years of service in education"			
	\bar{X}	SD	F	Sig.	\bar{X}	SD	F	Sig.
treatment of the student's family.								
3. Participate in events organized by the parents' school.	2,88	1,240	3,507	,016	2,87	1,220	1,826	,123
4. To inform parents of his/her district of modern treatment for their children in various educational and learning issues, in collaboration with the Directors of schools and parents' associations.	2,00	,975	4,936	,002	1,97	,929	4,350	,002
5. To participate in non-profit organizations to support students and their families from vulnerable social groups.	2,67	1,115	,472	,702	2,59	1,099	4,771	,001
6. Inform (outturn) and her parents constituency for the project and not only Ministry of Education			3,998	,008	3,22	,983	7,157	,000
7. To provide for the operation of statutory and not, Schools for parents in every school.	3,16	,999	1,222	,302	2,60	,831	5,798	,000
8. Take special care of personal information and the foreign parents' district.	2,63	,864	9,498	,000	2,32	,833	13,246	,000
9. To provide the opportunity for electronic information and communication with parents.	2,36	,855	,416	,741	2,70	,921	15,236	,000

* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$

5. Suggestions-Conclusion

Through this research it is obvious that teachers agree on their annual attribution of speech to parents for the work of the School Advisor with a significant percentage. This shows a tendency towards extroversion, which will help to strengthen the idea of implementing self-assessment of the Educational work of the School Unit, which is promoted internationally, and which anticipates parents' participation in the group work.

Parents' participation in the action of the Greek School is promoted these days, both by implementing Cross-Curricular activities and Projects, which are expected to be performed within the Primary School (Pedagogical Institute 2003), and by the pilot implementation of Self-assessment of Educational Work but also teachers' assessment. For these reasons and for the promotion of smooth cooperation, it is necessary that teachers will be trained but also parents on issues of cooperation and communication from the responsible School

Advisor and also from other agencies who can offer similar training programmes (Bachelor's degree, Master's degree, annual seminars etc.).

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THE ALL - DAY SCHOOL IN GREECE: IS IT STILL AN OPEN QUESTION?

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Abstract

The school today redefines its functions in order to adjust to the changing rhythms and new circumstances of society, family and the job market. One way to reform and renew the educational system is the realization of all - day school programs. During the last two decades various types of the all- day school, were implemented in Greece with the support of the European Community. Initially the introduction of all- day schools was necessitated by social, pedagogical and political reasons. Afterwards, all - day schools became the bull work for promoting a new model for schools in order to overcome the crisis of the conventional school and renew the school's pedagogical identity. Recently the all-day school has been reformed in-line with the aims and concepts of the New European Program. These aims include the development of life-long learning, support for innovation and application of new teaching programs and the upgrading of the quality of educational provision (NSRF 2007-2013). The purpose of this paper is to examine the function of Greek all - day schools and to reflect on it critically over the last two decades, specifically, from it's initial application in the experimental stage, (which took place in response to demands from parent and teachers), and then, from its official institutionalization until the present day.

Keywords: *all - day school, all - day primary school, conventional school*

1. Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to examine the function of Greek all- day schools and to reflect on it critically. During the last two decades, different types of all-day schools have been tried. From the very beginning, all these efforts (from 1989 to the present) have been supported by European programs (Thoidis & Chaniotakis 2012).

Social and socio-political factors contributed to the introduction of all-day school programs in Greece. In the early stages of the all- day school, the overall aim was to facilitate parents and especially mothers, who have work obligations. Since the late '90s, educational policy has paid special attention to the function of all-day

schools, focusing on educational goals (Pirgiotakis 2002).

Table 1: Types of All -day School from 1836 till now

	Goals	Schooling	Lunch	Homework Completion	Teaching Staff	Program	Support by European Programs ¹
Traditional All-Day School (1836-1971)	Social Educational	Compulsory	School Lunch from 1927	At home	Teachers	Cohesive Program	
Classes of Creative Activities (1989)	Social	Optional	Snack	At home	Part time Teachers	Additional After School Program	1 st CSF (1989-93)
Pilot Creative Activities Program (1994)	Social	Optional	Snack	Partly at School	Deputy Teachers	Additional After School Program	2 nd CSF (1994-99) 1 st O.P. "Education"
Extended School Programs with Creative Activities (1998-2002)	Social	Optional	Cold Lunch from home	Partly at school	Teachers and Deputy Teachers	Additional After School Program	2 nd CSF 1 st O.P. "Education"
Pilot (experimental) All-Day School (1999-2011)	Educational Social	Compulsory	Cold lunch from home and school lunch	At school	Teachers and Specialty Teachers	Cohesive Program	2 nd CSF, 1 st O.P. "Education", 3 rd CSF, 2 nd O.P. "Education" (2000-2006)
Optional All-Day School (classic) 2002 –	Social Educational	Optional	Cold lunch from home	Partly at school	Teachers, Specialty Teachers, Part time Teachers	Additional After School Program	3 rd CSF, 2 nd O.P. "Education"
All- Day Primary School with reformed program ² 2010-	Educational Social	Compulsory until 14: 00	Cold lunch from home	For the A', B' classes partly at school.	Full- time and part- time Teachers	Cohesive (2/3) with Additional Program	NSRF 2007-13

¹ CSF: Community Support Framework, O. P. "Education": Operational Program of Education, NSRF: National Strategic Reference Framework

² All- Day Primary School with revised cohesive program

The traditional all- day school (1836- 1971)

Since the early 19th century in Greece - as in many European countries- there existed the so-called traditional all - day school existed (classes all day, with a long midday break). This type was gradually abandoned after the Second World War (finally abolished in 1971) and the half-day curriculum was established in Greek schools (Chaniotakis & Thoidis 2002). Half-day curriculum means that all students were at school till midday.

Apart from this traditional type of all-day school, all the other types were established in the last 20 years (table 1.)

Classes of creative activities (1989)

However, in the mid-80's the social, economic and educational conditions in Greece had already changed radically and as a result the first form of all- day school made its appearance. This effort was initiated mainly by parents, and was primarily intended to solve the problem of childcare for working parents. In particular, parents were hiring and paying teachers to occupy their children during afternoon hours.

Pilot Creative Activities Program for pupils (1994)

In the mid-90s the Ministry of Education proceeded to a pilot application of of creative activities programs for children of working parents. The Ministry of Education had the responsibility for the placement of permanent or deputy teachers.

The 1997 reform

1997 was the year in which the Ministry of Education took full responsibility for the adoption of the all day school system in Greece. Thus, from the school year 1998 to 99, two different types of all- day schools began to run simultaneously: the optional and the compulsory.

Optional all-day school: Extended school programs with Creative Activities classes (1998)

In the first year of optional all-day school, one thousand (1000) classes were run throughout the whole country, supervised by the Ministry of Education. The attendance of students at these classes which ran during the afternoon hours was optional.

This particular program included lunch and rest for the students, as well as, homework preparation and creative activities. Schools that hosted such programs were called all- day schools by the Greek educational society.

Compulsory all-day school: Pilot all- day schools (1999-2011)

The idea of an all- day school as a complete educational model with compulsory full-day schedule for all students, was achieved by the introduction of 28 Pilot all- day Schools throughout the country. These schools began to operate during the school year 1998 to 99 and they had a clear pedagogical orientation.

Firstly, this type of all-day school was proposed as an ideal educational model that could facilitate working parents and contribute to overcoming the crisis of the traditional school, by renewing and re-orientating its educational purpose.

After 2003 these schools were renamed as Experimental all- day schools and were left unsupervised. The interest of educational policy shifted from the compulsory to the optional all-day school.

Optional all- day school (2002) (classic all-day school)

The optional all- day school is a continuation of the extended school program.

From 2002-03 this type of school includes not only social but also educational aims. The optional all- day school still operates as an open all- day school where all students can attend- if they choose- whether or not they have both parents working. Last year, 65% of primary schools in Greece offered an optional all- day school section.

Table 2: Time schedule in All- day Schools (2011-12)

TIME SCHEDULE IN ALL- DAY SCHOOLS ¹				
(2011-12)	Optional All-Day School (classic) (minimum number of students: 15)			All- Day Primary School with revised cohesive program
	Schools with six or more classes	1/class, 2/cl, 3/cl, 4/cl, 5/cl		(minimum number:15)
Morning zone (minimum number of st.)	7:00-8:00 5 students	7:00-8:00 5 students		7:00-8:00 10 students
All-day program (after half day school)	1 st Hour	12:35-13:15	1 st Hour 12:50-13:30	8:00-14:00 New School
	Break	13:15-13:20	Lunch 13:30-13:55	
	2 nd Hour	13:20-14:00	Break	
	Lunch, Rest time	14:00-14:40 or 13:20-14:00 ²	3 rd Hour 13:55-14:30	Lunch, 14:05-14:40 Rest time
	Break	14:40-14:50	Break 14:30-14:40	Break 14:40-14:50
	3 rd Hour	14:50-15:30	3 rd Hour 14:40-15:15	1 st Hour 14:50-15:30
	Break	15:30-15:40	Break 15:15-15:25	Break 15:30-15:40
	4 th Hour	15:40-16:15	4 th Hour 15:25-16:00	2 nd Hour 15:40-16:15

Table 3: Functioning hours in All-day Schools (2012-13)

Functioning hours in All- day Schools ³			
2012-13	Optional School All-Day (classic)		All- Day Primary School with revised cohesive program
	Six or more classes	1/class, 2/cl, 3/cl, 4/cl, 5/cl	New School
Teaching Subjects and activities	Classes A' and B' (20 hours)	classes A' and B' (20 hours)	Classes A' and B' (10 hours)
Homework/Preparation	10 hours	10 hours	10 ⁵ or 15 ⁶ hours
Computer	2 hours	2 hours	From 1 to 5 hours
Sports-Gymnastic	4 hours	4 hours	(-)
English language	(-)	(-)	From 1 to 5 hours
Optional subjects ⁴	2subjects(2+2hours)	2 subjects (2+2 hours)	(-)
Culture groups	(-)	(-)	From 1 to 5 hours
	Classes C' and D' (15 hours)	Class C'	Class C' (10 hours)

¹ Issue. 12/620/61531/Γ1 (Government's Gazette 804/2010, τ.Β'), Issue. 12/520/61575/30-5-2011 (Government's Gazette 1327/2011 τ.Β')

² For the first two classes the lunch break can be postponed after a decision of the teachers' association.

³ Issue 50/175/58862/Γ1/25.5.2012, Issue 50/176/58865/Γ1/25.5.2012, Issue 61044/Γ1/30-5-2012,

⁴ Optional subjects are sport, arts, drama education, music and dance.

⁵ In All- day schools of up to 5 classes, the ten hours allocated for homework are given in first and second class. If the first and second grade functions as one class, the first five hours are given, with the remainder five given only with the approval of the teachers' association.

⁶ In All- day schools with 6 and more classes 5 hours are allocated for homework in the first two classes and the remaining hours to other classes with approval of teachers association.

Functioning hours in All- day Schools³

2012-13	Optional School All-Day (classic)		All- Day Primary School with revised cohesive program
	Six or more classes	1/class, 2/cl, 3/cl, 4/cl, 5/cl	New School
Homework/Preparation	7 hours	From 7 to 8 hours	From 0 to 5 hours
Computer Studies	2 hours	2 hours	From 1 to 5 hours
English language	2 hours	From 2 to 4 hours	From 1 to 5 hours
Optional subjects	2subjects(2+2hours)	Optional Subjects ⁷	From 1 to 5 hours (Music)
Culture groups	(-)	(-)	From 1 to 5 hours
	Classes E' and F' (13 hours)	Classes D', E' and F'	Classes D', E' and F' (10 hours)
Homework/Prepare	7 hours	From 7 to 8 hours	From 0 to 5 hours
Computer Studies	2 hours	2 hours	From 1 to 5 hours
English Language	2 hours	From 2 to 4hours	From 1 to 5 hours
Optional subjects	1 subject 2 hours	1 or 2 ⁸	From 1 to 5 hours (Arts)
Culture groups	(-)	(-)	From 1 to 5 hours (music)
			From 1 to 5 hours (Drama education)
Second foreign language	(-)	(-)	From 1 to 5 hours for E' and F')

⁷ For the 3rd class homework time and optional subjects are dependent up on the class, with which there is an opportunity to teach jointly/co-teach.

⁸ The number of subjects (one or two) depends on the distribution of the classes.

2. Findings

Summarizing research from studies that concern all- day schools, it has been revealed that this innovation has neither achieved its goals nor fulfilled the expectations of the people who are involved daily with all- day school programs. This conclusion is based on the fact that following basic problems still exist:

1. Most schools lack necessary school equipment and well equipped designed rooms and spaces to meet particular needs (Institute of Labour GSEE-ADEDY 2007, VPRC 2007).
2. Teachers who specialise in English, music, sports, drama etc. and whose recruitment is often delayed, are not permanent, alternate frequently during the year, and lack adequate training preparation for the job (Institute of Labour GSEE-ADEDY 2003, 2007).
3. Lack of cooperation and contact between the teachers of the morning program and the teachers of the afternoon program results in the operation of two separate schools with different aims and orientations (Grollios 2001, Thoidis & Chaniotakis 2012).
4. Homework is not completed during the school period and as a result students' free time is overloaded (Thoidis & Chaniotakis 2008, 2010).
5. There is a significant drop out rate of students during the school year. This drop out rate is due to the fact that the expectations of parents are not fulfilled by the services of all- day school (Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs, Operational Program of Education, European Social Fund, 2007).

Moreover students leave all- day school for another important reason. In Greece there is an extensive, private education market that operates in the afternoon. This private education seems to have become a part of students' everyday life and it does not leave them much free time (Chaniotakis 2004, Thoidis & Chaniotakis 2002, Tsakiridou & Research team 2006). After school, students have many obligations to academic, cultural or sporting activities (foreign languages, computers, art, music, dancing, etc.).

One of the consequences of all of the above problems is that during the implementation of all- day schools there was a diminished concern for basic educational requirements and the Ministry of Education did not give careful attention to the fulfillment of all the necessary preconditions for the schools' operation.

3. All - Day Primary School with reformed program 2011 (revised cohesive program)

In 2011 another type of all- day school appeared. It falls between the compulsory and optional all- day school. The Ministry named this new type of school *All - Day School with revised cohesive program*. Attendance is compulsory for all students until 2 p.m. and is followed by an optional all-day school program. This means, after two o'clock, students can stay at school until four o'clock if they wish.

Today, there are 963 such primary schools. These schools have many new subjects and extra staff which cover various activities (e.g. music, dance, theater, etc.). Moreover, this type of all- day school is integrated into a new European Program, which aims to promote lifelong learning, to support innovative pilot applications and to upgrade the quality of education.

After one year of these schools' operation, there is still not sufficient research to assess this operation.

Some scholars express the following concerns about these schools (Androulakis, Emvalotis, Bonidis, Stamovlasis, Kaklamani 2011) :

- a. the schedule is overloaded and (young) pupils get tired,
- b. during the day many teachers alternate,
- c. the student's free time is converted into school time
- d. there is not enough time for homework completion (3rd, 4th , 5th, 6th grades)
- e. the program does not allow enough time for the lunch break.

4. Discussion

Research data indicates that all - day school, provides a solution to the problem of childcare, facilitates women to either find work (36.4%) or to improve their working conditions (73.4%) (Institute VPRC 2007). Particularly, this is very

important nowadays due to the economic crisis in Greek society. It seems that all- day school can provide a safe environment for childcare, away from the current adverse economic, social and working conditions as well as an educational environment free of social and educational inequalities (Pirgiotakis, 2004).

All - day school fulfils to some degree its social function but it fails to respond to its educational aims. Homework preparation, new courses and creative activities of all - day school, according to research, face a lot of problems and malfunctions (Chaniotakis, Gregoriadis & Thoidis 2009, Thoidis & Chaniotakis 2008, 2010). In other words, a gap has been recorded between the philosophy of the all-day school and the way it functions (Therianos 2004, Thoidis & Chaniotakis, 2011). Therefore, the all- day school turns out to be unattractive to parents who do not need its social services because they have already found a solution for the care of their child.

One basic reason for all- day school not fulfilling its educational purpose is that it works as an "add on" supportive institution. There is not an efficient integration of the main school curriculum to the all- day school program, in a sense it is not supervised by the educational system.

All - day school does not constitute a profound and total renewal and restructuring of primary school. This predicament is worsened by the fact that all- day school has expanded very quickly, without any systematic planning. Perhaps if there had been a "bottom up" debate, many problems would have been avoided (Thoidis & Chaniotakis 2012).

Unfortunately, in Greece the results of the «PISA» survey (Programme for International Student Assessment) did not manage to initiate an open debate, as happened in other European countries. A main conclusion of the PISA survey claims that countries which have high ranking educational systems implement full- day education.

There has been a negative influence on the educational content of all - day school, due to the factors above, malfunctions that concern its teaching staff and deficiencies of school equipment and school buildings, as referred to previously. Basically, the all - day school operates as a supplement to the morning school and not

as a part of it. Also, it fails to cover the weaknesses and deficiencies of the morning program in an adequate and appropriate way. All - day school works only for those who need it and as long as they need it. Hence, the challenge is not to shift the problems of half- day school to all- day school, but to reform and improve the functioning and organization of half- day school through all- day school (Chaniotakis & Thoidis 2002, Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs, Operational Program of Education, European Social Fund, 2007).

An assessment of the educational policy of all- day school leads to the assumption that there has not been continuity and consistency in the design and implementation of measures in order to ensure an effective institution of all - day school.

The current economic crisis and its consequences are basic factors which inhibit the availability of solutions to the problems. The educational requirements of all- day school are associated with high costs and not with "cheap solutions" (Thoidis & Chaniotakis 2012). This applies both to the coverage of teaching staff and to its needs for school equipment and buildings.

In the future alternative solutions which take advantage of existing social networks should be explored. For example by encouraging cooperation between school itself and extracurricular organizations in the form of full-day education.

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THE CHARACTER OF THE TEACHER ON PHYSICAL AND HEALTH EDUCATION

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Abstract

The paper provides some insights on the role and character of the teacher in modern technology within teaching physical and health education. Views on the role of the teacher in the educational process as well as cooperation with the students are examined. Given forms of behavior of democratic and authoritarian teacher, the distribution of tasks and the importance of physical and health education are studied in relation to the importance of the character of the teacher. Fulfilling the tasks of class physical and health education is tied to the teacher when there are poor working conditions. The success of teacher curricular physical education and health will generate success in other classes and other subjects, especially in lower grades, because a healthy student, his proper growth and development are a guarantee for success and other items. Finally, at the end of the paper a self-evaluation questionnaire is provided for the teacher.

Keywords: *Teaching, technology, collaboration, students, authoritative, democratic, self-evaluation.*

1. Introduction

The profile of the modern teacher is among the delicate and complex profiles of occupations which could once be said that education is completed. The teacher in general meets with the modern technologies of the teaching process. Due to insufficient knowledge of the functions and values of pedagogical resources, devices and achievements of science, some teachers show a certain kind of resistance and prejudice which makes for them so difficult to decide on the application of modern teaching aids, equipment, devices and other devices used in contemporary technology for teaching physical and health education.

The rapid development of the society is conditioning better job, improving the teaching process, takes on the role of the teacher so that he ceases to be a dominant person. Modern didactic conception increases the creative role and engagement of students in the process of exercise, using the modern tools and equipment, frees teachers from responsibility for what happens in the classroom and students acquire increasingly the role themselves to gather

information to solve specific instructional problems.

Modern teacher of physical and health education needs to engage the students for independent creative work and his task is to create students which will achieve results through independent creative work.

The care of the teacher should be aimed at enabling students to achieve their best through pedagogical processes. Students thus develop their creative abilities and conditions for their development.

2. Discussion

Modern technology in physical and health education contributes to the successful development of teaching, increases the quality and quantity of the adopted content, level of activity of students and teachers and others.

The modern teacher should pay particular attention to the following items and activities that would greatly contribute to the advancement of teaching:

- -To monitor scientific research in teaching and extracurricular activities
- -Use of the achievements of professional work in physical education
- -Increasing the interests and motivations of students to monitor activities in teaching and extracurricular activities
- -Using feedback in the evaluation of results,
- -Proper use and application of visual, audiovisual and other modern means,
- -Monitoring of physical development, motor and functional abilities,
- -Application of modern methods of work in teaching,
- -Work with homogeneous groups,
- -Individualization of teaching,
- -Application of the method "further exercise"
- -Application of the method "cycle training"
- -Application of the "stationing method"
- -Using manuals and textbooks on physical and health education,
- -Physical exercise independently of the students,
- -Extra-curricular activities and more.

Especially important is the cooperation of

teacher with students. Collaboration gives some results in the acquisition of knowledge, develops interests, motivation and positive attitudes among students. The teacher is the creator of modern teaching, he uses modern technology in the work. In this context it is necessary to properly understand the teaching of physical education and health, so that modern flows of educational technology find their place and role within the physical and health education. In this way, physical and health education would be given a new impetus and a different treatment within the educational work.

The teacher must request the school to provide the conditions and means of realizing the smooth flow through teaching physical and health education. With resources (devices and accessories) technically complex movements can be performed with great speed and is therefore useful to apply adequate teaching aids.

Students from the early grades of primary education are not taught because of the resources, but from the teacher's love and desire for new knowledge.

Teacher in their work should have certain features, such as:

- - Human qualities: kindness, happiness, naturalness, friendship, good mood and sense of humor,
- -Qualities related to the discipline: an impartial, fair, accurate behavior.
- -Good knowledge of trades: a good speaker, interesting and clear.

The forms of behavior of the teacher and procedures that apply in their work can be authoritarian or democratic. The attitude of teachers of these two types can be seen through the following indicators:

Authoritative teacher: Chief, brisk voice, order, power, asking for collaboration, putting up conceptions and opinions, rule, criticism, attention to errors, punishment, monologue, exclusive responsibility.

Democratic teacher: Leader, polite voice, suggestions, influence, courage, having collaboration, suggestion of conceptions and opinions, encouraging, recognition of student, help, dialogue, division of responsibility.

Researches related to the opinions of students to the qualities of a teacher, show that in the first place are the pedagogical skills of

teachers, then the features, the third place sporting ability, then the physical properties, etc. The teacher should have a harmonious physical constitution, broad culture, a sound general education as well developed motor skills. The class teacher should be decently dressed (tracksuits and sneakers), all must be clean and ironed.

In the space for exercise (hall), teachers must pay attention to hygiene because in that space health is maintained, created and developed.

The distribution of tasks and the importance of physical and health education is of growing importance in the character of the teacher. Fulfilling the tasks of class physical and health education is tied to the teacher when there are poor working conditions. The success of the teacher in curricular physical education and health will generate success in other classes and other objects, because a healthy student, his proper growth and development are a guarantee for success and other items.

The character of the teacher is an example for the children. The teacher leads a proper record of attendance, activity, students and follows their physical and functional abilities. He must not be rude and insensitive. Always during the exercise teachers should take care of security, to take in their power to accomplish goals and tasks of physical and health education.

Self- evaluation of teacher

Besides the evaluation of the work of students, for a complete evaluation of the teaching process of physical and health education a self-evaluation questionnaire is needed to evaluate the work of the teacher as the primary carrier to deliver the curriculum.

The following self- evaluation questionnaire gives a picture of the personal engagement of teachers in the teaching process.

Self-evaluation questionnaire

(From 1-16 responds with: always, sometimes, rarely, never)

1. I love to teach
2. I respect my students and they try to understand.
3. I am democratic.
4. I feel responsibility for the work.
5. I make best possible conditions for working students.
6. I'm completely impartial to all students.
7. I do my work schedule in advance.

8. I use each hour to learn something new.
9. I care for all students.
10. I can feel that students respect me.
11. I have problems with discipline.
12. I cooperate with the administration of the school.
13. I can feel that my colleagues respect me.
14. I'm member of professional organizations.
15. I feel that I can contribute to my profession.
16. I collaborate with parents.
17. To prove myself as a teacher I should:

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THE INFLUENCE OF DESCRIPTIVE FEEDBACK ON STUDENTS' ACHIEVEMENT

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Abstract

We are all aware that this modern way of living that we are all part of, is mostly determined by everyday changes that occur with a main purpose to lighten and improve our lives as individuals and as part of the social environment. Education has always been a significant participant to different kind of changes that are all created with one goal – to help students gain the knowledge they need, to become independent individuals and to use that knowledge to improve the social environment. The changes happening with the formative assessment have a big role for this improvement, which is the reason why they are the focus of attention for my research, with a particular focus on descriptive formative feedback - defined as information communicated to the learner that is intended to modify learner's thinking or behavior for the purpose of improving learning. The main focus of this paper is to see the influence of descriptive feedback on the overall success of a student, in other word how the use of well used feedback has a positive contribution to the students' learning performances. Among other things this paper reviews the characteristics, elements and types of feedback, as well as guidelines for a proper use in the educational process.

Keywords: *assessment, formative assessment, feedback, student's achievement*

1. Introduction

Ever since the formative assessment took place in the educational process, there have been many arguments about the essential piece for its successful implementation – the feedback. When feedback is considered to be a part of the formative assessment it is much more than just giving students grades about their work. In this case, feedback is an ongoing communicational process between all subjects involved in the educational process. The most important relationship is the teacher – student communication that should give students information about their work, but above all, it should provide helpful tips and advises on how to get even better and achieve even more. For this to happen, the feedback must be given in a descriptive manner, in a way that the description will contain information about the student's

strengths and weaknesses while always using a motivational tone. This is where the complexity for giving descriptive feedback comes from. It takes a lot of knowledge and practice for teacher to master the art of giving a quality motivational feedback that will eventually give the help that students need, to overcome their weaknesses and achieve the goals set by the school curriculum.

Good feedback should be part of classroom assessment environment in which students see constructive criticism as a good thing and understand that learning cannot occur without practice. (Brookhart 2008)

2. Theoretical framework

2.1. Defining key words

2.1.1. Assessment

Since assessment is a wide term used in the everyday language it should be noted that the following statements are regarding the definition of educational assessment and therefore explain the role of assessment in the educational process.

Assessment is an ongoing process aimed at understanding and improving students' learning. It involves making expectations explicit and public; setting appropriate criteria and high standards for learning quality; systematically gathering, analyzing, and interpreting evidence to determine how well performance matches those expectations and standards, and using the resulting information to document, explain, and improve performance (Angelo 1995).

The University of Oregon, defines assessment as the process of gathering and discussing information from multiple and diverse sources in order to develop a deep understanding of what students know, understand, and can do with their knowledge as a result of their educational experiences; the process culminates when assessment results are used to improve subsequent learning

2.1.2. Formative assessment

Known experts Black and Wiliam, define formative assessment with all those activities undertaken by teachers, and/or by students, which provide information to be used as feedback to modify the teaching and learning

activities in which they are engaged (Black & Wiliam 1998). Similar to that, Cowie and Bell see formative assessment as the process used by teachers and students to recognize and respond to student learning in order to enhance that learning, during the learning (Cowie & Bell 1999).

A more precise view of this term will be given later in this paper, where all the benefits and characteristics of this approach will be discussed.

2.1.3. Feedback

The general understanding of the term feedback is information about reactions to a product, a person's performance of a task, etc. which is used as a basis for improvement. Therefore, looking at a feedback definition in the context of this paper, it would be all the information that students get from their teachers that is referring their knowledge, skills, beliefs etc. Furthermore, in order for the feedback to be seen as formative it has to represent information communicated to the student that is intended to modify the student's thinking or behavior for the purpose of improving learning.

2.1.4. Student achievement

Unlike the previous terms defined in this paper, this is a more difficult term to define due to its complexity and subjectivity. Our country's known specialist in this field gives a definition that get's closely to the core of this term, by defining the student achievement as all the positive changes (cognitive, psychological, emotional and social) that are occurring as part of the school curriculum during the educational process of each student. The achievement can be viewed as knowledge, skills, abilities and other competences that are all happening thanks to a long period of hard work (Popovski 2005).

2.2. Formative assessment in the educational process

Formative assessment was already defined as any type of assessment that helps the student learn faster and better and to make a bigger progress. In other words formative assessment can be seen as a continuous process of following and controlling the achievement of those included in the educational process, and later uses that information to determine the final

grade. The most efficient way to make any assessment formative is to create an environment where both teachers and students get feedback of the quality of their work at all times. More precisely, the teacher gets feedback of his educational influence on his students and therefore he has a solid foundation when planning his future curriculum and activities. Students, on other hand, use feedback as a tool that helps them understand the level of achievement they have accomplished, but even more importantly they use this information to see how can they do more in order to improve their achievement and plan (individually or with the help of their teacher) the ways and actions to get there.

Descriptive assessment, as a special type of feedback is when words are used in the process of evaluation in a way that the subject of assessment is separated so that each part can be compared to one or more indicator of what is perceived as a desired knowledge. This type of assessment is a very precise way of evaluating the level of a student's achievement because it uses words to describe the actual accomplishment and compare it to the one set by the educational curriculum. This is the reason why this assessment is considered much more informative than the simple summative assessment and therefore is more appreciated by both students and parents.

When descriptive feedback is discussed, there is a small remark that needs to be said in order to make a difference between what is considered short version of descriptive feedback and the one that can be seen as a quality descriptive feedback. The first case consists of a group of phrases that don't tell much about the actual work of the student, like "job well done", "great work", "you know better" etc. The second group on the other hand, is much more than just using what it seems to be just another scale for determining success because it contains concrete details about students' work. This second case of quality descriptive feedback is the subject of this paper and therefore when this term is used further in this paper it implies this type of formative feedback.

For one teacher to be able to use feedback in the right way, he needs to know the basic strategies that determine the success of the feedback outcome, and more importantly how to combine them for a maximum efficiency. Susan Brookhart (Brookhart 2008) gives a good overview on these strategies and she narrows them down to these four:

2.3.1. *Timing*

The purpose of giving immediate or only slightly delayed feedback is to help students hear it and use it. Feedback needs to come while students are still mindful of the topic, assignment, or performance in question. It needs to come while they still think of the learning goal as a learning goal—that is, something they are still striving for, not something they already did. It especially needs to come while they still have some reason to work on the learning target. Feedback about a topic they won't have to deal with again all year will strike students as pointless.

2.3.2. *Amount*

One of the hardest decisions to make when providing feedback is to determine the amount to be given. Though the first instinct is to correct everything that it's found wrong, this is not always an option in the educational process, because the practice shows that not all students can meet all the goals from the curriculum. This is why it's recommended to point the thing that the teacher finds to be most important at that moment, rather than to "fix" all the mistakes that students make. This is a hard judgment to make because sometimes it can lead to an illusion on behalf of the student that a wrong answer is either the right solution or that the teacher missed this mistake. This is why usually teachers always overload the feedback with all types of corrections that can have a bad influence on the further motivation to learn.

2.3.3. *Mode*

There are few modalities when it comes to delivering feedback to a student. The basic ones are written feedback, oral feedback and by demonstrating. The right choice to make is usually left to the teacher, as the person that is most competent to decide in which situation which mode is the most appropriate, considering both their positive and negative sides. The oral

2.3. Feedback strategies

feedback for example is used most of the times due to the fact that it is spontaneous, fast and easy to use, and gives feedback at the very same moment that it is needed. The written feedback it is mostly used for evaluating written tests, essays, projects etc. or when the feedback contains information about detail and specific steps to overcoming a problem, while the demonstrational or visual feedback can be used only when students need to be shown how to do certain activity (usually involving motor skills) in the right way.

2.3.4. Audience

Like all communication, feedback works best when it has a strong and appropriate sense of the audience. Although feedback is usually positively constructed it still focused on students' mistakes and revealing ways to overcome them. This is a sensitive matter, because students as well as any other group of people don't like to be publicly criticized about their work. This is why it is almost always recommended for the feedback to be delivered individually, which will also lead to a conclusion that the work they do is appreciated and carefully taken by the teacher. The group feedback is best to be used when a similar mistake occurs with most of the students and therefore it is the most economical way to deal with the problem.

2.4. Feedback characteristics

In order for one feedback to serve its purpose (that is to consolidate strengths and overcoming weaknesses), there are few standards that need to be taken in consideration when constructing and presenting a certain feedback. Many authors have different opinions (mostly regarding the number) on these attributes, but in general they all come down to few most important characteristics that make one descriptive feedback formative. Most of them agree that feedback should be:

- *Directly related to curriculum goals and assessment criteria.* These two units are connected in a way that assessment criteria should establish clear standards of achievement which are related to the education curriculum. And since assessment criteria constitute what students have to achieve, formative feedback should explain the extent to

which a student achieves each separate assessment criterion, identify knowledge gaps and address specific errors and preconceptions.

- *Focusing on the progress.* The basic collection of data regarding students' achievement is not a purpose of its own. It would be just a waste of time and energy if these records are not useful in a way that students and their parents can take this data and use it to improve their results. The educational progress of an individual can be seen in descriptive feedback by comparing previous, present and future expected achievements.
- *Giving corrective actions.* This shouldn't be mistaken with giving them the solution on a platter, but a help that a student can get from his teacher in a form of well defined plan (step by step if required) to take, so they can overcome their problems. This is a helpful tool of the descriptive feedback because it gives the student a solution based on concrete action to take to make up for his mistakes or weaknesses. These action plans are recommended even for those students who performed well on their test, with a difference that they will not be focus to fixing problems, but expanding knowledge and skills.
- *Individualized and positive.* Giving an individual feedback to each student is a complex thing that a teacher needs to accomplish, due to differences regarding subjective capacities and objective conditions. In order for a teacher to be able to construct a solid descriptive feedback he should follow students progress at all time and always to have relevant information regarding:
 - Student knowledge: to know the amount of previous knowledge that a student had when starting school, to know how much progress he had make and all the difficulties he has in the process of gaining new knowledge, how he puts that into practice etc.
 - Student abilities: to know what kind of intellectual, psychological and motor abilities the student has; to know of the existence of any

potential talents or obstacles; to have information about students' verbal skills etc.

- Student interests and outlooks: to know what kind of interest the student shows towards the certain subject (active or passive interest, how it is manifesting, with what intensity and durability, also to know what's the student attitude and outlook on the subject and so on)
- Student working habits: to know and understand students learning and working habits, how a student plans his study, how regularly and neatly he accomplishes his school or home chores, how much independence he shows etc.
- The objective conditions where the student lives and works: to know the housing and material conditions, cultural and educational background of the family and so on (Popovski 2005).

Beside these things, knowledge in certain characteristics of the student's character is required, like sedulity, honesty, friendliness, responsibilities etc.

- *Focused on key mistakes:* Feedback should not be burden to a student's work, but rather a provider of the help needed to get better results. This is why feedback should not be overloaded with information on every single mistake that was made, but separate the most important things that were supposed to be learned in that moment and focus most of the attention in that direction. There are few questions that can improve the focus of a feedback (Elwar & Corno 1985).
 1. Which is the key mistake?
 2. What is the student's probable reason for making this mistake?
 3. What can be done in order to avoid this mistake in the future?
 4. What was done well by the student, and what can be noted about it?

2.5. Expected outcomes from using feedback

2.5.1. Descriptive feedback leads to an improvement on the student's learning

If students get feedback about their progress during the class and the learning process in general, they will be able to estimate if they are making a progress (in what why and how much) and where they stand on the latter of goals that need to be accomplished. This will stimulate them to put an extra effort in their work if necessary. Good feedback will help student improve his learning by enabling him to:

- Acknowledge his own accomplishments, to be aware of his strengths, to know how much progress has he made, to be able to see the gap between the expected goals and the level of his accomplishment.
- Acknowledge his own learning weaknesses, mistakes and difficulties, but further more to be able to determine the reasons for all these – where he fails to make a progress and why.
- To get directions for the necessary activities with which he can exceed the established learning difficulties and gaps, as well as the learning methods and procedures.

2.5.2. Descriptive feedback leads to an improvement on student's motivation

This is probably the best thing about descriptive feedback. Unlike the summative assessment that can be stressful, descriptive feedback (if it's timely, appropriate and relevant) can be a strong motivational factor for students' learning because first of all it is focused on the students' strengths and then it gives a plan for improvement that makes the student motivated, since he sees a way to get to better results.

A feedback can be called motivational when:

- It gives information on how close the student is to the expected goal.
- It tells a student that he has accomplished the expected goal, which will make him feel more pleased, competent with himself, and with more self esteem he can take on new and higher goals.
- Is not judgmental or directed to the student's personality. This approach will not take any of the student's energy for

learning and can develop a bigger will for the student to take his learning development in his own hands. It is the energy that the student needs in order to accomplish the set goals and to satisfy his own needs (motives, interests, curiosity etc.).

2.5.3. Descriptive feedback leads to independent learning on behalf of the student

This is an important outcome since we know that school and teachers are only part of a person's life for a limited amount of time. Their main goal is not to give knowledge to students, but to teach them how to use and get the information that they will need in the future. This is where feedback can be of a big help, because it has the potential to make a habit for students to plan and guide their learning performances.

3. Survey results

In order to look closer to the actual situation in the educational process in the matter of using feedback a survey was made among students and teachers. The survey was consisted of two questionnaires, one for the students and one for the teachers. As a contribution to those results, a class was part of an experiment to see if the results of the questionnaires correspond with the practical situation. Some of the key questions of the questionnaires will be presented in this part of the paper to get a closer look into the attitude towards formative feedback that teachers and students have.

Figure 1: Question 2 from students' questionnaire

Does your teacher tell you where did you make a mistake and how to overcome it?

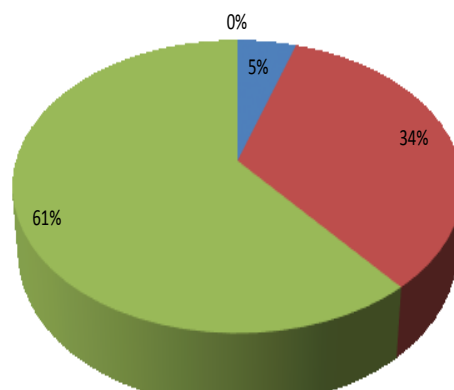
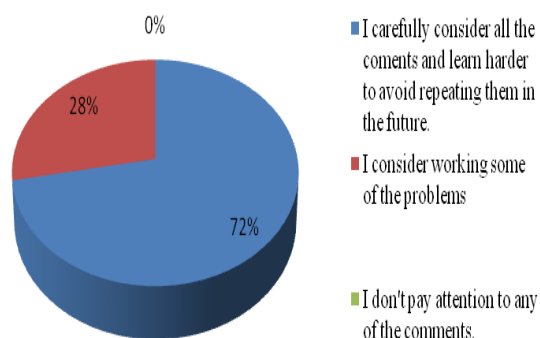


Figure 2: Question 3 from students' questionnaire

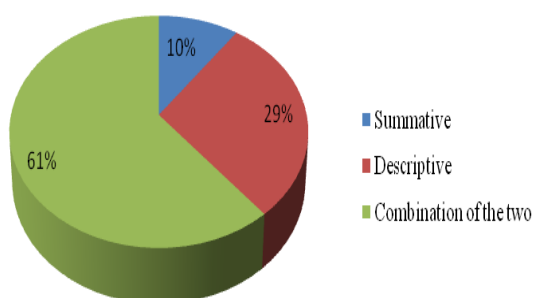
How do you use the feedback your teacher gives you?



The result analysis shows that 61% of the students involved in this survey reported they get feedback from their teachers, where they are appointed to certain problems as well as advises on overcoming their weaknesses. On the question how they use that feedback, 72% of them appointed they carefully reconsider the given comments and try to follow the advice to get better results by studying harder. What is important in this part is that none of the students gave a positive answer to the option "I don't pay attention to any of the comments." This confirms even more, that students are mature enough to get and use descriptive feedback to improve their knowledge so it is left to the teachers to provide their students with quality feedback.

Figure 3: Question 7 from students' questionnaire

What type of feedback do you find to be most helpful?



This paper does not try to devalue summative grades, because they are a significant indicator of a students' achievement. But as an independent indicator of the level of achieved results, they don't have a big role in the process of improving students' performances, a fact that is verified with the results from this question where it is stated that students find descriptive feedback, as a contribution to their summative grades to be most helpful. This should clear the dilemma whether descriptive feedback should be used on a regular basis in the educational process.

Figure 4: Question 5 from teachers' questionnaire

Do you find descriptive feedback to be helpful to students' motivation to learn?

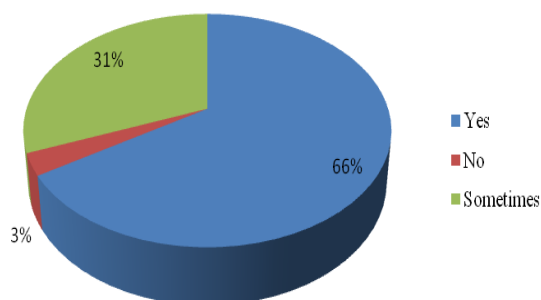
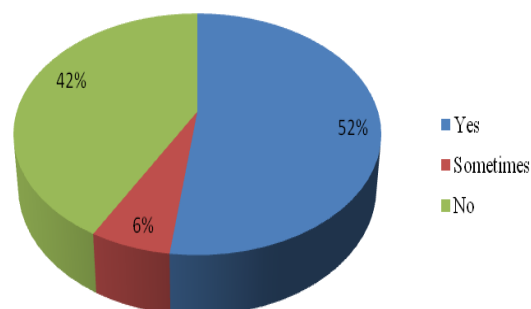


Figure 5: Question 6 from teachers' questionnaire

Do you find descriptive feedback to be helpful to students in the process of gaining control over their learning?



It is well known that one of the key factors for succeeding in any field is the level of motivation for success. There isn't a big difference in the educational system as well, because students' success is widely determined by the level of motivation that they have for overcoming the school material and for expending knowledge in general. Motivation itself is determined by many factors but what is important is that these results correspond with the theoretical knowledge that good feedback strengthens students' motivation for improvement, with the fact that only 3% of all the teachers that were part of this survey haven't had this experience. The percentage of teachers, who find that using descriptive feedback always or sometimes leads to independence on students' behalf in the process of gaining knowledge, is also over 90% which is a very satisfactory data.

Conclusion

It is common knowledge that the total development of a student is not a result of just one influential factor, but rather a combination of a group of characteristics and influences, like intelligence, social environment, motivation, effort and etc. This is why it can't be said that the descriptive feedback is the key factor for success, but at least we can say with no dilemma that is an important part of the most important segments that determine the level of students' achievement.

The teacher as a central character in the students' educational process is obligated, among other, to pay a special attention on following the improvement of each student, using the principles of formative assessment and

descriptive feedback as its irreplaceable component. The everyday use of this kind of feedback helps students within the process of learning, helps them direct their attention and effort towards their weaknesses and gives them chance to use their full potential.

The current situation in our educational process shows that this kind of feedback is relatively new and that teachers don't use this resource to its full potential. Although it is positive that this last few years certain projects were taken, that are putting formative assessment and descriptive feedback at the spotlight, still the implementation of this is far from becoming an everyday practice.

But then if it is considered that in the modern society teachers are subjects of all kinds of changes, as part of the permanent education, it is understandable why it is hard for them to find time to provide quality descriptive feedback to each student. But then, considering the theoretical knowledge as well as the results from numerous different surveys regarding this issue, it is clear that this would be a small sacrifice for teachers to make for the sake of their students.

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THE SCHOOL LEADERS AND THEIR INFLUENCE UPON THE CONTINUOUS TEACHERS' PERSONAL AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

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Abstract

Each of the research aspects of education has to be in connection to students' achievements. So, one of the numerous factors that can be considered to have some effect to students' achievements is the continuous professional development of the school leader and the teachers, as well as other employees. But, we have to have in mind that this influence (especially the one of the school leader) is just oblique. It has a long path to go to be directly related to students' achievements. However, the school leaders can easily affect teachers' work, their attitudes; they can provide opportunities to teachers for their further development, for upgrading their skills and capabilities and so on. The question is – How can the school leader achieve this? The answer is in the well known practice – “do what you want your followers to do”. That means that school leaders should be a role model for the teachers in the school and they should take care of their further professional development. In addition to this, they have to try to build a school working environment dedicated to lifelong learning by obtaining terms and conditions for teachers to satisfy their needs for progression, both progression in their knowledge (skills and capabilities) and professional progression within the school. The bottom line is that only successful teachers can produce successful students.

Keywords: school leader, teachers, students, professional development, lifelong learning

1. The Leaders' Professional Development through Formal and Informal

1.1. Formal Programs

The serious critique of the university programs for educating school leaders in the past fifteen years led to wide and overall revisions and estimations of these programs. Partly as a consequence of this situation, some basic recommendations were set up, as follows: the programs for education school leaders should be of a long-term type; they should be developed in accordance to the needs of the school leader working position; these programs should be planned carefully and have a complete overall

content; the programs for educating school leaders should focus on students achievements. Further more, these programs should emphasize reflective practices, give opportunities for opinions' exchange among colleagues, offer possible solutions to practical problems and secure context for training and mentoring processes. Many of the researchers and scholars think that the programs for educating school leaders should have: clear mission and goal that can be easily connected to the leadership process for making the school better; curricula that is integral and in compliance with national processes of certification and accent to information technologies involvement and deployment. Yet, all of the noted recommendations are not based on the proven facts for bettering the students' achievements due to the school leadership processes.¹

1.2. Informal programs (informal studying)

It has been a little research done upon how the school leaders, apart from their participation in formal programs, continue their professional development during their career. Although reasonable thinking and some of the facts point out to the working experience as a primal study source for the school leaders, still it is not very clear what parts of the working experience are useful and why is that. Following, one can read about some theoretical tools for gathering skills and abilities through working experience that school leaders need in achieving better results in students' final scores (meaning not just as isolated figures, but as fundamental parameters).²

The work of school leaders can be conceptualized as solving practical problems, i.e. as thinking implemented into practice. A great part of knowledge that school leaders need for continuous development of their ability for solving practical problems is defined as "situated", which is a very precise definition. This knowledge is very specific; because of the context it has been gained in and from and can

be used just in same or similar context. This is an attitude that is being put on a hotly debate.

Situated knowledge requires leaders to be in connection to "authentic", non-routine professional activity that is embedded in the organizational culture. Practical-problem solving is based on the big experience, which resulted in needed knowledge, by the experienced school leaders. This kind of knowledge automatically is used for everyday problems and, through reflection, is used in particular situations that require more complex cognition in order some unexpected, non-routine and unfamiliar problems to be solved.

„Common thinking“ or „practical thinking“ are terms that are used for explaining mental processes that are being practiced by experienced school leaders while implementing their knowledge in solving problems at the work place. Such thinking has been embedded in the bigger aimed activities directed toward reaching the goals of these activities. These goals can be either of short or long term kind and are reached in process where the real facts are observed and respected by the school leaders. The previous school leaders' experience (that is supposed to have motivational effects) is of a great importance for them especially in a position when practical thinking should be used in order some particular problems in the school or classroom to be solved out.

Scribner (1984) identified several characteristics of the expert practical thinking within the model that is consisted of five components. People who practice practical thinking have a capability to: form the problem in the particular context, and at the same time this problem to be solved with already tested and proven answers; react accordingly to similar problems and while doing that to use different models from their rich past in order each problem to be solved in the best possible way; exploit the social, symbolic and/or physical conditions as a tool for lowering the intellectual efforts that are needed in solving the problems. These experts find out the most economic solutions (the ones that requests for minimum effort), that are most effective; and they implement such solutions and the situated knowledge to solve other existing problems and ones that can show up in the future.

¹ Center for Applied Research and Educational Improvement Kenneth Leithwood, Karen Seashore Louis, Stephen Anderson and Kyla Wahlstrom. Ontario Institute for Studies in Education. Accessed 20.05.2012. <http://www.wallacefoundation.org/knowledge-center/school-leadership/key-research/Pages/How-Leadership-Influences-Student-Learning.aspx>

² Ibid

These characteristics are same as ones that are related to the process of solving problems by the school leaders. The practical problems' solving by experts such as school leaders depends on the access to the wide range of relevant knowledge for solving the problems. This relevant knowledge is in connection to the decision which activities should be chosen for solving the problem, as well as to the social and physical frame context where the problem exists (i.e. problem with some students in the class). That, also, consists of a larger set of activities (procedures and acts) related to the efforts some particular problems to be identified and named with proper words. The knowledge that is needed for problem solving is "conditional". It includes information for conditions and limitations of its usage, and most of the information is prevaricated. In addition, such knowledge has to be used in a way that the school leader will put into function the social context while searching the solution to the problems; and the school leader can also use the social context as a part of a solution, too. So, this is the way the situated knowledge connects the leadership or managerial skills of the school leaders to some external characteristics of the social, community and/or public contexts.

The knowledge needed for expert practical problems' solving is situated and can be acquired under specific set of circumstances that includes participation in authentic, non-routine activities. The concepts can be completely understood and studied through their implementation and refined conclusions that are results of the feedback of such implementation. The dynamic and interactive relation with others, particularly with those who have bigger experience and knowledge in certain areas, in large portion enhances the potential for personal development.

In order useful wide-ranged situated knowledge to be amplified, the active interactive relation with others has to happen in activities that are developed under "authentic" conditions, which include routine school leaders' acts and regular work activities in the school. These routine activities are happening within the social and physical context of the school, the community and the region and because of that the knowledge of such contexts has to be part of problem solutions, which means that the school

leaders have to be well informed and educated about the social surrounding. The knowledge needed for problem solving would be timely accessible if the school leader acquired it just before the appearance of the problem. This point of view explains the benefit of training the school leaders informally, i.e. of informal studying at the work place, getting work experience and knowledge in comparison to formal study processes that are being held outside the school, the community or the region.

At the end, the authentic activities in which the school leaders participate in should be non-routine, if they are to serve for further development. Non-routine activities stimulate the school leaders to study the regular practices through the prism of a "new perspective", and that generates a specific constructive dissatisfaction from the existing practice, which results into additional motivational impulse.

2. Community dedicated to professional lifelong learning

The community dedicated to professional lifelong learning represents the upgraded possibilities for studying in order the learning among colleagues within some working group to be set up and positioned. This term is used very often when it comes to schools where the work of group of teachers should be named.

However, this term has many variations. So, according to some researchers the term community dedicated to lifelong learning shows the transfer of classrooms practices outside world, bringing back all the school workers into classrooms so curricula and students' work to be done better, or, at the same time engaging the students, teachers and administrative staff in the process of studying. Richard DuFour, recognized expert in the field of professional learning, underlies that "to create a community dedicated to professional lifelong learning, one should put the focus to studying prior to teaching, the people should collaborate and try to work together while they practice personal as well collective responsibility for generated results."³ This term can also be defined as shared vision or managing a school where each employee will give a contribution to it, and while doing this a

³ DuFour, R. (2004). "Schools as learning communities," *Educational Leadership*, 61(8) p 6-11

continuous self estimation can be practiced with an ultimate goal of increasing and bettering the students' achievements.

The basic idea of the community dedicated to professional lifelong learning is two concepts to be integrated, which in the past were completely separated from each other – the professional and the social (one of the community) concepts. The concept of the professionalism in studying is based on specialized knowledge and focuses on satisfying the client's needs, while the concept of the community is based on caring, support and mutual responsibility in the group.⁴

2.1. Building a school community dedicated to professional lifelong learning

*"If the schools are to be more effective, than they have to be set free of the industrial model they are created in and to be organized in some other different one that will enable them to function as organizations that learn and organizations in which is learning. We prefer these organizations to be named communities dedicated to professional learning from several basic reasons. The term organization refers to partnership achieved through efficiency, conformity and common interests; the term community refers to stressing out the relations, shared ideals and strong culture, all the factors that are principal for improving the schools. The challenge for educators is to create a dedicated community – community dedicated to professional learning." "Maybe it sounds really simple, but, as the old adage says – the devil lies in details."*⁵

The organization chart of the community dedicated to professional learning includes employees in different levels who work continuously together to improve the organization. Peter Senge believes that "one man who learns in the organization is not enough anymore." The notion that only one man has to be a decision maker who controls the

organization is not sufficient for today schools; in fact, all the concerned within one organization have to work effectively for reaching the common goals. The basic policy of the community dedicated to professional learning is that people learn more together, than separately. The idea for team learning is an interesting concept that teachers promote in the classrooms, but do not practice themselves in their professional paths. Senge suggests that when teams learn how to learn together only then better organizational goals will be achieved. In a time the teams become the unit that learning is focused to, rather than individuals. The effective and efficient collaboration become the most important imperative.

The team learning is built on individual edification and shared vision. This includes the unity of what is common to the individuals and to the school community. Though the individuals are responsible for their own acts, feelings and attitudes, still what navigates the decision making process is the common welfare of the community.

3. Conclusions

The assumptions that were stated in the beginning of this paper were showed justified. The believing that the leader of the educational organization has an oblique influence upon students' results was proven correct. However, it does not mean that the oblique influence is not strong. That means, only, that the leader indirectly, through the strong and implicit influence upon the teachers and other staff members influences the students' achievements and the effects of this influence must not be ignored.

As proven many time so far, when it comes to leadership of any organization (educational, public, private), a model of behavior is needed that has to be practiced by the leaders if they want to steer the organization with success. This is, in fact, a harness. What does this mean? The leader who consecrates time and physical efforts for continuous improvement => work staff that builds and upgrades a community dedicated to professional lifelong learning => improved students' achievements. Though, one should not understand that only the leaders' and teachers' influence is the key factor for increased students'

⁴ Buffum, A., & Hinman, C. (2006). Professional learning communities: reigniting passion and purpose. *Leadership*, 35(5), 16-19

⁵ Norwood, J. (2007). Professional Learning Communities to Increase Student Achievement. *Essays in Education* 20, 33-42

achievements. It is just a portion of a wide range of other factors, circumstances and conditions that all together and separately contribute to bettering the students' results.

If only the students' results are put into focus of interest, then the perception has to be in reverse of the one that is set out at the beginning of this paper. In such case all other aspects of influence and all other contributors will have to be investigated one by one and all together and how they affect the students' results.

However, that was not our goal. Here, we wanted to show the effects of the leaders' continuous education and permanent training of the rest of the working staff upon the reaching of every educational institution – improvement of students' achievements, category artificially isolated from the rest of internal and external conditions. Isolation was made in such an extent that not even all the segments that make the leadership process were considered, but only the segment of permanent professional improvement of the school leader. For the research work to be deeper, more scientific and persuasive, some isolation of particular aspects from the bigger social frame has to be done. In this case such isolation was made in order to be underline that the leadership comes from different sources, not just from persons in charge and/or managers of the schools. However, the formal school leaders have the greatest influence. The efforts put into their appointment, training, evaluation and permanent development should be considered as effective approaches in order successful improvement of the school work observed through the prism of bettering the students' results.

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VALUES IN GREEK AND INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL TEXTS. A SEMIOTIC APPROACH

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Abstract

The education as we know it today is the product of a long journey that has not yet found its purpose. The journey is constantly redirected due to the influence of multiple factors, social, political, financial, and international interest. The current redirection of education at the international level aimed at creating conditions within an educational environment for the development and correlation with quality of life and students' wellbeing. It is a culture of values education, which (ideally) will result in saving the planet and sustainable development. The aim of this paper¹ is a semiotic approach about the relation of the objectives of *paideia* and *education* in three different kinds of texts, two legal greek texts and a text-Report of the International Organization² UNESCO chaired by Jacques Delors (where education is described as a 'necessary Utopia'). The reason that the researcher focus on objectives and values in texts of local and international interest about education, it is because of a new trend in the international arena, entitled New Values Education as it is reflected from the international research (Lovat T., et al. ed, 2010).

Keywords: *values education, semantic codes, J.Delors-Report to UNESCO, Greek Educational Law 1566/85, Constitution of Greece [Article 16(2)]*

1.Introduction

There is a crisis in human values pervading the world, and in this midst of this crisis education is called upon to undertake the significant task of promoting a positive transformation of cultural values. Values-based education seems to be a top priority worldwide, possibly because even though values are considered to be a necessity in life, they seem to be deficient in practice (Nanzhao 2002: 353-357).

This study's focus is linked to a discussion in semiotic terms on objective- and value-related topics discussed in micro- and macro-level educational texts. Thus, within the scope of a semiotic textual analysis, I was interested in the explicit references made to the objectives of

¹ This paper is based on the book, Χριστοδούλου (2012).

² See, Νάσκου-Περράκη (2011) for more information about the role of the International Organizations.

paideia³ and education as promoters of values, in texts that have different contexts, namely a local context for Greek texts and an international context for UNESCO texts.

The texts chosen to be analysed are different in terms of the type of text, the power they hold, their frame of reference and size. More specifically, the following texts were chosen: (a) the objective of *paideia* stated in the *Constitution of Greece* [Article 16(2)], (b) the objectives of compulsory nine-year education listed in *Greek Educational Law 1566/1985* [Articles 1(a-e), 3.1, 4.1 and 5.1] and (c) the text titled 'From economic growth to human development', in Delors, J. (2002), *Learning, the Treasure Within. Report to UNESCO of the International Commission on Education for the Twenty-first Century*; Paris, UNESCO Publishing, pp.69-84.⁴

The first two texts, as the principal institutional texts establishing *paideia* and education⁵ in Greece, were for me a means of securing an 'institutional starting point', while the UNESCO Report was an important perspective on education in our era, particularly where the chapter connecting growth and human development is concerned.

My hypothesis was that, even though we are dealing with three different texts, there is a notional as well as ideological relationship between them which is linguistically expressed using regulatory terms, whether consciously chosen or not. The purpose of this paper is thus to explore the way in which these texts are related.

The definition of *paideia* provided by the Constitution leads to the uniform construction of an evaluative rather than conceptual (scientific) structure of *paideia*. Semantic structures — namely elements that build concepts — and their correspondence with social reality are

axiomatic in nature rather than evidential. The legal definition of *paideia* found in the Constitution is not an evidential sequence of forms, but rather an axiomatic rule. It is an atemporal description that makes no reference to a particular socio-historical context (Βέλτσος 1974: 44-45).

The objective of *paideia* laid down in the Constitution largely determines the objective and goals of the education laws. Furthermore, the term education is reshaped into individual values within the goals established by these laws (Βρεττός & Καψάλης 1999: 110-111)⁶. An important stage in the education process is the determination of the goals of each subject, which progresses from the general to the more specific; in other words, from the education ideal to the overall objectives of education, and then on to the goals and objectives of the detailed courses, the writing of school books and so on.

It is a well-known fact that UNESCO's modern-day role is to seek global visions of mutual respect and the sustainable development of nations. The UNESCO Report was the collective effort of a committee of eminent figures, who worked together under the presidency of Jacques Delors in order to express their thoughts on the changes they deem necessary in education in the twenty-first century so that humanity may successfully deal with situations directly related to human survival (climate, pollution, ecosystem degradation, disruption of ecological equilibrium, overpopulation, hole in the ozone, desertification, non-renewable resources). The UNESCO Report discusses the economic and social crises that humanity is facing in the 21st century and goes on to describe New Education as a 'necessary Utopia' and powerful means of fostering human development, a means that will meet the needs and demands of the new era.

2. Data and analysis

As an integral part of a material, socio-economic and political context, the texts have been analysed and interpreted using a socio-semiotic rather than a merely formal (formalistic) approach (Lagopoulos 2004: 161-162, Lagopoulos & Boklund-Lagopoulou 1992). Based

³*Paideia* is a greek term (the ideal of education) and it means (in ancient Greece) a system of broad cultural education, and the culture of a society (Oxford Dictionary of English, 2010: 1276).

⁴In order to better present the research and the analysis results, the texts in the corpus of analysis have been conventionally assigned symbols, namely A (the objective of *paideia* in the Constitution), B (the objectives of compulsory education in Law 1566/85) and C (the UNESCO report).

⁵This paper does not focus on pedagogic achievements: it analyses the texts as promoters of values while adopting a semiotic rather than a critical, interpretative or evaluative approach.

⁶The specification of objectives has been the subject of heated debate at many levels (Βρεττός & Καψάλης 1999: 116-121).

on semiotics theory, the texts chosen constitute different meaning systems, and hence different means of communication that have encoded ideologies, given that they have different contexts. Texts, as ideological forms, often have a 'latent consciousness', a hidden ideology, since they present a particular image of the world (Storey 1993: 2-6). The ideology mainly functions at the level of the associations made, of frequently unconscious meanings that the texts convey. In this sense and according to Barthes, an ideology can be likened to a leader's effort to limit certain associations, establish new ones and to generate new connotations.

To the extent that each word or expression is ideologically charged, particular importance is placed — over and above the meaning of a term — on its semiotic value, in other words, on the particular semiotic charge of each term when compared with other semiotically related terms. The 'value' of these terms, as ideologically charged terms, reflects their ideology, which makes it possible to explore associations in related terms (Βενιζέλος 1981: 141). In essence, the discussion on the analysis of the terms *paideia*, *education* and *values* is not one of contrasting meanings, but a comparison of world views (Iledema 1995: 22-36).

The delimitation of vague or undefined concepts (*paideia*, *education*, *values*) — concepts which have variable content or are unspecified to a small or large extent (e.g. morality, good faith, public interest) — is neither uncommon nor a marginal phenomenon, and is dealt with in many disciplines (philosophy, pedagogy). Vague concepts have a varying semantic content with a broad and elastic scope that is determined by the speaker and the context in question. Owing to their chief attribute, namely their close ties to social reality, vague concepts throw an era's prevalent values into high relief (Κουτούπα-Πεγκάκου 1990).

A vague concept's conversion to another concept (its transformation, specification, replacement) is indicative of the arrangement of the term's boundaries within the relevant context and also of the restrictions placed on the term's content. It is within this framework of restrictions and clarifications that the concepts *paideia*, *education* and *values* are linked in the three texts chosen. To achieve its goal, this study has made use of Greimas' (1966) model of semiotic analysis, as implemented by Lagopoulos

& Boklund-Lagopoulou (1992), Boklund-Lagopoulou (1980, 1982, 1986), Χριστοδούλου (2003, 2007) and Kourdis (2009).

The objectives in the three texts, A, B and C, were approached as articulated semantic sets that carry an ideological charge stemming from their relevant frame of reference. The analysis focused on the texts' structural elements, that is, their codes. Eighteen codes were identified that cover the texts' semantic content. They are, in alphabetical order, the: cultural code, economic code, emotional code, environmental code, geographic code, intellectual code, learning code, moral code, national code, physical education code, professional code, religious code, school education code, social code, technological code, temporal code, values code and well-being code. There follows an overall presentation and distribution of the eighteen codes in the three texts of the corpus of analysis (Table 1)⁷.

Table 1: Comparative presentation of the codes in the three texts, A, B and C

A	B	C
Values code	+	+
Professional code	+	+
Social code	+	+
Intellectual code	+	+
National code	+	-
Moral code	+	-
Physical education code	+	-
Religious code	-	-
	Geographic code	+
	Cultural code	+
	Technological code	+
	Economic code	+
	School	-

⁷ In the table, the symbol + indicates the code's existence in the relevant text and the symbol - its absence from it.

A	B	C
	education code	
	Emotional code	-
		Well-being code
		Learning code
		Environmental code
		Temporal code
TOTAL 8	TOTAL 13	TOTAL 12

Thus, based on the above table, we note that text A has eight codes (values code, professional code, social code, intellectual code, national code, moral code, physical education code and religious code), text B has thirteen codes (values code, professional code, social code, intellectual code, national code, moral code, physical education code, geographic code, cultural code, technological code, economic code, school education code and emotional code) and text C has twelve codes (values code, professional code, social code, intellectual code, geographic code, cultural code, technological code, economic code, well-being code, learning code, environmental code and temporal code).

Certain conclusions can be reached from the analysis data and Table 1 regarding the relationship between the three texts (A, B and C).

3. Conclusions

The analysis data have made it possible to identify the relationship between the three texts and to put forward certain parallel views.

First conclusion. The first relationship evident in Table 1 is that the three texts (A, B and C) intersect where their semantic codes are concerned, given that they have a common core of four codes (intellectual code, values code, professional code and social code), albeit with a different semantic content. The other codes do not at first glance appear to be connected in any way. We can thus define the initial relationship between the texts as $A \cap B \cap C$ (A intersect with B intersect with C) in a set Ω (where Ω is the set of all the elements comprising the term

education, a term with the potential to provide multiple semantic meanings).

Second conclusion. Taking another look at the relationship between the texts, based on the analysis, we could consider the terms *new paideia* and *new education* as synonymous in text C. In this case, text C can be examined:

- in terms of its equivalence to A, that is, $A \Leftrightarrow C$, since both texts describe the education ideal (*paideia*), and
- in terms of B being part of C, that is, $B \subset C$ (B is a subset of C)⁸.

The interest ratio of B to C concerns the exploration of the texts' differences in terms of semantic codes. What needs to be determined is B's difference in terms of the new elements in the new educational proposal, with regard to quantitative and qualitative aspects, in other words B's complement in C (Table 2).

Table 2: Comparative table of codes found in texts B and C and rate of participation in their reference set

Codes	B	C
Values code	31.0%	50.0%
Intellectual code	22.0%	2.5%
Social code	18.0%	15.0%
Cultural code	4.0%	2.5%
Economic code	3.0%	15.0%
Learning code	-	10.0%
Environmental code	-	5.0%
Physical education code	6.0%	-
Professional code	4.0%	-
National code	3.0%	-
Geographic code	3.0%	-
Religious code	2.0%	-
Emotional code	2.0%	-
School education code	1.0%	-
Technological code	1.0%	-
Moral code	-	-
Well-being code	-	-

⁸ Set A is a proper subset of B, or $A \subset B$, if and only if every element of A is an element of B, but there exists at least one element in B that is not an element of A. If set A is a subset of reference set Ω , then A's complement is all the elements in Ω which are not elements of A.

Codes	B	C
Temporal code	-	-
	100.0%	100.0%

Based on Table 2 above, of the group of eighteen codes included in the analysis:

- a. five codes are common to B and C (30.0% of the total number of codes), namely the values code, the social code, the economic code, the intellectual code and the cultural code,
- b. two codes are only found in C (15.0% of the total number of codes), namely the learning code and the environmental code,
- c. eight codes concern B (45% of all the codes), namely the national code, the professional code, the religious code, the emotional code, the school education code, the technological code, the physical education code and the geographical code and
- d. three codes are found neither in B nor C.⁹

There follows a presentation of the comparative (qualitative and quantitative) data of the five common codes found in B and C as well as a description of their semiotic mechanism.

- a. It is the values code that is mostly referred to in the two texts. In text B (30.0%), the values code is associated with: (i) intellectual values (progress, growth and development of the personality), (ii) values of justice (law), (iii) moral values (respect for human values, equality, ethics), (iv) social values (creativity, progress of society as a whole, freedom), (v) personal or professional values (cooperation, initiative, responsibility), (vi) humanistic values (love for one's fellow man, nature, the environment, friendship, humanism), (vii) political values (democracy, collective effort, constructive dialogue), (viii) religious values and (ix) national values.

⁹ These codes have however been linked to sub-chapters 1 to 5 of text C, which are not included in this table because they describe the current economic model in the world while sub-chapters 6 and 7 describe the vision of development through education and are presented here.

In text C, the values code is associated with: (i) material values (nutrition for all), (ii) biological values (health for all), (iii) intellectual values (cultivation of man's ability to control his development), (iv) values of justice (justice), (v) moral values (global ethics, respect for the natural environment), (vi) social values (collectiveness, contribution to social progress, racial equality, assumption of responsibility by all members of society), (vii) personal or professional values (cooperation, initiative) and (viii) values that determine quality of life (ecology). In addition to the per capita income index (economic values) and technological indices (intellectual values), new education will also have to take into account the environmental (global ethics), cultural (intellectual values) and ecological (environmental values) dimensions of the term *growth and development*.

We therefore note that the two texts incorporate a number of values. Their difference lies in the type of content as regards the values code and in their correlations. Text C differs from B in that it incorporates into its values system material and biological values (nutrition and health for all) — values that determine a nation's well-being — as well as other values, such as environmental ethics, economic values, cultural values and ecological values. Text B, too, has certain values that are not found in C, namely humanistic values, political values, religious values and national values, which stem from the particular (local) context and the relevant historical background.

It should be noted that text C's learning code is associated with the right of all people worldwide to education; it is also associated with education levels, research and innovation, as well as with knowledge, training, educators and the adaptability of education to society's needs. Education aims to activate the potential of today's and future human beings. It is proposed that human potential can be activated by incorporating a number of values in education.

We could therefore say that, where education is concerned, the semiotic mechanism in text C is oriented around values: *education (as everyone's right) + attributes (adaptability to society's needs) = values-based education (in order to activate human potential)*. The values orientation seems to be more significant than any other orientation when it comes to human development. If it is to solve the various social

issues that have arisen (unemployment, hunger, social inequalities, environment, resources), education will have to become flexible, adaptable and dynamic and will have to respond to local conditions so as to achieve democratic participation, eradicate poverty and unemployment, promote self-employment, foster self-awareness for the improvement of living conditions of future generations, promote survival as a passport to life, encourage new activities at the individual and societal level and enable social inclusion (social code: 1.5%). Education will have to be based on education (intellectual code: 2.5%), an education that is associated with numerous values concerning the survival of modern man and the following generations (values code: 50%).

Added to the above agglomeration of values in C is the environmental code (at 2.5%), which refers to humanity's living conditions being threatened as a result of the current economic model and to the consequences of the rate of development, industry and non-renewable energy sources. In other words, the semiotic mechanism identified refers to the following association: *education = values-based education = solution of social and environmental issues = human development*.

- b. The social code in text B (18.0%) is associated with humankind, democratic citizenship, harmonious social inclusion, the improvement of man's life, interpersonal relationships, life experience, balanced human development, behaviour as prescribed by the values system, the relationship between the individual and groups, as well as social characteristics such as descent, identity, race, sex, age and group (pupils). Where the social code is concerned, the difference between B and C is only evident in the correlations with other codes. In other words, B does not sufficiently link the solution of social issues to values-based education.
- c. The economic code in text B (1.0%) concerns man's improvement within the context of his cultural, social and economic life so that he may achieve balanced growth. In text C (15.0%), the economic code is associated with non-material investments and education rather than with what is currently

applicable in the world (global economy and wealth, unfair redistribution of productive surplus, competition and expenses, market inefficiencies and increased production, rise in GDP per capita, sales, capital and investments and economic modernization based on the current model of modern growth and development, growth rates, the relationship between education and development and the Asian growth and development model as a good example).

As regards the economy, the semiotic mechanism between B and C tends towards the following association: economy = investment in non-material values = investment in education = (balanced) human development. Previously an end in itself, the economy now becomes a means to an end in C, since it changes content and becomes associated with education. Text C somehow demonstrates a change in the content it had up until now in the current growth and development model, since without education there cannot be any growth and development or any solution of social issues.

- d. The intellectual code in text B is much more prevalent (22.0%) than in text C (2.5%) and also differs in content from the latter. The references in B concern the development of intellectual skills, mental cultivation, the recognition of social value and parity, literature and the arts, human psychosomatic powers, aesthetics, development, knowledge assimilation, verbal expression, knowledge and its acquisition, skills, capabilities, talents, interests, the ability to distinguish relationships and interactions, the ability to understand and express symbols, the cultivation of the senses, the organisation of actions, social concerns, language cultivation, mental development, the organisation of values into a system, relationship with the world around us.

In C, the intellectual code is associated with the broader view of man's development and his ability to control and organize his environment according to his needs. The semiotic mechanism in C can thus be expressed as follows as far as the intellectual code is concerned: intellectual code = code of values = human development =

man's ability to control and organize his environment according to his needs. In other words, text C focuses on human needs, which is not the case in text B. Man's recognition and control of his needs and his relationship with the environment are the incentive for his development, in other words, they constitute a relationship of self-awareness between man himself and the world around him.

Third conclusion. A third perspective of the relationship between the three texts identifies an equivalence between A, B and C, which tends towards a certain equilibrium (as regards the codes and their relevant semantic charge) that describes 'educated' man. In other words, it identifies an equivalence where $A \Leftrightarrow B$, $A \Leftrightarrow C$, but with different codes articulated in each case (B, C).

This view is based on the reasoning that each and every definition of the objectives of education tends to transform the ideal of education (*paideia*). More specifically, if we consider that the objectives of education reveal an era's level of self-awareness and its attitude to humankind's earlier cultural development and changes, then we could say that the objectives of education are constantly changing, and this transformation is progressing towards the development of an ideal, namely educated¹⁰ man. This means that given that the ideal reflects a specific world theory, a spherical perception of human existence with regard to an understanding of the meaning of human life (including the restrictions and capabilities of human existence in the world), then this perspective must be reflected in the objective of education and must undergo change (Παυλίδης 2006: 99-127).

Moreover, if we accept that: (a) the objectives of education embody a selective stance towards cultural assets and express broader social and moral ideals, (b) man's modern needs are the criteria by means of which cultural goods are selected and (c) education brings about change in individuals, its purpose being to enable individuals to achieve a desired future state in which people's perceptions of the content of a good life play an important role in

the education objectives set, then we can assume that every 'education objective' encodes, systematizes, brings into awareness and selects specific cultural goods (Παυλίδης 2006).

The above, in conjunction with the analysis data, lead to an investigation of the relationship between the four codes included in the objective of education (text A), namely the national code, the moral code, the physical education code and the religious code, which are not part of the common core of codes existing between B and C on the one hand and A on the other (first conclusion). Using more systematic terminology, we are led to think of the relationships between A on the one hand and B and C on the other being specified through transformation. From Table 1 we can deduce that there is a core of four codes that is common to A, B and C (values code, social code, intellectual code and professional code).

Within this context, when comparing the three texts, we observe that of the set of eight codes in A, as the basic core of education, the religious code is absent from B and four codes — the national code, the moral code, the religious code and the physical education code — are absent from C. The absence of the above codes from B and C may be an indication of their transformation or replacement with other codes, which can be justified by the different context of the texts. The transformation of the education ideal (as a constant, irrespective of context) into education objectives assumes different values, which indicates the flexibility with which vague concepts can be given semantic meaning depending on their frame of reference.

The equivalence between the three texts is not merely a general and abstract relationship; it assumes a very specific form owing to the relationships between the semantic codes. As we will see, these relationships are not neutral, but assume a more specific form (based on the above).

In fact, we observe that:

- a. the national code in text A (Greek) remains a national code in B (Greece, Greek), but changes to a geographic code in text C. In other words, the interest in a national territory in B becomes an interest in the international and global environment, which concerns the education of all the people in the world rather than only that of the

¹⁰ Evidently, the resultant outcome of the overall potential of education, in the manner that the Constitution defines it, is that man becomes educated, or learned (Παπανούτσος 1977: 98).

- Greeks.
- b. The moral code in text A remains a moral code in B, but becomes an environmental moral code concerning human respect for the environment as the heritage of future generations.
 - c. The physical education code in A remains a physical education code in B, but in C becomes a learning or cultural code. In other words, within a local context, the physical education code remains constant, but in an international context (text C) it is transformed or incorporated into two other codes, namely the learning and cultural codes.
 - d. The religious code in A, which is absent from B and C, has possibly been moved to the three texts' common core of codes and has become a code of values. This can be justified, since in an international sphere, which concerns humanity as a whole, a religious consciousness would be an obstacle. In other words, an international text (C) that concerns everyone would transform the religious code into a code of values. The above equivalencies show that the relationships between texts are truly relationships of transformation.¹¹

In this case we observe, based on the analysis, that the group of codes merged in texts B and C, in order to form an equivalence with A, is in fact different, as we can see in Table 1. The paradigmatic articulation of the above equivalence — $A \Leftrightarrow B$, $A \Leftrightarrow C$ — is therefore a qualitative keystone on which the codes of the definitions of education (B, C) are built in relation to the eight codes of the objective of paideia (A). The qualitative keystone reflects the ideological sphere of each context (local, international), as seen above. In other words, the codes participating in the articulation of the equivalence $A \Leftrightarrow B$ and $A \Leftrightarrow C$ are different in terms of the sets to which they belong, their

types of reference and the articulation between references. Otherwise, the paradigmatic articulation of the definition of the objectives of education in the two texts would be the same in both contexts (local where Greece is concerned and international where UNESCO is concerned).

The conclusions thus indicate the type of relationship between paideia and education (or the building of the relationship) in three different texts (A, B and C), based on the process of transformation of the objective of education (irrespective of context) into objectives of education. Thus, based on the above three conclusions, we cannot safely refer to just one relationship between the three texts. Instead, we must speak of three relationships that are specialized (based on different perspectives of the texts).

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¹¹ Moreover, Boklund-Lagopoulou (1980) notes that there is an ideological — restrictive — mechanism that determines the organization of texts. This mechanism is fundamentally socio-historical in nature, since there are social limits that prescribe what a social group can perceive and what it cannot. On the other hand, Kapsomenos (1996) states that when one pole of a relationship is synonymous with or equivalent to other terms, then that pole can be classified under a broader paradigm.

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WHAT SHOULD BE DONE TO MOTIVATE EMPLOYEES FOR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT?

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Abstract

The system of motivation of employees is a strategic issue and a constant theme in the policy of each organization. The school as a non-profit organization, motivation has special importance, but the way of its realization is different compared with profit organization. Successful management system of motivation leads to achieving better results, greater productivity, greater knowledge and more satisfaction among employees. Poor knowledge of the area and inadequate equalization of employees in the organization will produce demotivation, bad individual relations, indifference to work, and that would cause the appearance of a negative climate and culture in the organization.

Keywords: *motivation, professional development, management, teachers*

1. Introduction

By motivating employees to work within every organization is an essential task that brings greater efficiency, which is also the goal of a healthy organization. The problem of motivation is essentially a problem of mobilizing and directing energy toward goals (Chernetich, 1966).

The question is how to encourage people to high motivation and how to maintain their interest in the work. One of the assumptions for maintaining motivation is the continued successful operation of the organization and the results achieved, and all this as a result of the work of the employees themselves. Also, the organization should in large part meet the needs of the employees. Understanding the needs and wishes of employees and their alignment with organizational needs is one of the essential works of the organization in achieving organizational goals.

The second issue concerns the retention of employee motivation. Often staff includes despair and apathy towards work and therefore it is more likely to talk leader and to keep out of such crisis moments. Morality is linked to respect for the person by the leaders and that social welfare occupies the highest place in the hierarchy of human needs.

The system of motivation of employees is a strategic issue and a constant theme in the politics of any organization. The school as an

organization of non-profit type of motivation adds great importance, but the manner of its implementation is different than the profit.

Successful management of the system of motivation leads to the achievement of better results, higher productivity, greater knowledge and more satisfaction among employees. Poor knowledge of the area and improper leveling of the employees in the organization will produce demotivational and weak relations, indifference to work, and it will also be reflected in the appearance of bad climate and culture in the organization. It is required in organizations to constantly maintain exemplary communication, to establish good relations, to support innovation, creativity, an employee diversified and adapted to new situations, and it is the duty of every leader.

2. Motivation and why people differ in their motivation

In human psychology there is nothing more important and essential than the motives for people's actions, inaction and procedures. Motivation is a basic category in determining the character of the man, his social behavior directed to the proper organization and management of work processes, social life, training and education.

The origin of this word is from Latin. It means movement. In everyday life, motivation is fulfilled on the basis of three criteria:

- The objectives and reasons based on which people make their choice behavior and determine their own activities.
- Thought processes, based on which people perceive their needs, motives, interests, emotions, expectations, objectives, representations and based on that take decisions and self-evaluate its behavior.
- The social process in which a person changes the behavior of another.

All managers believe that employees should be attracted not only to join the organization, but also need to stay in it. And whether employees will remain it is a matter of motivation. Employees in work organizations need to carry out tasks that managers assign to them, and this requires motivation. Finally, when performing tasks it is required creative and

innovative behavior by the employees. That can only be achieved with motivation.

2. Theories of motivation

We present the theories of motivation to help in our understanding of motivation. Generally the theories can be divided into two major groups:

1. Content theories and
2. Procedural theories

The basic idea of the contents theories is that motivation is the result of the action of the internal factors that drive activity. These are human needs. They appear as a lack of something according to the socio-cultural environment. In the context of the content theories people feel happy, if to some extent meet their needs through everyday activities. Content theories consider the content of motivation as a need. People will be able to change the situation only if they understand that it will meet their needs.

The second group of theories of motivation includes procedural theories. The basic idea of these theories is that the motivation is caused by external factors. These are the conditions that cause pleasure, desire to compare, to analyze, to expect something to happen if you are taking any significant action. Procedural theories develop the thesis that, the attitude of people can successfully influence the performance and perception of feasibility expectations.

3. Factors that create job satisfaction

There are many factors that contribute to people to be satisfied with the work, and important factors are the following:

- work itself or a separate task;
- remunerations, including cash, but in any case not only these;
- conditions in the working environment and atmosphere;
- personal commitment to the profession;
- personal motivation, perceptions;

Work. Work as a factor, which causes pleasure; affects man and his motivation in the work process. This influence is felt through the contents of the work, through the totality of objects, tools and products that are produced. Challenges need to be connected to the quality of capability and knowledge that are

implemented, and it will create job satisfaction. Also, the requirements of people, interests, goals, innovation, character, age, gender, family environment, friends, colleagues and other factors have a positive impact on employees.

Remuneration. Of course the reward of money as a financial asset only enforces the external factor for pleasure. Herzberg states that lack of funds may cause unwillingness to work, but that money itself does not carry always a pleasure. People with higher payment and those who work the norm will be satisfied by money only a certain period of time, then job satisfaction will decrease. When the job satisfaction is reduced, it is best to apply higienical motivating factors according to Herzberg. Higienical factors are the ones without which it is impossible to talk about satisfying motivation. This group of factors which cause the motivation as the driving force according to Herzberg: an attractive job opportunity for professional development, progress, giving responsible tasks.

Commitment to the profession. Commitment to the profession or a particular task is a factor that causes job satisfaction. It is not a possible thing to do as it should be if you lack commitment to work. When commitment is high, then increased motivation leads to better results. Better results will be obtained if we increase the motivation of professional dedicated people, than if it has to do with those who are less committed. Professionally dedicated people who are motivated are able to check out their job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is important because it represents the individual differences of the subjects in the organization.

4. Motivation in education

From the point of view of the management of education, the phenomenon of motivation works best when the methods and ways of motivating people strengthen the desirable type of behavior. In this context, the motivation is applied in two ways:

1. Motivating the teachers
2. Motivating the students

4. 1. Motivating teachers and other teaching assistants in the teaching proces

Bearing in mind the importance of the teacher as the holder of the educational process in the school, as well as his collaboration with the school principal and associates in teaching is quite clear that the quality of school work will largely depend on the teacher's motivation.

Teachers and associates in teaching should be motivated through:

- Quality implementation of the educational process;
- Mentoring activities for which students show a particular interest);
- Participation in the planning process at the school level (educational institution);
- Participation in the establishment of specific goals;
- Further education;
- Participation in teams;
- Development of the institution through cooperation

Management level of a particular educational institution is important to lead, and if necessary, to prepare the status of teachers. Indicators of the status of the teacher as an individual within the institution (school):

- Salary (refer to various accessories basic salary);
- equipped classrooms with teaching resources, such as computers;
- Impact on development plans and providing additional education;
- Impact on setting specific goals;
- Delegating authority in the framework of the legal possibilities;
- Participation in various projects;
- Promoting school teachers through personal promotion.

4.2. Motivating the students

Motivation of the students is an important prerequisite for achieving better educational outcomes. The factors that motivate students are:

- Learning;
- for the respect of the school regime;
- Collaborative activities of particular interest to students who come from school (gifted students).

How to motivate students for the

aforementioned things?

Students learning can best be motivated by quality and modern teaching. For this purpose is necessary in the process of teaching for teachers to use active methods and forms of work with students in which the student is positioned as an active participant in the teaching, not as a passive listener and artist tasks. In addition, an important role plays the equipment of the school and the ability to use modern teaching aids and devices. Respect of the school regime, students will best be motivated if you provide a neat and tidy environment in the school, if you establish a climate of collaboration between students and staff in the school and if the school has built its own culture with norms, procedures, systems of values, beliefs and traditions. It also is very important to motivate students to participate in sections, clubs and free student activities. For this purpose it is important to establish a competitive edge within the school and to discover talented students.

Conclusion

Motivation of each individual to work in the school is very important for each director of the school, but to achieve it we need to build such relationships in the school, and it will provide motivation of each individual in the school for successful work. In addition, you should have in mind the status and role of each individual in the school.

From the aspect of management, it is important to create such conditions in particular, in terms of culture, for the individual to get a sense of belonging to the organization. If individuals have a sense of belonging to the organization (to their vocational area, occupation, actual institution), then management approaches the effect of synergy.

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BEFRIENDING WITH SCIENCE THROUGH THE COORDINATION OF METHODS

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Abstract

Our society needs not only to invite the young man in the natyral sciences, but more than that, to worm it with the science. Multiple tasks that will go on our way towards modernization of life in general, the path to becoming a developed country, should our young people to befriend add natural sciences and knowledge of physics in particular. Coordination the method of advertisements with the method of learning objectives, finding suitable acquisition of science by pupils and students. Results of this method to date in high school and college have been effective. The results achieved in our established belief that increasing the scientific level, the head of this subject must increase the level of training and update its methodology. After that young people not only will not stay away from the physics, by contrast, will increase interest and perhaps even love it. The article brings aid to pedagogy.

Keywords: *natural sciences, competition, learning objectives, subject, object*

1. Introduction

The title of this article causing curiosity but if you follow it with another question, why now, this problem arises, we see that time has become paramount necessity and physics learning problem, and not just of this science, but also the natural sciences in general.

If we cast a look at the forms of graduates for admission to university, notes that in the branches of the natural sciences there is very little not to say that almost no demand of quality students. Students with high scores in mathematics, physics and chemistry prefer such branches where natural sciences developed very briefly, or not developed at all.

Reasons for a cooling until such abandonment natural sciences in general and physics in particular are numerous, but one of them, which have the object in this article is to develop it into an incredibly dry, traditionalist, does not be attractive to the student and the student, happened to those she called his secret abandonment of the teachers of this subject. Observed even up and a lack of professionalism in the classroom at school.

We think it should be experimenting with new methods (Fisher, 2005) viable, that activate

student or the student's judgment and make physics not only accessible, but also more attractive from them. But how can we achieve this? Key to success in this regard is the use of those qualities innate to humans, which make it possible to mobilize all his mental abilities (Pettijohn 1996), in order to not only enter the beautiful world of the science of physics, but also try to solve those problems still outstanding.

Teaching and learning or self-learning are two sides of a coin; human intention to move forward, to adapt more and more nature in accordance with the needs of his life. This shows that teaching is not an end in itself, and therefore in the center of the classroom should be student or pupil, who must not only be active during the class, but they have to adopt in a creative way that, create habits needed to coordinate scientific concepts learned in school, achieve through abstraction derive (Korthagen 2010) independently solving problems and phenomena encountered in daily life and to create a worthy citizen for themselves and for society.

Achieving this ambitious goal undoubtedly requires the design of new teaching strategies, always competitive edge, contemporary building methods in accordance with the emotional, psychomotor and intellectual development of the student and the ongoing development of the whole society.

Selection and updating (construction) of a modern teaching method (Korthagen 2010), to be as close to reality demands study and evaluate better the final intent requirements of society, requires no doubt fulfill the three criteria of being a true scientific method by which realized assigned tasks:

- a. To be theoretically based. This means that no scientific arguments to prove in practice (Mejdani R.-Vevecka A. Etc., 1983), (Fisher 2005), which can serve as a theoretical basis to support the hypothesis origins of this approach.
- b. The experiment in advance. The experiment should be carried out in real conditions in accordance with the proposed method (Mejdani R.-Vevecka A. Etc., 1983), (Fisher 2005), (Korthagen 2010).
- c. On the basis of experimental data are given guidelines and recommendations for the most effective implementation of

the method (Mejdani R.-Vevecka A. Etc., 1983), (Fisher 2005), (Korthagen 2010).

The method we propose is that of coordination methods of teaching with the objectives of the competition method, which include small group discussion method together with the method of learning in collaboration (Musai 2003).

2. Theoretical support

It is known that by nature man inherits three qualities, which have made possible the development of human society at this stage where we have achieved.

1. Man owns a natural curiosity about world that surrounds us.
2. Man has not only curiosity to know the world, but also wish to change it at its best.
Thanks to the intelligence he aims to recognize the laws that control over the nature, use those laws to continually improve his living conditions.
3. A man has been constantly in competition with nature. He has always challenged the competition, winning step-by-step on the surrounding world. In this way he has conducted himself and the society in which he lives.

Can you ask someone: Yes, what entering these three qualities exactly a new method of learning physics? The answer is very simple. Everyone is eager to explain the simplest physical phenomena that observes every day and in addition would be "happy" if I was able to explain the phenomenon of "complicated" occur in makrocism (great world) and microcism. We all have experienced the pride front and teenage classmates when they could solve any problem whatever in front of others, and he praised the teacher.

Thus we can say that the competition is too strong feelings in humans. But to enter into competition with the only aim to win it must constantly prepare before her and sharpens all the senses thus strengthening the will and perseverance to reach his goal. It aims to achieve methods are proposing in this paper.

Known to turn this hypothesis is correct in theory, should it base to prove experimentally and theoretically the end to give

recommendations on its implementation in practice. As one of the most effective methods of learning in the subject of physics, but perhaps also in other cases, it is the method of teaching and learning objectives associated with the method of contests.

Using the method of competition, the race, in the case of physics at school or college, as a viable method in the teaching of this subject, is based precisely on three qualities mentioned above. The principle of the method is simple. Students, of the same level are included in competition with each other, awakening in them the desire to win. It is this desire to win makes them more aware, because no study can not be strong competitors during the formation of so tomorrow be.

Contests method is a method designed to be used in all categories of students, or students, but its successful implementation in terms of development as harmonious, despite the emotional load of a contest, as well as in terms of maximum benefit from their scientific knowledge, requires first and foremost a teacher with high level scientific and professional training.

This means that the teacher must have a satisfactory increase scientific and possess very good organizational skills and leadership class or group.

To reach up to the moment of the competition crossed at some stage. First, the leader prepares students and students with the idea of competition that they will develop at the end of the chapter, they have just begun. And he makes it clear how the development of the competition and how their grading.

It should be well understood by all that competition is the final point of a broader approach, more complex, methods of teaching and learning targets necessary. New methods of teaching based on the explanation of the learning or acquisition of speech by means of objectives, which included objectives necessary minimum, average and maximum objectives minimum necessary objectives to be achieved by 95% - 100% of participants.

Obviously this requires a large enough preparatory work by the directors, who must plan his day or preparedness seminar to mark all new concepts encountered in the teaching of the day. In addition to the necessary explanations for each concept, he must find possibly simple

examples to interpret these explanations.

At the beginning of the explanation of learning new teaching topic makes clear leader, which should significantly write on the blackboard or Smart Board. Then he writes the new concepts of learning and then notifies the student or students which are the three types of objectives, which will be explained in the same hour. Pupils or students have to write them in their notebook recording.

After that the director explains on providing concepts for each of their respective definition and illustrative example (Breithaupt 2000, Tipler 2007). He consistently makes logical connection between concepts using mathematical apparatus. This kind of teaching or development of the workshop should be seen as a phenomenon which refers to the content of teaching and learning. During this process, the students and the teacher or professor and student are co-authors of the class or workshop. In this type of teaching the teacher or instructor plays the role of leaders and organizers, and students actively participate in the classroom through questions, answers, repetition of words and formulations teachers to scientific laws or concepts back to the real actors hour learning.

So here we are following the leadership role as a teacher, but this method puts his position in a leading role and character of students makers. This method has not only meant the acquisition of learning by the students, but it is intended to teach them how to study, how to capture the essence of the problem, how to treat it and how to solve similar situations in the future. The aim of this approach is to guide the student towards the creation of knowledge, intellectual values, skills, and attitudes of its individual and group orientation. It should be noted that the orientation in the right way for each pupil or student during group work gives him the perfect opportunity to continually ways of communication and interaction with the group in particular and the wider community in general, which will need throughout life. Teaching methods with the minimum objectives is a method by methodical meets the criteria necessary to require the development of a class or seminar attractive, full of curiosities and overactive. Design maximum objectives necessitates a more professional job by the leaders, because it must not only possess very good case, but should know very well the

demands and opportunities of student learning or his students.

This method, being too focused on learning, gives up the subject participates in a very effective tool for learning. The method tells him how to reveal text or lecture unfamiliar scientific concepts, how to analyze them through examples in order to then pass on the final stage of knowledge, the understanding and form in to their even aligned with examples from the book to a higher stage illustrated by examples that are not in the book.

That such interpretation of this method makes it possible for it to align along the method of student-centered learning, the student, the method published today as a modern and highly productive method. Learning objectives makes learning more meaningful, more accessible by students, by dragging them in a natural way in discussing various issues of learning, thus making them active and associates all development learning process. In this case, the manager becomes a conductor class or seminar, harmonized reports generated within it, because orienting them with examples, exercises or simple laws of physics definitions, thus making the pupils or students fail to understand new concepts and furthermore formulate scientifically correct them.

Method of learning objectives is not an end in itself, because it aims not only in the acquisition of the object of the students (Riley&Sturges 1993). It is actually a very powerful method that teaches young high school students how to study, let alone students how to work with text and choose the path to follow for solving problems and exercises. Seen in a broader perspective, this method provides today's students, tomorrow's students and future employees together with researchers in the field of science, with the ability to distinguish from the myriad of problems of the day, of whatever nature, whether them, the essence of the problem, correct to interpret it and to make decisions as fair.

Method consistently predicts that after two or three classes the teacher or instructor must hold for 3-5 minutes a control task with questions about two or three minimum objectives which are addressed in past lessons or workshops. Good is average and maximum targets, which should reach students, to be checked in this way then and then.

When the chapter ends, participants are informed to prepare for the development of a short competition within the class or group, which takes place in this way: Teacher or lecturer divides into 2 or 3 groups of pupils or students with lower scores in physical and choosing a jury pupils have the best students, who will make and evaluate competitors. Further leader gives groups the relevant questions, whose answers are scored by the jury. Teacher or instructor plays the role of scientific leaders and intercedes for clarifications and additional. A culminating moment of the competition is one of a series of lightning questions, through which encouraged students and students habits of skill, concentration and sharpening intelligence (Korthager 2010). Then run groups each other questions, which have been prepared in advance. The nature of the questions and the manner of their formulation shows not only on the degree of mastery of subject matter, but also on the level of intelligence of the participants. It is this stage of the competition has the opportunity to show how skilled organizers are participants to abstract and interpret own examples, problems and implications of different laws of nature. Recognizing good skills of its associates, the leader must make individual questions each competitor. The response of each group met in the sum score.

At the end of the competition, the jury in collaboration with the teacher or instructor, evaluating and possibly groups of each competitor. At the end of the class or workshop conducted thus makes brief summary on the development of the educational and scientific activity and can also assess student grade or special students.

This type of competition may also take place between parallel classes. In this case you have to compete not only with students or student groups "weak", but also groups of students or students with good results. This type of contest encourages not only the desire to achieve good results in physics, but also evokes the love for it. Physics turns so a dry subject, abstract and more difficult, in an attractive subject, to quench their curiosity about the world around us, it made us very dear.

3. Experimentation

Experimentation as the method was carried out with pupils gymnasium "Themistokli Gërmenji", but was carried out with students math-physics course (master) in May 2009. In this course, students worked two chapters on basic physical concepts topics properties of condensed matter (Breithaupt, 2000), (Mejdani&Vevecka 1983), (Tipler 2007). Students were explained in detail everything that had to do with this topic. They were divided into three groups and were explained about the procedure of the competition and the fact that the answers given in the competition will assess for each point, the point that would be available for exam which in this case will take place in the form of this competition.

Each group was given two questions, which were evaluated with the relevant points. The result was satisfactory. Responses were complete, in most cases, and some of them were more extensive in content. This shows that the students were further deepened in the material that had to be prepared.

Bolt questions constitute the second group of control of student learning outcomes. This group is intended to highlight the skills and ability to quickly understand the question and the level of expression of the response in accordance with the scientific aspect of physical concept. The result was astounding. For all inquiries received prompt feedback from the three groups and the answers were correct.

Third stage of the competition had to do with questions of groups related to each other. This stage allows to judge about how deepened students to learn the material provided for the study. It was observed that the students not only had studied in detail the material, but correctly understood the basic concepts discussed in these chapters were dug into the specific aspects of it and found very interesting question, which really require a qualitative explanation specialized. Description of the questions as well as a sample of this kind that he addressed each other groups, only two of them did not answer.

Group individual questions showed that students as a whole had made a serious job. Only one student did not answer.

4. Analysis of the results

The result was astounding, but also to be expected, given the aforementioned qualities assessment of pupils or students and to complement this approach with all the elements it needs a new way of teaching and learning.

It is to be noted that 100% of students reached the minimum required objectives, which is expressed in the answers given by the students.

Another thing that was noticed was the feeling of competition with each other, regardless of was student "weak" or "good". Spirit of competition highlighted the desire of group work students' intention not to become a burden and even group to represent the group as worthy. Analysis of the results obtained shows that the content provided in this way was adopted at a satisfactory level students. Their responses showed a very good preparation, which should be evaluated with grade point average, and for some students on average.

Itself naturally arises: Is it possible to develop in such competitions school during school hours? How should their distribution? These opportunities exist because physics program, as well as all other materials, provides a certain amount of hours free. Often showy, many physics teachers use these free hours for sports and artistic activities, but physics does not help. So programmed excursions and talking to prominent physicists. Why are these activities just to gain knowledge or skills of physics do not apply? They serve only to supplement curriculum hours, without increase teaching quality, both in terms of teaching and learning it.

I think that the method of explaining the objectives and followed by competitions among students, fosters a desire to learn the subject matter of physics and even to be in love with her. This is precisely our goal. Do physics subjects attractive to students, preferred branch university, the basis for the development of our country's economy.

This combined approach may also yield other subjects, and not only in the natural sciences, but also wider.

5. Results

As more and more young people of our country are feeling the need of their formation, not only theoretical but also practical skills and habits on

the science of physics, which enables them not only to know, but to befriend and later to turn in order to improve life. Play a major role here and the methods used by teachers and professors.

Coordinate contests method with the method of learning objectives, we prove an appropriate findings and contemporary methodology for the acquisition of the science of physics and students. Results not delayed come and more to be strongly positive.

May be required, and after studying other methods and it will happen big step not only feel cold with this science of our young people, but quite the contrary. Should not grow weary in this regard.

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CREATING, IMPLEMENTING AND EVALUATING STORY- BASED LEARNING TEXT FOR TEACHING FRACTIONS

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Abstract

According to researchers, Children's literature is an effective tool for mathematics instruction because it incorporates stories into the teaching and learning of mathematics, furthermore introduces math concepts and contexts in a motivating manner, acts as a source for generating problems and building problem solving skills and finally helps build a conceptual understanding of math skills through illustrations. In addition, incorporating children's literature into the teaching of mathematics is vital to creating concrete conceptual understanding of abstract mathematic concepts. The present study outlines the theoretical framework that supports the idea of linking literature and mathematics for educational purposes and presents a text of children's literature created to promote the teaching and learning fractions in the fifth grade of primary school. The text entitled "Orpheus and Nefeli in Fractionland". Afterwards, the results of text's evaluation, conducted by teachers and students, are presented and analyzed. Teachers used, as an assessment tool, a rule with 16 criteria relating to literary and educational value of the text. Eventually, we present and analyze the outcomes from the instruction of the text to children of 5th grade.

Keywords: *literature and mathematics, story-based learning text, fractions' teaching*

1. Theoretical background

The use of children's literature to teach mathematics is becoming an increasingly common practice in elementary schools. The integration of mathematics and literature is logical since mathematics and literature have similarities in content and structure (Griffiths & Clyne, 1988). Kliman (1993) argued that the use of literature in mathematics' instruction can make the study of mathematics more meaningful and specific, while it provides a framework for increasing students' enjoyment and comprehension of literature.

The use of children's literature in mathematics instruction fosters all forms of communication. The NCTM resource Curriculum and Evaluation Standards for School Mathematics (1989) supports the integration of children's literature into the K-8 classroom

because, *“Many children’s books present interesting problems and illustrate how other children solve them. Through these books, students see mathematics in a different context while they use reading as a form of communication”* (p. 28).

Richard Lesh & Christy Larson (2006) in their article under the title *“The Power of Stories in Mathematics Learning & Problem Solving”* refer to the benefits arising from the use of stories in teaching mathematics.

They are stressing more specifically that:

- *First, we focus on learning and problem solving situations which are simulations of “real life” activities in which some significant types of “mathematical thinking” are needed. Consequently, students make sense of these situations based on extensions of their own personal “real life” knowledge and experiences; and, such knowledge tends to be organized around experience more than around abstractions.*
- *Second, such activities usually require students to go through a series of cycles in which they iteratively express, test, and revise (or reject) their existing ways of thinking; and, relevant ideas tend to be expressed using a variety of interacting representational media – which include not only written symbols, spoken language, and pictures or diagrams, but also experienced-based structural metaphors.*
- *Third, in realistically complex problem solving situations, where solutions often involve trade-offs (e.g., high quality but low costs), useful ways of thinking generally need to integrate ideas and abilities drawn from a variety of textbook topic areas. So again, useful knowledge tends to be organized around experience as much as around abstractions; and, stories tend to be useful for expressing such multi-topic and multi-media chunks of knowledge”* (p.1).

Children’s books can spark students’ imaginations in ways that exercises in textbooks or workbooks often don’t. Connecting math to literature can promote confidence for children who love books but don’t like mathematics. And students who already love math can learn to

appreciate literature in a whole new way. Key to the value of incorporating children’s books into instruction is making good choices about the books to use (Burns 2007).

The results of a study conducted by Hasley (2005) indicated that teachers play a significant role in evaluating the quality of children’s literature they use in their classroom.

Children’s literature may be used in many ways in mathematics’ instruction (Schiro, 1997, Welchman-Tischler, 1992). Schiro (1997) used literature for mathematical literary criticism and edited as a way to incorporate mathematics and literature from using literature as a springboard into mathematics activities. Welchman-Tischler (1992) proposed several ways to use literature as a part of a math lesson (e.g., providing a context or posing a problem).

Burns (2007) provides a general lesson plan for structuring math instruction around a children’s book. This includes: a) reading aloud, b) class discussion, c) introduction of the math connection and assignment of the math work to be done in class, d) class discussion for students to present their work and listen and respond to one another’s ideas and e) assignment of homework based on the lesson (if it is appropriate).

Findings of studies conducted in classrooms support the effectiveness of using children’s literature to promote mathematics learning. Specifically, researchers observed (Kliman 1993, Hong 1996, Burnett & Wichman 1997, Sriraman 2003 & 2004, Mitakidou & Tressou 2005):

- Improvement in student performance in mathematics
- Reduction of math anxiety
- Increase in the students’ ability to problems solve in real-life situations
- Creation of a positive classroom climate
- Development of more positive attitudes toward mathematics

We can not claim, however, that the use of stories in teaching mathematics can replace analytical thinking. However, it completes the analytical thinking because it helps students to develop their imagination, encourages them to formulate alternative interpretations and creates a learning environment in which the student engage voluntarily and spontaneously (Koleza, 2006).

2. Study

The purpose of this study is threefold: first to create a story-based text for fractions' instruction based on mathematics curriculum, second to implement it in a classroom and third to explore teachers' and students' views about it.

2.1. Creating story-based learning text for teaching fractions

The text entitled "Orpheus and Nefeli in Fractionland" and it was created to support the teaching and learning of fractions with emphasis on mental calculations.

We've selected fractions as the focus because research has shown that students have many difficulties with them. It is widely agreed that fractions form is an important part of mathematics Curriculum (Litwiller & Bright, 2002) supporting the development of proportional reasoning, and important for later subjects in mathematics, such as algebra and probability. However, it is clear that it is a topic which many teachers find difficult to understand and teach (Post, Cramer, Behr, Lesh, & Harel, 1993) and many students find difficult to learn (Behr, Lesh, Post, & Silver, 1983; Kieren, 1976; Streefland, 1991). Among the factors that make fractions difficult to understand are their many interpretations and representations (Kilpatrick, Swafford, & Findell, 2001). Moreover, generalizations that have taken place during instruction on whole numbers are responsible for students' misconceptions in fractions (Streefland, 1991). Post, Wachsmuth, Lesh and Behr (1985) argued that *"children's understandings about ordering whole numbers often adversely affect their early understandings about ordering fractions. For some children, these misunderstandings persist even after relatively intense instruction based on the use of manipulative aids"* (p. 33).

Our text is addressed to students of fifth grade. Students have an active role. They should help the heroes of story to escape the "land of numbers", where reigns a terrifying magician. It is a mathematical adventure in five episodes. Activities include: multiplying fractions, estimating sums of fractions, comparing fractions and placement of fraction on the number line.

The student, after giving the answer, is asked to describe in writing his way of thinking (metacognitive process). Writing fosters

community in a classroom and, as writing is a social act, it is a vehicle for students to learn more about themselves and others (Urquhart 2009). David Pugalle (2005), who works the relationship between language and mathematics learning, argues that writing supports mathematical reasoning and problem solving and assists students internalize the characteristics of effective communication. He suggests that teachers read student writing for evidence of logical conclusions, justification of answers and processes, and the use of facts to explain their thinking.

All possible solutions (conceptual and procedural) of mathematical problems are presented and analyzed at the end of the text. Moreover, extension exercises are designed and provided to be used for additional practice.

2.2. Evaluating story-based learning text for teaching fractions

2.2.1. Criteria for evaluating a story-based learning text for teaching mathematics

Regardless of their view of use of children's literature to teach mathematics, teachers need to examine the quality of the stories they select. Using stories to teach mathematics requires teachers to choose the books they feel offer the best qualities in both mathematics and literature (Hasley 2005).

Schiro (1997) described a procedure for assessing trade books in relation to a set of mathematical standards called *mathematical literary criticism*. In this framework, students are encouraged to discover their own problems and experience mathematics within the context of a story. Mathematical literary criticism involves students in four components:

1. Participating in both mathematical and literary experiences
2. Responding to to story and, the mathematics integrated in the story, and to quality of the presentation of both,
3. Reflecting on mathematical and literary concepts related to the book, and
4. Constructing an understanding of the book's mathematics and story, as well as viewing themselves as making critics and doing problem-solving (Hasley, 2005). Based on these components, Schiro has developed an instrument to measure the

quality of children's literature for mathematics instruction. Hasley (2005), in her inquiry, used this instrument to examine the trade book recommendations of three second-grade mathematics textbook publishers. In our research we used the same instrument since we added another seven criteria from a pedagogical, didactical and literary point of view.

2.2.2. Teachers evaluate the text

An evaluation sheet (table 1) was created for the book "Orpheus and Nefeli in Fractionland" on a Likert scale. For each of these criteria, teachers

rated the book as excellent, good, average, fair, or poor using the Likert scale of 5-1 respectively. Fifty teachers (34 women and 16 men) read and evaluated the book. Ten of them were interviewed by a researcher about positive and negative elements of the book. Average years of their service was 14,7. Seventeen teachers (34%) were holders of a master degree.

Scores for the eighteen mathematical standards ranged from an average of **4.4** to an average of **4.74**. Average scores are presented in Table 2. Results are listed in rank order for each of the standards. The overall average is **4.6**.

Table 1: Evaluation sheet

Nr	Schiro's (1997) Standards for Assessing Mathematics in Children's Literature as they were used in inquiry of Hasley (2005)
1	Is book's mathematics correct and accurate?
2	Is book's mathematics effectively presented, including relevant mathematical?
3	Is book's mathematics worthy of being learned?
4	Is book's mathematics visible to the reader in texts and illustrations?
5	Does the book present an appropriate view of mathematics as enjoyable, useful, active, creative, and accessible?
6	Is book's mathematics developmentally and intellectually appropriate?
7	Does the book involve the reader in its mathematics?
8	Does the book provide the information needed to do the math (e.g. clear instructions, materials, answer key)?
9	Do the book's story and mathematics complement each other?
10	Does the book facilitate readers' use, application, transfer, and generalizations of mathematics?
11	Does the book balance necessary resources to help readers benefit from the book's mathematics (e.g. time, effort, money)?
Additional standards¹	
12	Is the book free of gender, ethnic, and socioeconomic bias?
13	Is the book free of negative patterns?
14	Is the book linguistically correct?
15	Has the book an interesting plot with strong elements of surprise and reversal?
16	Does the book's mathematics correspond to the teaching objectives?
17	Does the presentation of mathematical concepts follow the principles of discovery and inquiry learning?
18	Does the book utilize student's prior knowledge?

¹ These criteria were added by the researchers

Table 2: Average Scores for Mathematical Standards

Nr	Text	Text
1	Story and math complement each other	4,72
2	Math is correct and accurate	4,5
3	Text involves readers in its mathematics	4,6
4	Math is developmentally and intellectually appropriate	4,68
5	Math is visible in the text and illustrations	4,56
6	Math is worthy of being learned	4,44
7	Book presents an appropriate view of math	4,7
8	Book facilitates application, transfer, and generalization of math	4,4
9	Book provides enough information to do the math	4,68
10	Book provides resources to help reader benefit from math	4,54
11	Math is presented effectively (relevant math ideas and relationships)	4,6
12	Book is free of gender, ethnic, and socioeconomic bias	4,56
13	Book has an interesting plot with strong elements of surprise and reversal.	4,68
14	Book is linguistically correct.	4,66
15	Book is free of negative patterns	4,74
16	Book's mathematics correspond to the teaching objectives	4,52
17	The presentation of mathematical concepts follows the principles of discovery and inquiry learning	4,64
18	Book utilizes student's prior knowledge	4,62

The study applied content analysis techniques to transcripts of interviews in an attempt to discover positive and negative elements of the book.

Categories that emerged from content analysis for each question are:

A. Positive elements of the book

■ **Interesting plot (six references)**

T4: *"The plot of the story is interesting. Interesting is the reversal at the end, namely that all turn a dream..."*

■ **Accessible and familiar heroes (four references)**

T4: *"Story's main characters are a boy and a girl. They are fifth graders as students. This favors students' identification with protagonists and encourages their involvement in problem solving".*

■ **Original activities (three references)**

T3: *"In my opinion, activities are novel and interesting ... there is a variety that*

does not tire student".

■ **Humor (three references)**

T9: *"It's funny and causes pleasant feelings to children..."*

■ **Correct use of language (three references)**

T5: *"It is a well written book. It uses Greek language correctly"*

■ **Presentation and analysis of all possible solutions (two references)**

T2: *"The solutions of the exercises are given in a simple and understandable manner for students. Also, because all possible solutions are given, student understands that a problem can be solved in many ways".*

■ **Metacognitive dimension of the learning process (two references)**

T1: *"It is interesting that students are asked to describe their mode of thinking. Whenever I do it in classroom (orally or in writing), results are very positive. I*

understand how my students think and which the reasons for their mistakes are”.

■ **Positive role models (two references)**

T2: *“In my opinion, book, apart from mathematics, teaches cooperation, emulation and altruism”.*

■ **Flexibility (one reference)**

T3: *“Book is flexible. If teacher wants, can change numbers ... and make it easier or more difficult ... depending on level of students ...”*

B. Negative elements of the book

■ **Gender Bias (two references)**

T4: *“Men have a leading role in all the activities, the magician is a man, and in the morning the mother awakens Orpheus to go to school”*

■ **Deficits in illustration (two references)**

T5: *“Illustration is ... somewhat ... poor ... well ... not so professional ... although, I liked some images very much”.*

■ **Non progressive difficulty of activities (one reference)**

T8: *“I think it would be better to have a progressive difficulty with exercises. If exercises went from the easiest to the hardest, we would have a clearer picture of student performance”.*

■ **Absence of introductory note for teachers or parents (one reference)**

T7: *“I would like to see an introduction*

with directions for teacher or parent ... a page ... no more...”

2.2.3. Students evaluate the text

The sample consists of ten students (6 girls and four boys). Five of these are fifth graders and the other five are sixth graders. Students were given a week to read the book. Using a questionnaire with 10 closed-ended questions and two open-ended, we explored students' view about book. The questionnaire covered the following themes:

- Students' attitude towards reading extracurricular books
- Students' attitude towards mathematics
- Students' opinion about the book “Orpheus and Nefeli to Fractionland”
- Students' opinion about story's effectiveness in understand fractions
- Positive and negative elements of the book

Student's responses are presented in the following tables:

Table 3: frequency of extracurricular reading

Answer	Students
At all	2
Rarely	4
Often	2
Very often	2

Table 4: Students' responses

	Very much	Much	Moderately	Little	At all
1. Students' attitude towards mathematics	3	3	2	2	0
2. Students' opinion about the book “Orpheus and Nefeli in Fractionland”	6	3	1	2	0
3. Students' opinion about story's effectiveness in understand fractions	6	3	1	2	0

We see that even students who do not like mathematics and do not read extracurricular books, however they express a positive view of story.

According to students' opinion, plot and humor are the positive elements of the story. A

student says: *“I liked that we read the story with my dad and we solved the problems and laughed ... Usually, when I study mathematics with my dad, I'm bored, daddy gets angry and we argue”*

The answer of a schoolgirl demonstrates attachment to procedural knowledge regarding

the instruction of fractions: *"I liked that all solutions are given. I could not imagine that you can give some solutions without paper and pencil. At school, we just make fractions homonymous"*.

2.3. Implementing story-based learning text for teaching fractions

Two student teachers from the Faculty of Education of the University of Western Macedonia teach mathematics using the text. This was part of their internship. Teaching was carried out in a fifth grade class in school of Florina. Its duration was two teaching hours. Student teachers had a full lesson plan, PowerPoint with story's pictures and worksheets.

Using a questionnaire with 6 open-ended questions, we explored student teachers' view about their experience. Specifically, the following research questions were raised:

1. Did literature contribute to a positive climate in the classroom? If so, how?
2. How image projection assisted in teaching?
3. Did story's using contribute in students' involvement?
4. How effective was the material used in this teaching (Power Point, worksheets)?
5. Did story's using contribute to the achievement of objectives? If so, how?

From the content analysis conducted, the following conclusions arise:

- **Story's contribution to a positive climate in classroom**
S.T.1: *"According to the class teacher, and as we saw when we visited the class, there were disciplinary problems. However, during the instruction, students attended the story with full attention and unflagging interest. Importantly, there were no disciplinary problems"*.
- **Images' contribution to an effective teaching and learning environment**
S.T.2: *"Image projection contributes to unflagging attention of students and their personal involvement because it created an empathy condition. Story "came alive" through the representational power of images."*
- **Story's contribution to students'**

involvement

S.T.1: *"All students involved in the learning process and they were willing to propose solutions to help Orpheus and Nefeli"*

- **Effectiveness of teaching material (Power Point, worksheets)**

S.T.2: *"Material was clearly handy and complete. Power Point and worksheets are a complete instruction and, in my opinion, excellent teaching transformed"*.

- **Story's using contribution to achievement of objectives**

S.T.2: *"In my opinion, story's using was exactly the means to achieve learning outcomes. Story's action "pushed" student' thinking to solve the problems. Students' desire to hear the end of story turned into mathematical thinking"*.

At the end of the lesson, students were asked to express their views in writing about teaching. The vast majority of students expressed a positive view. Indicatively:

- S1: *"I liked the lesson very much. But I do not like math"*
S2: *"I really like this lesson. It was not boring at all"*.
S3: *"I liked the lesson very much, although I do not like math. I like it because we traveled in a fairytale. It was amazing that in the end everything was a dream"*.

3. Conclusions

The first purpose of this study was to create an objective centered story-based learning text for teaching fractions. Text's creating was based on mathematics curriculum considering the difficulties experienced by students in understanding fractions and the many misconceptions they hold. The second purpose was to assess the text's quality. Because research has indicated that teachers play an important role in assessing the quality of the children's literature they use in their classroom (Hasley 2005), we asked fifty teachers to evaluate the text. The results indicate that teachers' attitude towards story-based learning text for teaching fractions, as it emerges through the scores they gave, is very positive. Also, students who read the text and students who attended the

experimental teaching expressed a positive opinion. It is interesting that even students who do not like math said that they liked the text and experimental teaching.

Teacher's rating indicates a balance between the literary, mathematical and pedagogical quality of the text. This balance was a challenge, since we aimed at creating a non-dimensional text. Children's literature offers a wonderful vehicle for helping teachers teach mathematical concepts in an effective manner. Thus, both the mathematical and literary quality of the text is required.

The fact that the text got mostly positive reception from teachers and students highlights the need to create texts that support the teaching and learning mathematics, since very few trade books with mathematical content are available in Greek.

Finally, the third purpose was to implement the text in a classroom in order to ascertain its effectiveness as a teaching tool. The student teachers, who taught mathematics using the text, reported that literature has helped to create a positive climate in the classroom and attracted the students' interest.

The results of this study are consistent with the overall literature's findings that indicate that children's literature is an effective tool for teaching mathematics.

4. Limitations and suggestions for future research

In this study we limited ourselves to confirm that teaching mathematics through children's literature can improve students' dispositions toward mathematics. The effects of text's using on mathematics achievement not investigated in the present study. Future research could provide a decisive answer. Also, the investigation of profile of students who might benefit most from the use of stories in teaching mathematics, could be a research question for future research.

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EXAMINATION OF STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD THEIR PARTICIPATION IN ENVIRONMENTAL ACTIVITIES IN SCHOOLS (COMPARATIVELY RURAL - URBAN ENVIRONMENT)

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Abstract

Ecological education is gaining importance at the time when environmental crisis is getting wider and wider. Education is one of the most powerful resources of society in dealing with problems and challenges of the future.

The paper presents results of research related to students' attitudes about the activities they would prefer to engage in, which independent variables their willingness to engage depends on, and how the knowledge that students possess and their willingness to engage in ecological activities are related. The survey was conducted on a sample of 324 seventh grade primary schools students in urban and rural areas, including polluted and unpolluted environments, from urban (180 students) and rural areas (144 students). The sample of students was adjusted according to two criteria. The first criterion was the place where students live so we took into account the urban and rural areas; the second criterion was the level of pollution, i.e. non-contamination of the environment in which students live. The structure of the sample of students was presented with respect to gender, place and environment in which students live.

Results indicate that students are more interested in activities that occur in nature where they are direct participants and they have a subjective feeling of really doing something to protect the environment. In addition, the results show that girls from both samples and students from the country (rural areas) are more willing to engage in environmental activities. Life in polluted and unpolluted environment is not a statistically significant variable that would affect the willingness of students to engage in these activities.

Keywords: *ecological education, nature, descriptive method, urban and rural areas, students*

1. Introduction

At the end of XX and the beginning of XXI century humanity is faced with the fact that the expansion of needs and consumption patterns, techniques and technologies, as well as of such rapid wear and uncontrolled exploitation of natural resources led to the disruption and distortion of the relationship between nature and man. Studies have shown that disrupting the

ecological balance, especially when taking into account the increase in all forms of pollution, endangered people's health and the quality of life. In order to bring about significant changes in the views of people, it is necessary to offer them knowledge, facts and information that will influence the development of their environmental awareness. In this regard, environmental education has an important role. Education, either academic or extra curricular, is necessary if we want people to change their attitudes and comprise and resolve issues related to the environmental crisis and sustainable development (Conseil des ministres de l'Éducation, 1999). Man's actions in his environment are directly related to the knowledge he possesses and which is the function of certain behaviors. Timely and adequately designed environmental education today is an essential investment of mankind into future life.

Ecological education should be based on global, holistic and systematic principles. The basic concept of reality is based on the fact that all phenomena and processes on our planet interact and are mutually conditional, that every action produces a reaction, and that in a set of living systems these reactions are not always entirely predictable. In addition, each individual phenomenon, all processes and relationships on the Earth are directly affected by each person whose actions change the environment and disturb more frequently and intensely the natural equilibrium. Everyone must understand and accept responsibility for one's lifestyle and individual impact on the planet Earth. Understanding of personal responsibility and transfer of this knowledge to students is one of the most important tasks of ecological education.

Farmer et al. (2007) point out that environmental education is a process that attempts to increase understanding of the environment and to promote ecological values. The goal is to motivate the citizen/student to act both individually and collectively and to encourage environmentally conscious behavior that balances social, economic and environmental needs of present without compromising the needs of the future (reference is needed from Brutland).

The ultimate goal of environmental

education is to produce environmentally educated and responsible citizens, or someone who can make decisions that will curb environmental problems which are increasing in the new century (Knapp, 2000). As defined by UNESCO, environmental education aims to develop an environmentally responsible citizen who has the knowledge, skills, attitudes, motivation and ability to work individually and collectively toward solutions of contemporary problems, while also preventing the formation of new ones (Zak and Munson, 2008).

When we place the so formulated goals in the context of school, the goals of environmental education are:

- that students, in line with the achievements of modern science and practice, acquire basic knowledge of the human environment and the processes that threaten it;
- for students to develop awareness of the importance of the protection, preservation and improvement of environment;
- to actively engage students in solving practical problems in protecting and improving the living environment.

Ecological education should enable students to express their personal views and ideas regarding their responsibility to learn the procedures that others perform to improve the environment, and to apply these ideas and actions in their own lives. Students must be encouraged to develop values that will be beneficial both to them as individuals and to society as a whole. They must understand that it is not possible for people to manage nature, because nature is stronger than man and man's survival depends on nature. Students must also be aware that we cannot solve all environmental problems by technical means. Environmental problems will have to be solved with sincere understanding and appreciating of the relationship between man and nature. Aesthetically, value and emotional contents can be helpful in conveying these ideas to students. It is necessary to present a healthy and positive way of life (Shapiro and Pilsitz, 1995). It is important that environmental education is basically positive, that it gives hope and offers solutions. If we focus too much on environmental disasters, it can be frustrating for

students.(references??)

Ecological education is a complex and lengthy process. Concrete results can be visible only after several years, but the process should last throughout all levels of education, from kindergarten to university. It is known that children of younger ages (3 to 6 years) have a strong sense of ecological and environmental awareness developed, but they later lose it under the influence of modern technology, consumer-oriented way of life and urban environments. It is therefore necessary to start with environmental education from pre-school and implement it throughout the educational process. In addition to the direct impact of environmental education on children and youth, the direct impact of children's parents is also very important. This makes the benefit of ecological education multiple (Shapiro and Pilsitz, 1995).

Within the frames of their interest in environmental issues educators are particularly focused on the formation of ecological consciousness, the change in environmentally undesirable behavior of young people, on the adoption of new habits at the micro level, and the construction of ecological culture. Ecological education should provide the knowledge, habits and feelings that will contribute to the development of environmental consciousness and thought, to the development of emotional, moral, aesthetic and legally regulated behavior toward the environment. The task to be realized is the development of environmental responsibility and the encouragement of behavior that is compatible with environmental laws, nature, its protection and preservation (Nikolic, 2003).

Along with the development of ideas about the importance of ecological education of children and young people in the world, particular attention is paid to systematic environmental education of teachers (educators, teachers, professors and research assistants). Teacher education in the area of ecology and the environment has become a top priority since the end of the 20th century. Since then, according to Van Petegem et al. (Van Petegem, An Blicke-Boeve and De Pauw, 2007), teachers and pedagogues have become more aware of the role they must play in the conceptualization of the contents of the environment and in

developing a cognitive framework of students concerning environment. Based on this, new theories and teaching techniques have emerged for applying skills and strategies of translating education about the environment into practical contents and contexts (Ballantyne, 1995). So, both in our country and in the world, the teachers were unaware of the importance of such contents.

Activities organized by the teacher in the classroom are primarily related to the students' listening in order to acquire new knowledge, for repetition and practice. The teacher can implement a particular content from the curriculum outside the classroom. For teaching environmental contents it is best to take the students outside into the nature however, environmental contents can also be covered in computer centers, libraries, museums, national parks etc. All these places allow students to explore nature, to explore and actively learn about the properties of certain plants and animals by using the Internet, in libraries or museums, to learn about the latest discoveries, laws and obligations concerning the protection of the environment. However, some knowledge of nature, its phenomena and resources, should be gained by means of direct experience.

Many authors emphasize the importance of experiential learning and research has shown positive results and the significance that experience has in environmental education and education of students.

In addition to school activities, extracurricular activities (excursions, outdoor schools, recreational classes, and visits to social institutions) are highly significant for environmental education (references). It is important to emphasize that just because some of the activities are carried out outside the school premises it does not necessarily mean that they are not coordinated with facilities provided by the curriculum. Extracurricular activities are an opportunity for students to get out of the school and gain knowledge and experience in the natural environment.

Extracurricular activities provide a wide range of options for processing environmental content. For this reason, they are extremely important for students' environmental education. The biggest advantage of extracurricular activities is that students do not

perceive learning as a pressure and they are exempt from the formalities which classroom teaching carries. One of the basic requirements of ecological education is that the nature and the environment are experienced rather than formally learnt. Formal learning itself often has no effect on attitudes, habits and behavior of individuals, and learning of environmental content must have exactly such effects.

According to some authors (Harvey, 1993), richer collaboration and communication between students, teachers, parents and other subjects in the local community contributes to better environmental planning and programming activities and the development of interests of children and adults in environmental issues.

2. Research Methodology

In the literature, the view that environmental education should be concentrated on the development of appropriate attitudes prevails. In this study we try to relate all the three segments of environmental awareness: attitudes, knowledge and action. In this context, the study has three objectives:

1. to test students' attitudes about the kind of environmental activities they would prefer to engage in;
2. to determine whether students' readiness for engagement depends on the set of independent variables (gender, urban / rural area, polluted /unpolluted environment);
3. to examine the relation of the knowledge the students possess and their willingness to engage in environmental activities.

The study sample consisted of 284 eighth grade students of primary school (urban area – "Vanco Prke" - 179 students and rural area - 105 students – primary school "Straso Pindzur" in village Sokolarci. The sample of students was adjusted according to two criteria. The first criterion was the place where students live, so we took into account the urban and rural areas, and the second criterion was the level of pollution, i.e. non-pollution of the environment in which students live. The structure of the sample of students was presented in relation to gender (Table 1), place and environment in which students live (Table 2).

In this study, we used the descriptive method of research. For data collection, we used two research techniques: testing and interviewing. Both techniques were accompanied by relevant instruments: anonymous Test for students and questionnaire for students.

3. Research results

Student questionnaire contained four questions pertaining to the involvement of students in environmental activities at school. When asked whether they participated in environmental activities, the highest percentage of students (37.7%) responded: *sometimes*. Almost the same percentage of students said they *often took part* (20%) and that they *did not participate* (19.7%) in environmental activities. However, the most alarming statistic is that 22.6% of students responded that *there were no environmental activities in their school*.

The percentage of students taking part would probably have been higher if they had the opportunity to engage in such activities. We asked students which of these activities were most interesting for them. Most students (66.5%) said that organization and maintenance of green areas around the school, forestation and planting of plants were the most interesting activities. We can see that students think that the most interesting activities are those that primarily take place in nature and where they are direct participants. Likewise, these activities give students a sense of doing something useful for nature, for its protection and for the improvement of the quality of life. Table 4 presents the responses of students to this question. Students mentioned actions to collect paper, glass and other recyclable materials as the least interesting activities. Contrary to the expressed interests of students, activities related to collecting secondary materials for recycling are the most frequently organized in schools. Usually, these activities in schools are organized by non-governmental organizations. They do not expect significant participation on the part of teachers, and students are also not very active in them. Their only task is to throw waste paper or bottles into a container placed in the school yard. The benefit of this activity is due to material resources that schools receive for

collecting recyclable materials. These funds are earmarked spending for various extracurricular activities and for equipping the school. However, the results we obtained point to the conclusion that students' interests are not taken into account when planning these activities. Unfortunately, teachers are often not prepared to respond to the needs and interests of students. The first step to a successful environmental education is to familiarize students with environmental contents and arouse their interest in the issues of environmental protection.

Table 1: Participation of students in environmental activities at school

Do you take part in environmental activities organized in your school?		
I often take part	57	20
I sometimes take part	107	37,7
I do not take part	56	19,7
There were no such activities in our school	64	226
Total	84	100

Interesting results on the willingness of students to engage in the work of the environmental movement in school and in the activities of cleaning river banks or cleaning forests (Tables 3 and 4). In both cases, about 40% of students answered that they would take part in any of these actions should they schoolmates be included also. These results suggest that students see their peers as an important factor of their own involvement in environmental activities. Peers can be considered as an important resource for including more students in environmental activities. We believe it is necessary to educate students about environmental issues so that they continue spreading their knowledge and including their friends in these activities.

Table 2: Pupils' attitudes about the most interesting environmental activities

Which of the listed activities seems most interesting to you?		
Organization and maintenance of green areas around the school	131	46.1
Actions of a forestation and planting of plants in the wider environment		
Exhibition of photographs, drawings and literary works on the subject of endangering and protection of the environment	39	13.7
Monitoring and recording of events that endanger the environment	18	6.3
Organizing discussions and debates on the vulnerability and protection of the environment	15	5.3
Collecting paper, glass and other recyclable materials	13	4.6
No answer	10	3.6
Total	284	100

Table 3: Willingness of students to engage in the activities of the Environmental Movement

If an environmental movement was formed in your school that advocated for environmental protection, would you be willing to get involved in the activities of that movement?	f	%
No, I would not be interested in it	41	14.4
Yes, provided that my friends engage too	128	45.1
Yes, very willingly	115	40,5
<i>Total</i>	285	100

Table4: Willingness of students to engage in a voluntary action

If your school would organize a voluntary action of cleaning a river bank or cleaning of a forest, would you engage in that action?	f	%
No, I would not be interested in it	39	13.7
Yes, provided that my friends engage too	120	42.3
Yes, very willingly	124	44
<i>Total</i>	285	100

In this study we wanted to determine whether there are differences by gender, place and environment in which students live and the success of the knowledge test and the willingness of students to engage in environmental activities. We measured readiness for engagement by the average score of student responses to three questions:

- Do you participate in environmental activities organized in your school?
- If in your school an environmental movement was formed that advocated for the protection of the environment, would you be willing to get involved in the activities of the movement?
- If your school organized a voluntary action to clean a river bank or a forest, would you join the action?

Differences by gender and students' readiness for involvement were tested by t-test for independent samples. The results showed that there are differences between the sexes and that girls are more willing to engage in ecological activities (Table 5). Greater willingness to engage in ecological activities is also shown by females in the research conducted by Miskovic (1997).

Table 5: Willingness of students to engage depending on the sex

Sex	N	AS	SD
Male	157	5.81	1.85
Female	127	6.40	1.74

$t = -2.689$, $df = 282$, $Sig. = .008$

Differences by place where students live and willingness to engage were tested by t-test for independent samples. The results showed that there are differences and that students who live in villages are more willing to engage (Table 6).

Table 6: Willingness of students to engage depending on location (rural-urban)

Location	N	AS	SD
Rural	105	6.55	1.81
Urban	179	5.83	1.82

$t = 3.454$, $df = 282$, $Sig. = .001$

The difference between locations (rural - urban) and the willingness of students to engage in environmental activities was also examined in other studies. (Stavreva Veselinovska, S. 2005). Practical engagement in the protection and care of wildlife is most prominent in rural, then in suburban, and at least in urban areas. As an explanation for this fact, the author Stavreva

Veselinovska, S, states that for the respondents from rural areas primary socialization took place in conditions of ecologically cleaner environment and they are therefore more willing to engage in activities aimed at protecting and promoting of that environment. According to the survey, respondents from the country are more willing to participate in environmental protection activities.

We believe that life in the country does not exclusively mean living in an ecologically cleaner environment. We believe that rural areas can have a positive impact on students in terms of students' relationship with the natural environment. Students from villages are more in position to gain experience in nature, learn about nature and understand natural processes. We also believe that the closeness the students living in villages have with nature is an important reason for their greater willingness to participate in environmental protection activities. In addition, the explanation for the greater willingness of students from villages to engage in environmental activities can be found in the fact that children in rural areas show greater readiness for all types of group activities. In rural areas in FYROM sensitivity for joint work is traditionally developed. On the other hand, the urban environment alienates people and students from urban areas do not have the desire and the habit of participating in joint activities.

Table 7: Average value on the test in relation to location (rural-urban)

Environment	N	AS	SD
Rural	105	19.4	5.33
Urban	179	21.94	5.30

Students from the city have achieved better results on the test, which means they have more knowledge and information but they were nevertheless less willing to engage. The question is why we got such results. One would think that, based on the knowledge they possess, students have the desire to both engage in environmental protection and to prevent further development of the ecological crisis. However, as results show, knowledge and experience that students gain through life in the country and in villages are a much stronger incentive to engage than the

knowledge that students acquire in school and from various (non-natural) sources.

It was expected that students with greater knowledge of ecology would have a desire to become active in environmental protection, but this association has not been confirmed by any research. The difference between the environment in which students live and their readiness for engagement was tested by t-test for independent samples. The results showed that there was no statistically significant difference in willingness to engage between students who live in polluted and unpolluted environment (Table 8).

Table 8: Willingness of students to engage depending on the environment

Environment	N	AS	SD
Polluted	153	5.89	1.87
Not polluted	131	6.30	1.77

$t = -1.858, df = 282, Sig. = .064$

However, we expected that students from polluted areas would be more willing to engage and to do something to reduce pollution of the environment in which they live. Unfortunately, no study in the literature that we analyzed, does not give pollution and non-pollution of the environment as an independent variable, so we are unable to confirm or deny such a fact with the findings of other research. As was the case with the previous independent variable, it would be interesting to compare the data obtained by linking the environment in which students live and students' achievements on the test with the willingness of students to engage in environmental activities.

Table 9. Average value at the test in relation to the environment

Environment	N	AS	SD
Polluted	153	21.62	5.27
Not polluted	131	19.68	5.67

$t = 2.911, df = 282, Sig. = .004$

Although students from polluted areas showed a higher level of environmental knowledge and awareness, they did not appear to be more prepared for involvement in environmental activities than their peers in unpolluted environment. Despite the knowledge

and information they have, as well as the fact that they live in a polluted environment, students from such areas are not more willing to engage in environmental activities. On the other hand, students from non polluted areas have a lower level of environmental knowledge and information. However, even though they live in an environment that is not polluted, these students show the same willingness to engage in ecological activities as students from polluted areas. Our expectations that students from polluted areas will show greater willingness to protect and improve the environment in which they live, have not been confirmed.

4. Conclusion

The main objective of ecological education is to develop students' environmental awareness, which does not include only a determined level of awareness of individuals or social groups, but also a high level of practical activities on individual and societal level. The components of environmental awareness are: *environmental knowledge*, *environmental attitudes*, *environmental values* and *environmental behavior*. All the four components are interrelated and conditioned. Environmentally desirable behavior is not possible without knowledge of the laws of nature, the causes of environmental crisis and possible solutions. The knowledge that an individual acquires gives him/her an opportunity to see his/her place, role and responsibilities related to the environmental protection and improvement of quality of life. Thereby a positive attitude and positive feelings towards nature are encouraged. Likewise, based on knowledge they possess, individuals develop a value structure that is consistent with ecological principles. Environmental values and environmental attitudes are the drive of an environmentally desirable behavior.

The school is the best place for the development of all components of environmental awareness. In this sense, it is important to cultivate environmental contents through both teaching and extracurricular activities. Students willingly participate in well-thought-out extra-curricular activities. The aim of our study was to find out which environmental activities are of interest to students, as well as which independent variables affect the

willingness of students to engage in such activities. Some possible conclusions of our study are:

1. Students prefer activities that occur in nature, in which they are direct participants and where they feel that they are actually doing something for the preservation of the environment (organization and maintenance of green areas around the school, forestation and planting of crops).
2. Students find collecting recyclable materials the least interesting activity. Contrary to their interests, these activities are most often organized in schools.
3. Despite the higher level of knowledge, students from urban areas show a lower degree of willingness to engage in environmental activities. This suggests that knowledge acquired at school is not functional. Such knowledge does not lead students to appropriate conclusions with regard to their role and contribution to environmental protection. Time spent in nature and the natural environment is a significant incentive to students to participate in the processes of environmental protection, which further justifies the need for more activities that occur outside the classroom and school building.
4. Results showed that students' willingness to engage in ecological activities is not dependent on the environment in which students live. Thus, students who live in a polluted environment have not shown a greater degree of willingness to engage in activities that are related to the protection of the environment, regardless of the fact that they possess a higher level of knowledge of students from unpolluted areas.

Our research shows that change is necessary, above all, of forms of teaching and learning environmental contents. It is necessary to improve methods of work so as to develop equally the rational, emotional and value spheres of students' personalities. In fact, environmental education should be directed both to the "mind" and to the "heart".

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GREEK PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS UNDERSTANDING OF AIR POLLUTION ISSUES: OZONE LAYER DEPLETION AND ACID RAIN

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Abstract

Air pollution is a major environmental problem threatening health of humans and other living beings all over the world. Ozone depletion and acid rain are among the main environmental problems related to air quality that pose serious environmental challenges. In this study, the understandings of 158 pre-service student-teachers' (STs) of primary and early childhood education on ozone depletion and acid rain were assessed, through a web-based survey consisting of a series of closed-form, single and multiple-choice questions. STs' data regarding demographic profile were also gathered for deeper analysis. Beyond descriptive, chi-square tests were used to assess significant differences on STs' answers based on independent variables. Results indicate familiarity with the issues and the concepts involved, for the majority of the students, as a high percentage of their answers about causes, consequences and possible cures are scientifically accepted. We recorded also a number of commonly held misconceptions. The main misconception is the deeply rooted confusion between the "ozone hole" and "greenhouse effect", where 51.9% of the STs, and about 1/3 of them in a coherent way, held that idea. Statistically significant differences were also observed, especially regarding STs' gender.

Keywords: *air pollution, acid rain, ozone layer depletion, misconceptions, environmental education.*

1. Introduction

Air pollution is a major environmental problem threatening the health of humans as well as life supporting systems all over the world. According to the 'Health of the Planet' survey where 29,618 respondents from 24 countries were participated, air pollution was the most frequently mentioned environmental problem faced by various nations (Dunlap 1994). Ozone depletion and acid rain are among the main environmental problems, related to air quality and the struggle for ameliorating these problems has persisted for many years. In 1979, the international community, aiming to address the problem of acid rain, adopted the Convention on Long-range Trans-boundary Air Pollution, which extended with a number of protocols (see Helsinki 1984). Moreover, in 1987, the Montreal

Protocol was adopted in order to prevent the further depletion of ozone layer, by calling the international community to phase out the production and use of ozone harmful substances. Even so, issues such as acid rain and ozone depletion continue to pose serious environmental challenges. Consequently, environmental awareness and education related to the aforementioned issues are still necessary for the development of environmental consciousness. The latter has been described as a complex of 'knowledge, values and attitudes together with environmental involvement' (Kollmuss & Agyeman 2002). Education researchers argue that a strong conceptual understanding of the environment is essential for students to consider the wider social, ethical and economic implications of pollution; it may also be closely linked to young people taking action to protect (Driver et al. 1994).

There have been numerous science conception studies across primary and secondary years focusing mainly on knowledge. There is also a rapidly growing body of international literature on the level of knowledge about environmental concepts and issues held by children of different ages (Skamp et al. 2004). Several studies investigated students and teachers' conceptions of the human-enhanced greenhouse effect, although there are fewer conception studies focused to other aspects of air quality, like acid rain formation and depletion of the ozone layer.

Studies in different countries indicated that students' ideas about global environmental issues are extremely confused (Boyes et al. 1993, Boyes & Stanisstreet 1994). Although there was much media attention in '90s about the ozone layer, it is likely that this information has led to a limited, even distorted, understanding among the general public, and this is perhaps especially so for children. Even though they may have accurate "pieces" of information that can support their understanding, they still fuse and confuse the various causes and consequences of a variety of global environmental issues (Boyes & Stanisstreet 1993).

Students' ideas about the origins of pollutants were centred on human activities, like transport and industry. Cars are perceived as sources of pollutants, probably because they are often depicted as such in the media. This belief is

so strong, that cars are erroneously blamed for some environmental problems, like ozone layer damage, although they do not have such an effect (Thornberet al.1999). Additionally, children find it difficult to envisage pollution as being "natural" (Ali 1991). Perhaps anything "natural" is seen as "good", with only "unnatural", human-made artefacts or processes having the potential to be "bad". Even trainee teachers often equate "naturalness" with "purity" (Ryan 1990) and this may lead to a reinforcement of their students' association of these ideas (Thornberet al.1999).

The main misconceptions that pupils of all ages and adults as well hold, is the confusion between global warming and ozone depletion, as the majority think that the "hole" in the ozone layer contributes to global warming by allowing great penetration of sun rays and having as a result the raise of earth's temperature (e.g., Boys & Stanisstreet 1993, Francis et al. 1993, Groves & Pugh 1999, Koulaidis & Christidou 1999, Pruneau et al. 2001, Rye et al., 1997). This misconception is strongly held and persists even after instruction (Groves & Pugh 2002). In the same line, Dimitriou & Christidou (2007) reported that Greek 7-13 years old students confused major environmental problems such as ozone depletion, global warming, air pollution and acid rain.

In another Greek study about ozone layer (Boyes et al. 1999), it appears that Greek high school students have a good understanding of the position and purpose of the ozone layer in terms of protection from harmful ultraviolet rays, but some also think that it helps keep the world warm or protects it from acid rain. Students seem aware that the ozone layer is in danger, and they believe that many varied forms of pollution are the cause. It seems well known that further depletion might cause an increase in skin cancers and eye cataracts, although students assumed strong, erroneous, links with the greenhouse effect and other forms of local pollution, particularly those associated with illness and disease (Boyes et al. 1999).

Research has also shown that misconceptions and misunderstandings about many environmental issues, climate change included, are not only held by pupils but by teachers as well (e.g., Dove 1996, Groves and Pugh 1999). So, in order teachers to be able to

teach pupils properly about air pollution issues and not to pass their own misconceptions to pupils, they themselves should acquire a better and deeper understanding of the subject. There are seven studies concerning ozone layer depletion that have been conducted in Greek setting (Boyes et al. 1999, Christidou and Koulaidis 1996, Dimitriou 2001, 2003, Koulaidis et al. 1994, Papadimitriou 2004, Michail et al. 2007). However, only three of them focused on Greek teachers' understanding and way of thinking on these issues. For instance, Papadimitriou (2004) reports that student teachers' hold the misconception that ozone depletion, acid rain, and pollution in general are conducive to climate change. They confuse greenhouse effect with ozone depletion as far as the mechanisms through which they occur are concerned, and their causal compounds. Daskolia et al. (2006) in their research with kindergarten teachers' identified well-known alternative conceptions along with an overemphasis on the potential hazards of ozone layer depletion to human health. The same researchers recorded the conflation of causal relationships among many environmental problems in general. For instance, a conceptual linkage identified between various forms of local or global pollution (e.g., smoke, waste disposal or radioactive waste), to the ozone depletion. And vice versa, ozone depletion is mistakenly thought to produce some types of diseases (e.g., heart attacks) or contamination.

Dove (1998) reports that British student teachers' "knowledge of the gases responsible for acid rain was poor" (p. 98), and there was little appreciation that acid rain caused in one location could be responsible for damage in another. Michail et al. (2007) report that Greek elementary school teachers had knowledge gaps concerning acid rain, ozone depletion, and the greenhouse effect, while most of their environmental knowledge derived from media.

The international literature concerning perceptions of school related populations about acid rain is limited. On the contrary, international educational research related to conceptions about ozone layer, is extended, especially to those aspects that are related to the confusion between global warming and ozone depletion mechanisms. However, the situation is different regarding the Greek educational research and

particularly in-service and future primary and preschool teachers, where no studies found about their ideas on acid rain and only a few concerning ozone layer. Furthermore, new curricula on science and sustainability education were designed for the Greek comprehensive education, where the topics of acid rain and ozone depletion are included. Based to the above, the following research questions guided our study:

- a. What are Florina School of Education STs' ideas about the causes and consequences regarding the ozone layer depletion and the formation of acid rain?
- b. Which factors influence their ideas on the same issues?

2. Methods

This study is part of a wider research, parts of which are reported elsewhere (Malandrakis & Papadopoulou 2012). However, for the completeness of this paper, a brief description of the basics of our research will follow.

2.1. Participants

Participants were 158 student-teachers (STs) from the Departments of Primary and Pre-Primary Education, University of Western Macedonia. Eighty of them (50.6%) were from the Department of Primary Education and seventy-eight (49.4%) from the Department of Early Childhood Education. One hundred and thirty six (86.1%) were females and 22 (13.9%) were males, while their secondary educational background was varying among Theoretical (75.9%), Technological (12.7%) and Sciences (11.4%) branches.

2.2. Setting and data collection

The study took place during the summer semester of 2012 and data collected through an on-line survey specially developed for the purposes of the study using *Limesurvey* open source software. The on-line survey lasted one week and students could access survey either from university's facilities or from a remote location. The time limit for the completion of the survey was 30 minutes, corresponding about to the double of time normally needed and had been previously estimated during pilot testing. Changes in student's answers were permitted as

long as they were in the same part of the survey, but on the entering in the next part their answers were saved and further changes were not permitted.

As students could access the survey from remote places as well, in order to avoid bias of data collection from persons not belonging to the target group, the survey was not anonymous. However, the validity and reliability of data was preserved as students had been assured that their survey scores by not mean would affect their assessment in the academic courses.

2.3. Research tool

The research tool was an on-line survey constituted by four main parts, having in total 26 closed-form questions. Its development was based on the rich, previously published literature on the issues under question. For simplicity reasons and easiness in completion, the questions were either of single or of multiple-choice types.

The *first* part of the questionnaire gathered students' biographical data, as well as their secondary education academic background and sources of information regarding environmental issues (11 questions). The *second* part was assessing students' understanding about causes, consequences and possible cures of greenhouse effect and global warming (7 questions). The *third* and *fourth* parts were assessing students' views about the ozone layer (4 questions) and acid rain (4 questions) respectively. In the last three main parts were also included items exploring students' ideas about the interrelation among these three major environmental issues.

However, in the present study, only data from the third and fourth parts of the questionnaire (i.e., perceptions about ozone layer depletion and acid) will be discussed. More specifically, the topics of ozone depletion that were explored are (a) the role of humans to the whole issue, (b) human activities causing it, (c) the chemical mechanism of the phenomenon, (d) its relation with the greenhouse effect, and (e) its consequences. Similarly, the topics of acid rain that were investigated were about the cause, origin and consequences of the particular issue, as well as about human activities related with it.

2.4 Analysis

Data from the on-line survey were inserted to SPSS v.18 for further analysis. Data were crosschecked for inconsistencies and double or incomplete entries were removed.

As all questions were constituted by several items serving as optional answers, the coding each item was on a 0/1 format, with '0' indicating not selection of the item by students and '1' indicating the selection of the particular item. In that sense, we used a nominal level of measurement.

Beyond descriptive statistics, chi-square test was implemented for testing the effect of several independent variables on STs' answers.

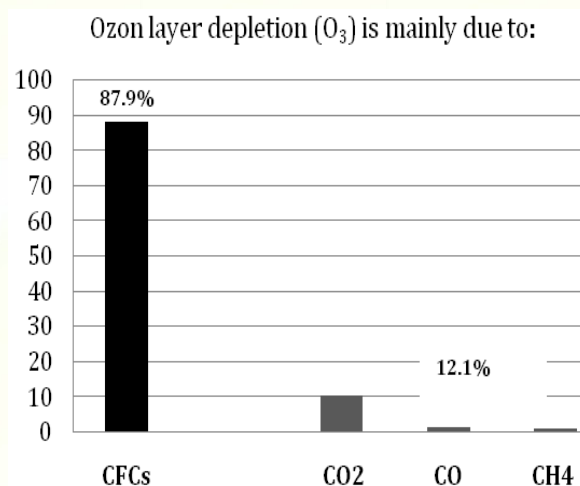
3. Results

3.1. Knowledge about ozone layer depletion

In the next figures, we present with clack colour columns answers that are scientifically accepted and in light dark colour columns answers that deviate from the scientific accepted knowledge.

Less than the half students (41.4%) know that ozone concentrates both in the upper atmosphere and in the lower atmospheric layers of the cities. As a consequence, we could reasonably assume that about 60% of the students possibly do not understand that a substance could be at the same time a protective agent and a pollutant, depending upon the place of concentration.

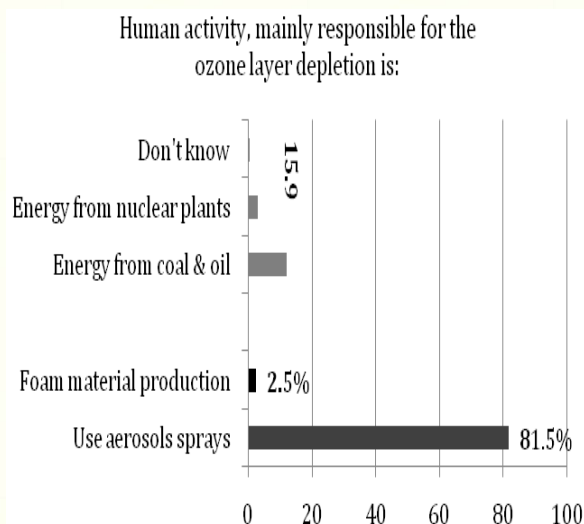
Figure 1: Knowledge about substances depleting ozone



In contrary, a very high percentage of the students (87.9%) recognize chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) as the main agent of ozone layer reduction (Figure 1). Methane transported by the vertical winds toward the stratosphere may also have a role in the ozone destruction (Da Silva et al. 2009), but it is not the main factor of the thinning of the ozone layer. For this reason, we did not code this answer as an accepted one.

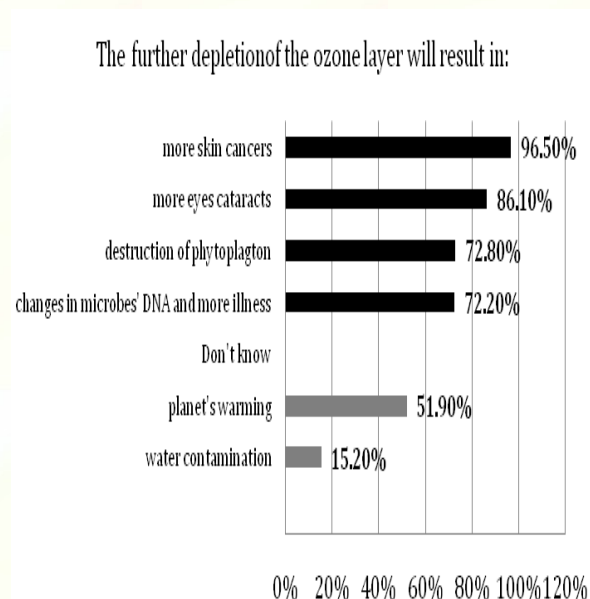
Students, by a first look, seem to be informed about the human activities that are mainly responsible for ozone layer depletion as they recognize aerosol sprays (81.5%) and foam materials production (2.2%) as such harmful activities (Figure 2).

Figure 2: Knowledge about human activities related with ozone depletion



In these results, special attention should be given to the very low proportion of students recognizing the production of foam material as harmful to stratospheric ozone. By eliminating ozone-depleting substances emitted from foam production processes, it is of paramount importance, given the large volumes of chemicals involved. On the contrary, a high percentage of students (81.5%) holds outdated knowledge about aerosol sprays, as CFCs that were once often used as aerosol spray propellants, now have been replaced in nearly every country by substances not threatening ozone layer, as a result of Montreal Protocol enforcement since 1989 (this is the reason of the black-coloured column of aerosol sprays' in figure 2).

Figure 3: Knowledge about the consequences of ozone depletion



A small group of students (12.1%) cannot make the distinction between human activities enhancing Green House Effect (GHE), like energy production from coal and oil and activities that have an impact on ozone layer. Additionally, there are 5 students (3.2%) who accept that producing energy in nuclear plants, a potentially environmental hazardous activity, is also an ozone threatening activity.

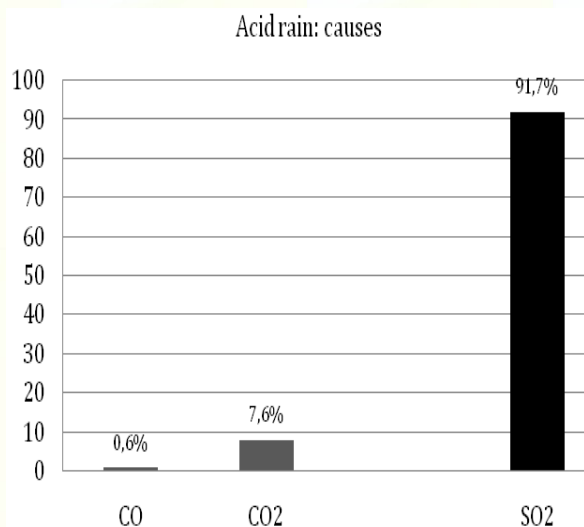
Concerning the consequences of ozone layer thinning (Figure 3), students seemed better informed about the direct impacts on human health [e.g., skin cancer (96.5%) and eye cataract (86.1%)], than the environmentally detrimental impacts [e.g., the destruction of phytoplankton (72.8%) or indirect threatens to human health [e.g., possible changes in microbes' DNA and consequently more illnesses (72.2%)]. The well-known misconception, this of the conflation between the greenhouse effect and the ozone layer depletion is identified to our students as well, as a considerable percentage of them (51.9%) seems to think that the "hole" in the ozone layer contributes to global warming.

3.2. Knowledge about the acid rain formation

Students seem to be informed enough about the main gasses involved in acid rain formation (Figure 4), as the majority of them (91.7%) realize the role of sulphur dioxide (SO₂) in this process. In addition, a small group of students

believes that the main greenhouse gasses are also involved in the acid rain formation (7.6% for CO₂ and 0.6% for CO).

Figure 4: Knowledge about the gasses contributing to acid rain formation



Moreover, the majority of students attribute acid rain formation, to both human activities and natural phenomena (Figure 5, 78.34%). It seems, that another conception known from the literature – this of equate “naturalness” with “purity” – is present, as about the one fifth of our students (21.2%) associate acid rain formation only to human activities. Furthermore, almost all STs correctly realize (Figure 6) coal and oil combustion as the main sources of oxides forming acid rain (68.8% for coal+30.60% for oil, a total of 99.4%).

The last topic under examination was the consequences of acid rain on human beings and on the natural environment (Figure 7). As there is a high percentage of students holding the scientifically accepted view about damages in forest and other vegetation.

Figure 5: Knowledge about acid rain formation: Natural or human originated phenomenon

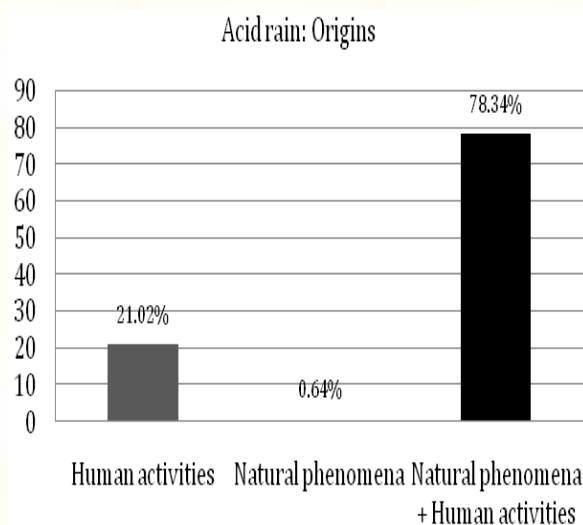


Figure 6: Knowledge about human activities related with acid rain formation

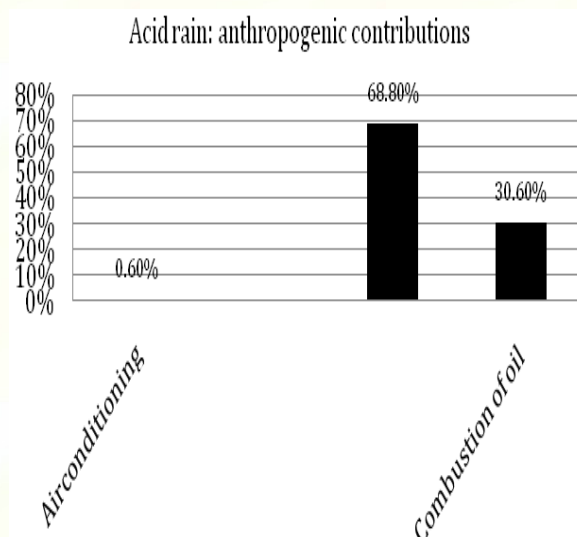
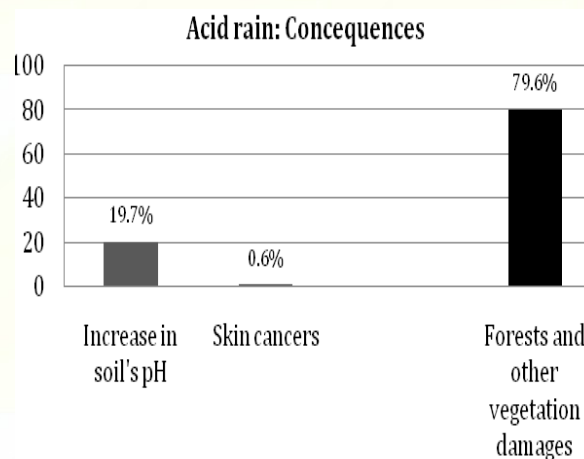


Figure 7: Knowledge about the acid rain's impact in human beings and the environment



(79.6%), our focus is in the group of students believing that acid rain can increase soil's pH. This is not true, as in regions where the soil is not rich in limestone or if the bedrock is not composed of limestone or marble, the acid rain may be not neutralized, and as a result soil's pH decrease. This is a case where students' knowledge in chemistry is limited.

3.3 Coherence in answers

In order to investigate how well embedded is the misconception that ozone destruction enhances greenhouse effect, we cross-tabulated STs' answers in the respective questions. Item A in Table 1 was embedded in a question related to greenhouse effect origins, and item B was embedded in a question concerning the consequences of ozone layer depletion.

Table 1: Coherence in student confusion between global warming and ozone depletion

		B. Further ozone layer depletion will result if global warming gets worse (in ozone depletion question)	
A. One of the factors enhancing greenhouse effect is the "holes" in ozone layer (in a greenhouse effect question).	Yes	Yes	No
	No	32	57
		19	50

Findings of Table 1 make clear the way our students answered in the two similar questions. First of all, 82 students (51.9%) answered in a coherent way, giving either a 'Yes' (32) or 'No' (50) in both items. The rest (76 students, 48.7% of the sample) answered in incoherently. In other words, about the one third of students (31.6%) stably possess the scientifically accepted views (32 students), another one fifth (20.25%, 50 students) repeatedly does not discriminate between greenhouse effect and ozone layer, and the rest half of the sample (48.7%) quavered between misconception and accepted knowledge.

3.4. Significant differences

3.4.1. By Gender

The misconception concerning the conflation between the greenhouse effect and the ozone layer depletion is significantly more frequent among females (48.6%) than in males (43.7%, $\chi^2=4.442$, $df=1$, $p<0.05$). We recorded two more significant differences between males and females. One is related to ozone destruction consequences, and specifically in phytoplankton. Males, more frequently (90.9%) give the scientifically accepted answer than females (69.85%, $\chi^2=4.238$, $df=1$, $p<0.05$). The other significant difference ($\chi^2=10.748$, $df=1$, $p<0.01$) is about the impact of acid rain in soil's pH, where less females (15.5%) than males (45.5%) give the wrong answer.

4. Discussion

Our results are consistent with those published in literature. Specifically, students present low discrimination level among the two major environmental problems, ozone depletion and greenhouse effect, as they fuse and confuse the various causes and consequences of a variety of global environmental issues (Boyes & Stanisstreet, 1993). Our results are on the same line with the findings of previous research (e.g., Boys & Stanisstreet 1993, Francis et al. 1993, Groves & Pugh 1999, Koulaidis & Christidou 1999, Pruneau et al. 2001, Rye et al., 1997, Groves & Pugh 2002, Dimitriou & Christidou 2007), as students hold the misconception that ozone depletion in general is conducive to climate change.

Regarding the position of the ozone layer and the consequences from its further depletion, we have similar results with those reported by Boyes et al. (1999) and appearing our students to have a good understanding on these issues.

About one fifth of our students (21.2%) attribute acids rain formation only to human activities. This confirms the findings of Ryan (1990) and Thornber et al. (1999) that anything "natural" is seen as "good", with only "unnatural", human-made artefacts or processes having the potential to be "bad".

The most interesting of our findings is the very low proportion of STs that recognizes foam material production as harmful to stratospheric

ozone and the high percentage that still accepts outdated knowledge about the relation of aerosol sprays and ozone layer depletion. Based to our knowledge, similar results have not been reported yet elsewhere in the educational research.

The last major finding concerns the coherent way that misconception related to ozone destruction and global warming appears to about the one fifth of students. Further investigation is needed in order to explore if this way of thinking is related with other aspects of pro-environmental views related to air pollution issues.

5. Implications

Our research reveals the need to continue teaching about all issues related to air pollution and not exclusively focus to problems considered of "high priority". This was a trend during the last decade with the strong tendency to focus teaching solely on global warming. Moreover, the teaching of environmental issues should be enriched with the presentation of international environmental initiatives and policy measures confronting them. Otherwise students will continue to endorse out-dated knowledge and adopt ineffective behaviour. If students are informed about current environmental policies and the positive results of specific international conventions and protocols, it is more likely to adopt an optimistic view of the ability of humanity to address environmental issues. This optimism is necessary for people to be involved in pro-environmental action.

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GREEK PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS UNDERSTANDING OF GLOBAL WARMING: REALITIES AND MISCONCEPTIONS

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Abstract

Global warming (GW) is the most pressing environmental issue of nowadays, threatening the modern way of life and changing ecosystems in a dramatic way. Education has a prominent role on increasing citizens' environmental literacy, and particularly of young students. In this study, the views of 158 pre-service student teachers (STs) of primary and early childhood education were assessed on GW issues, through the use of an on-line questionnaire. Beyond descriptive, chi-square test was used to assess significant differences on STs answers based on independent variables. Results indicate that STs have poor understanding of GW mechanism, while in their views about causes, consequences and possible cures strong and common misconceptions usually co-exist with scientifically accepted views. For instance, 84% of STs erroneously considered that ozone depletion reinforces GW by allowing more sunlight to reach the surface of the earth, and a significant number of STs incorrectly considered that artificial fertilizers (67%), pesticides (53%) and nuclear power plants (53%) increase GW. In addition, STs incorrectly considered that more rains (48%) and skin cancers (42%) will be caused, while the use of unleaded gasoline (48%) and reducing nuclear bombs (43%) ameliorates GW. Moreover, statistically significant differences were observed especially regarding STs gender, and their secondary education academic background.

Keywords: *student-teachers, greenhouse effect, climate change, misconceptions*

1. Introduction

Greenhouse effect and global climate change has become an important planetary issue. The conclusions of the 4th Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change notes that 'Most of the observed increase in global average temperatures since the mid of the twentieth century is very likely due to the observed increase in anthropogenic greenhouse gases concentrations' (IPCC 2007). Because of their significance on the earth ecosystems, these two issues have gained increased attention from educators and extensive research has been performed covering various aspects of the two phenomena. Greenhouse effect and global

warming concepts are fundamental to understanding global climate change (Lambert et al. 2012).

In particular, a lot of research has been conducted, in several countries of the world, concerning students' of all ages and adults' ideas of global warming and other global environmental problems. These studies found many misconceptions on these issues in terms of causality, possible consequences, and possible cures. These misconceptions and misunderstandings are mainly due to the complexity of the science involved, the uncertainties and the controversies surrounding them.

By far, the most common and persistent one is a causal between the greenhouse effect and the ozone layer depletion, where either of the two phenomena causes the other (Boyes et al. 1993; Boyes & Stanisstreet 1993; Boyes & Stanisstreet 1997; Boyes et al. 1999; Boyes et al. 2008; Hansen 2010; Hestness et al. 2011; Kalipsi et al. 2009; Khalid 2001; Kilinc, et al. 2008; Kisoglu et al. 2010; Liarakou et al. 2011; Meadows & Wiesenmayer 1999; Papadimitriou 2004, Ikononides, 2012).

More specifically, the conflation between the greenhouse effect and the ozone layer depletion is found to be common not only among primary and secondary students, but also among pre-service (Hestness et al. 2011; Kalipsi et al. 2009; Khalid 2001; Kisoglu et al. 2010; Papadimitriou 2004) and in-service teachers (Michail, et al. 2007; Summers et al. 2000). The majority of students of all ages and adults think that the "hole" in the ozone layer contributes to global warming by allowing great penetration of sun rays resulting in raising the earth's temperature (i.e., Boys & Stanisstreet 1993; Francis et al. 1993; Groves & Pugh 1999; Koulaidis & Christidou 1999; Pruneau et al. 2001; Rye et al. 1997). This misconception is strongly held and persists even after instruction to pre-service teachers (Groves & Pugh, 2002).

Another misconception, commonly held, is that all environmental harms contribute to climate change (Gowda et al. 1997). These and many other misconceptions concerning causes of climate change, probably have implications in affecting peoples' ideas about actions taken to alleviate it. Other common misconceptions are that radioactivity (Boyes et al. 1993; Kilinc et al.

2008; Kisoglu et al. 2010) and acid rain are causes of the greenhouse effect (Boyes et al. 1993; Papadimitriou 2004), the use of unleaded petrol (Boyes et al. 1993; Boyes et al. 2008; Kisoglu et al. 2010) and other pro-environment actions mitigate the greenhouse effect (Boyes & Stanisstreet 1993; Kilinc et al. 2008; Papadimitriou 2004).

Moreover, common alternative conceptions among middle- and high-school students include: confusion of weather and climate; not understanding the greenhouse effect, the type and source of radiation involved; and thinking that climate change is caused by pollution or ozone holes (Choi et al. 2010). In addition, students commonly explain the greenhouse effect as an environmental problem rather than a natural phenomenon (Koulaidis & Christidou 1999; Myers et al. 2004) and, often do not differentiate between the natural greenhouse effect and an enhanced greenhouse effect, which is an environmental problem.

The above-mentioned misconceptions and misunderstandings are commonplace not only among primary and secondary students, but also among pre-service and in-service teachers. For instance, Daskolia et al. (2006) in their research with kindergarten teachers' identified well-known alternative conceptions along with an overemphasis on the potential hazards of ozone layer depletion to human health. In Summers et al. (2000) study, only one out of 12 elementary school teachers who participated understood that an enhanced greenhouse effect was a cause of global warming. The teachers expressed naive conceptions and alternative conceptions, like that 'holes in the ozone' cause global warming. Other studies with elementary school teachers also revealed that they do not demonstrate adequate understanding of the concepts underlying climate change (Dove 1996; Summers et al. 2000). Moreover, Michail et al. (2006) report that Greek elementary school teachers had knowledge gaps concerning acid rain, ozone depletion, and the greenhouse effect, while most of their environmental knowledge derived from media. This compounds the problem as usually media represents environmental issues as risks rather than reporting from a scientific viewpoint.

Greek pre-service teachers seem to hold similar alternative conceptions with those of

other studies including confusing weather with climate; incorrectly relating climate change to environmental pollution and acid rain; and incorrectly relating climate change to ozone layer depletion (Ikonomidis et al. 2012; Papadimitriou 2004). These studies, and others, indicate that teachers' alternative conceptions about climate change are usually similar to those of primary and secondary students, and substantiate the importance of increasing teachers' knowledge about complex climate issues.

Conclusively, although there is a rich international literature regarding pre- and in-service teachers' ideas about the greenhouse effect and climate change, there are only two studies exploring Greek student teachers' (STs) understanding on these issues (Papadimitriou 2004; Ikonomidis 2012) and only one focusing on prospective kindergarten teachers (Daskolia et al. 2006). Moreover, as climate change itself and related issues are included to the primary curricula for sustainability, relevant courses are taught to the Departments of Primary and Early Childhood Education. As a result, the assessment of STs¹ background understanding on these issues is necessary, in order teaching to be more effective by focusing on their omissions and misunderstandings. Given to the above, the research questions that guided our study are the following:

- a. What are Florina School of Education STs' ideas about the causes, consequences and ameliorative actions regarding the greenhouse effect?
- b. Which factors influence their ideas on the same issue?

2. Methods

2.1. Setting and data collection

This study took place during the summer semester of 2012 and data collected through an on-line survey specially developed for the purposes of the study using *Limesurvey* open source software. The on-line survey lasted one week and students could access survey either from university's facilities or from a remote

location. The time limit for the completion of the survey was 30 minutes, corresponding about to the double of time normally needed and had been previously estimated during pilot testing. Changes in student's answers were permitted as long as they were in the same part of the survey, but on the entering in the next part their answers were saved and further changes were not permitted.

As students could access the survey from remote places as well, in order to avoid bias of data collection from persons not belonging to the target group, the survey was not anonymous. However, the validity and reliability of data was preserved as students had been assured that their survey scores by not mean would affect their assessment in the academic courses.

2.2. Research tool

The research tool was an on-line survey constituted by four main parts, having in total 26 closed-form questions. Its development was based on the rich, previously published literature on the issues under question. For simplicity reasons and easiness in completion, the questions were either of single or of multiple-choice types.

The *first* part of the questionnaire gathered students' biographical data, as well as their secondary education academic background and sources of information regarding environmental issues (11 questions). The *second* part was assessing students' understanding about causes, consequences and possible cures of greenhouse effect and global warning (7 questions). The *third* and *fourth* parts were assessing students' views about the ozone layer (4 questions) and acid rain (4 questions) respectively. In the last three main parts were also included items exploring students' ideas about the interrelation among these three major environmental issues.

However, in the present study, only data from the second part of the questionnaire (i.e., greenhouse effect and global warming/climate change) will be discussed. More specifically, the topics of greenhouse effect that were explored are (a) the role of humans to the disturbance of the natural greenhouse effect, (b) human activities causing the greenhouse effect, (c) greenhouse effect gases, (d) relation of greenhouse effect with ozone depletion, (e) consequences from the increase of the

¹ From here on, for simplicity reasons and clarity in meaning, the initials of 'ST' in the text will refer to students from the Departments of Primary and Early Childhood Education, University of Western Macedonia.

greenhouse effect, (f) actions reducing greenhouse effect, and (g) actions preventing climate change. Each of these topics was assessed by one question in the survey.

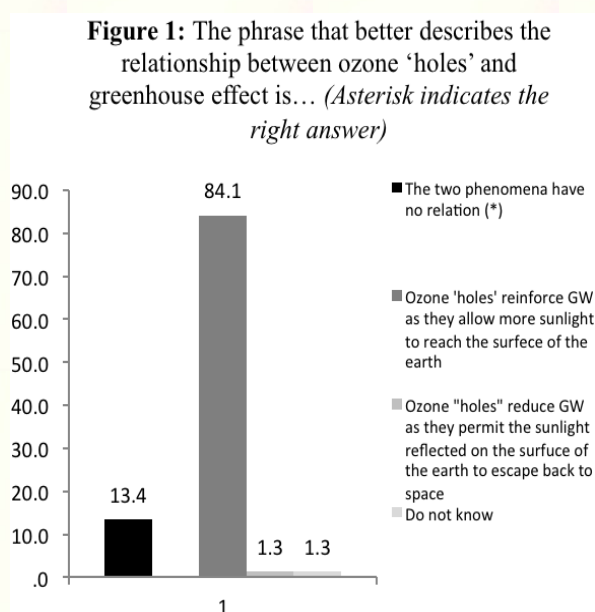
Boyes and Stanisstreet (1992) questionnaire was mainly adopted, adapted and enriched by items from Michail et al. (2007), Papadimitriou (2004), and Daniel et al. (2004) studies aiming to assess STs ideas about the above mentioned topics of the greenhouse effect.

2.3. Participants

Participants were 158 student-teachers (STs) from the Departments of Primary and Early Childhood Education, University of Western Macedonia. Eighty of them (50.6%) were from the Department of Primary Education and seventy-eight (49.4%) from the Department of Early Childhood Education. One hundred and thirty six (86.1%) were females and 22 (13.9%) were males, while their secondary educational background was varying among Theoretical (75.9%), Technological (12.7%) and Sciences (11.4%) branches.

2.4. Analysis

Data from the on-line survey were inserted to SPSS v.18 for further analysis. Data were crosschecked for inconsistencies and double or incomplete entries were removed.



As all questions were constituted by several items serving as optional answers, the coding each item was on a 0/1 format, with '0'

indicating not selection of the item by students and '1' indicating the selection of the particular item. In that sense, we used a nominal level of measurement.

Beyond descriptive, chi-square test was implemented for testing the effect of several independent variables on STs answers.

3. Results

In the sections below, where significant differences are described, the percentages of females and those from the Theoretical branch are presented first.

3.1. Descriptive

Findings indicate that only 13.4% of students realize that the *two major ecological phenomena* (i.e., ozone depletion and greenhouse effect) have no relation (Figure 1). On the contrary, the vast majority of students (84.1%) seem to believe that ozone 'holes' reinforce GW as they allow more sunlight to reach the surface of the earth.

Figure 2: Which of the following human activities contribute to the increase of greenhouse effect (Asterisks indicate the right answers)

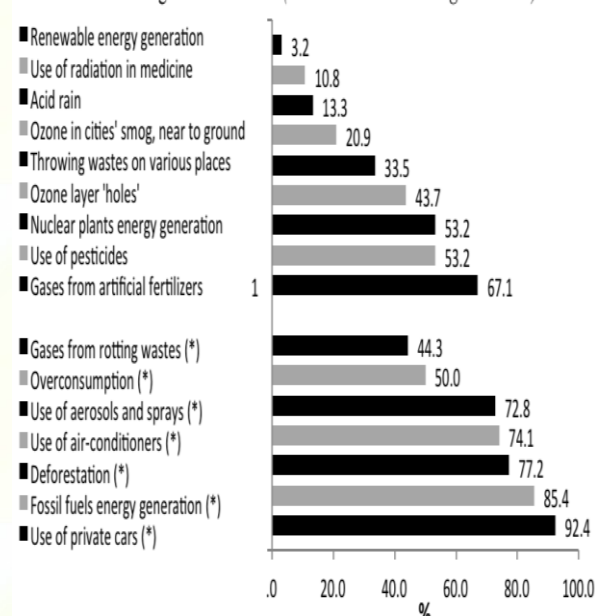
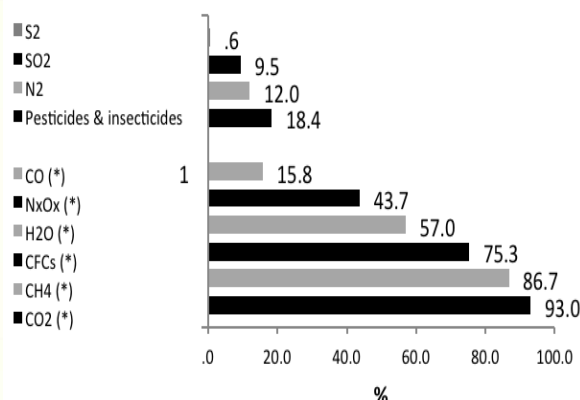
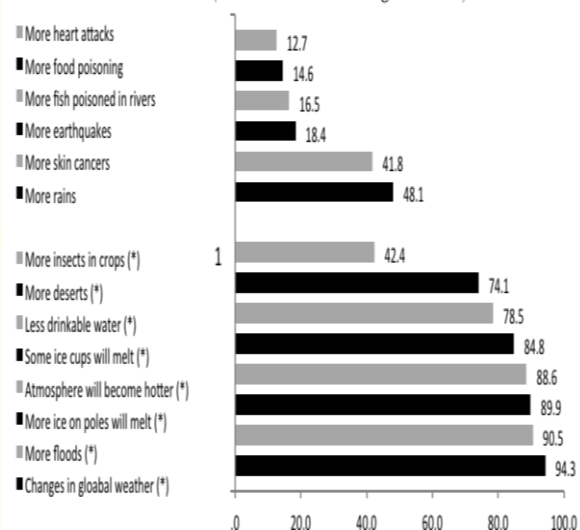


Figure 3: Which of the following substances cause the greenhouse effect (Asterisks indicate the right answers)



Students' understanding regarding the *human activities* that contribute to greenhouse effect also seems to be problematic (Figure 2). In particular, students although realize some of the major factors increasing greenhouse effect, like the use of private cars (92.4%), the electricity generation through fossil fuels combustion (85.4%) and deforestation (77.2%), they also are unable to link overconsumption (50%) and gases from rotting wastes (44.3%) with greenhouse effect (Figure 2). Moreover, several misconceptions were identified among students with more than half of them to erroneously believe that gases from fertilizers (67.1%), the use of pesticides (53.2%) and nuclear power plants (53.2%) also contribute to greenhouse effect.

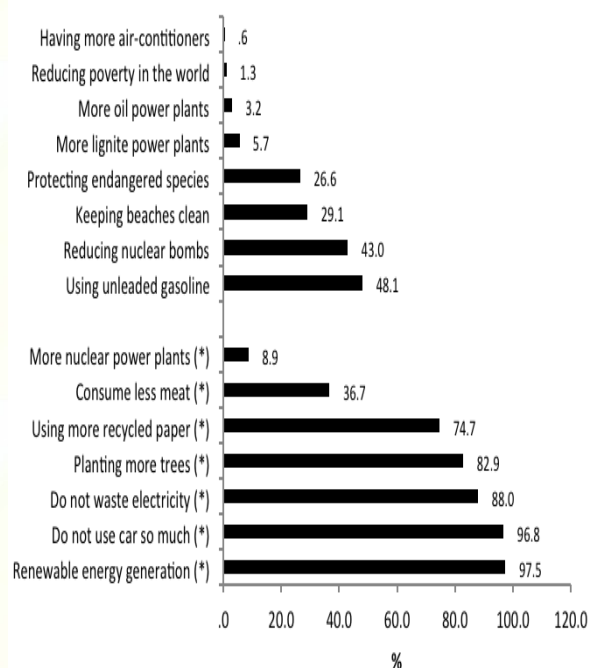
Figure 4: Which of the following will happen if greenhouse effect increase (Asterisks indicate the right answers)



The situation is similar and in respect of the

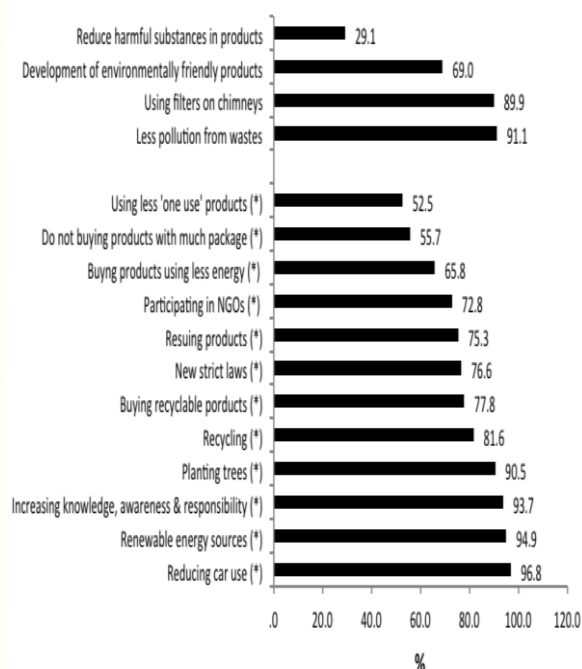
identification of *factors deteriorating greenhouse effect*. Although the majority of students realize the most common sources of greenhouse gases like the carbon dioxide (93%), methane (86.7%) and chlorofluorocarbons (75.3%), only about the half of them realizes water vapours (57%), nitrogen oxides (43.7%) and carbon monoxide (15.8%) as greenhouse gases (Figure 3).

Figure 5: The greenhouse effect will be reduced by ... (Asterisks indicate the right answers)



Students also seem to be, in a great extend, aware of the main *consequences* of greenhouse effect. More specifically, they realize that changes in global weather (94.3), more floods (90.5%) and ice melting on poles (89.9%) will occur, that the atmosphere will become hotter (88.6%), ice cups will melt (84.8%), there will be less drinkable water (78.5%) and the desert areas will increase (74.1%) (Figure 4). However, only two fifths of students (42.4%) apprehend that insects in crops will increase. Unfortunately, and in this topic strong misconceptions were identified, with almost half of students to believe that more rains (48.1%) and skin cancers (41.8%) will occur in case of greenhouse effect deterioration. Other minor misconceptions were also observed; like that more earthquakes (18.4%), fish (16.5%) and food (14.6%) poisoning, and heart attacks (12.7%) will occur.

Figure 6: What we can do to reduce climate change?
(Asterisks indicate the right answers)



As far as the *actions that could contribute to the reduction of greenhouse effect* are concerned, most of them seem to be realized by students. For instance, the use of renewable energy sources (97.5%), reduction in car (96.8%) and electricity (88%) use, planting more trees (82.9%) and using more recycled paper (74.7%) are very popular among students (Figure 5). However, only a third of them seem to link the consumption of meat (36.7%) with the generation of greenhouse gases, and far more less the potential contribution of nuclear power plants (8.9%) to global warming amelioration.

On the other hand, there are and some serious misconceptions held by students on the same issue. For example, about half of them consider that the use of unleaded gasoline (48.1%) and the reduction of nuclear bombs (43%) ameliorate greenhouse effect. Keeping beaches clean (29.1%) and protecting endangered species (26.6%) was also identified as strong misconceptions among students.

The vast majority of students seem to realize the most common and effective actions towards *climate change amelioration*. For instance, reducing car use (96.8%), increasing renewable energy sources use (94.9%), the role of education for increased knowledge, awareness and responsibility (93.7%) and planting trees (90.5%) are among the most popular (Figure 6). However, some serious misconceptions were

also observed, like that less pollution from wastes (91.1%), using filters in chimneys (89.9%) and the development of environmentally friendly products (69%) contribute to climate change amelioration.

3.2. Significant differences by gender

In the issue of global warming deterioration, males seem to believe, in a significantly greater extent than females, that *throwing wastes in various places* (28.7%, 63.6%, $p=.001$), *using pesticides* (47.8%, 86.4%, $p=.001$), *the radiation in medicine* (8.1%, 27.3%, $p=.007$), *aerosols and sprays* (69.1%, 95.5%, $p=.010$), *the gases from rotting wastes* (40.4%, 68.2%, $p=.015$) and from *artificial fertilizers* (64%, 86.4%, $p=.038$), as well as 'holes' in ozone layer (38.2%, 77.3%, $p=.001$) contribute to the increase of greenhouse effect.

In respect of the substances causing greenhouse effect, only in the issue of CFSs (72.1%, 95.5%, $p=.018$) we have statistically significant differences in favour of male STs. Similarly, at the things that will happen if greenhouse effect increased, males in statistically significant higher percentages believe that more people will die from *skin cancer* (36%, 77.3%, $p=.000$).

As far as the possible ways that human induced greenhouse effect can be reduced, males appear significantly more convinced that *keeping beaches clean* (24.3%, 59.1%, $p=.001$), *using unleaded gasoline* (44.1%, 72.7%, $p=.013$) and more *recycled paper* (71.3%, 95.5%, $p=.016$), and *protecting endangered species* (22.1%, 54.5%, $p=.001$) are proper actions.

Moreover, males seem to be more sure than females that we can prevent or reverse climate change by voting *environmentally friendly laws* (73.5%, 95.5%, $p=.024$), *not buying products with too many packaging materials* (52.2%, 77.3%, $p=.028$), and by being *engaged in NGOs and social groups* (69.9%, 90.9%, $p=.040$).

3.3. Significant differences by secondary educational background

In order to increase the reliability of the analysis and reduce the number of cells in chi-square test with expected frequencies less than five, the percentages of students from the Science and Technological branch were merged. In the following paragraphs, when percentages are discussed, those from the Theoretical branch are

given first, followed by those from combined Science/Technological branch (S/T).

STs from the S/T branch seem to have a better understanding of the factors contributing to greenhouse effect deterioration, as significantly more of them, compared from those from the Theoretical branch, believe that the use of *air conditioners* (69.2%, 89.5%, $p=.013$), *nitrogen oxides* (38.3%, 60.5%, $p=.016$), and *CFSs* (70.8%, 89.5%, $p=.020$) increase the phenomenon.

In the issue of greenhouse effect consequences, STs from the S/T branch are more convinced that *more insects will be in crops* (37.5%, 57.9%, $p=.027$), and that greenhouse effect can be reduced by *planting more trees* (78.3%, 97.4%, $p=.007$).

4. Discussion

Results are consistent with those published in literature (Hestness et al. 2011; Liarakou et al. 2011; Kisoglu et al. 2010; Kalipsi et al. 2009; Boyes et al. 2008; Hansen 2010; Kilinc, et al. 2008; Papadimitriou 2004; Khalid 2001; Boyes et al. 1999; Meadows & Wiesenmayer 1999; Boyes & Stanisstreet 1997; Boyes et al. 1993; Boyes & Stanisstreet 1993). In particular, STs present low discrimination level between the two major environmental problems that of ozone depletion and greenhouse effect, as only 13.4% of them realize that there is no relationship between them. In the same topic, a strong misconception appeared, with more than the eight tenths of students to believe that ozone 'holes' reinforce GW as they allow more sunlight to reach the surface of the earth (84,1%). This finding is consistent with the results reported by Michail et al. (2007) where in-service teachers also had similar misconceptions and low discrimination level of the two phenomena.

STs seem to realize the main *greenhouse gases* (i.e., carbon dioxide CO₂, methane CH₄, chlorofluorocarbons CFCs, water vapour H₂O), but about the one fifth of them erroneously consider that pesticides and insecticides also contribute to greenhouse effect. This relatively good identification of gases involved in the formation of greenhouse, effect, has also been confirmed by Dove (1996), Khalid (2003) and Summers et al. (2000).

Moreover, the *human activities that*

deteriorate greenhouse effect are realized by STs, with the burning of fossil fuels for energy generation, deforestation, use of air-conditioners, aerosols and sprays and overconsumption to be the most popular. In the same topic, some misconceptions also identified, like that gases from artificial fertilizers, the use of pesticides, the nuclear plants for energy generation, and ozone 'holes' also contribute to greenhouse effect. Similar levels of understanding are reported by several studies among secondary students (Boyes & Stanisstreet 1992; Boyes et al. 1993), as well as among pre-service (Papadimitriou 2004; Groves & Pugh 1999) and in-service teachers (Michail et al. 2007).

As far as the *consequences* of greenhouse effect is concerned, increased levels of understanding among STs is observed. The vast majority of them seem to apprehend that more floods and ice poles' melting will occur, atmosphere will become hotter, ice cups will melt, less drinkable water will be available, while more deserts and insects in crops will be the case. On the other hand, several misconceptions were also identified in the topic, with the increase of rains and skin cancer incidences to be the stronger of them. Moreover, the misconception of increased rains is stronger in this study, as nearly the half of STs presented the particular idea (48.1%) comparable to only 10.46% reported by Papadimitriou (2004). Similar misconceptions were reported from secondary students (Boyes & Stanisstreet 1992; Kisoglu 2010) and pre-service teachers (Groves & Pugh 1999; 2002).

Student teachers seem also to be aware of the main *ameliorative actions* regarding the greenhouse effect, as the majority of them apprehend that renewable energy generation, reduction in car use, not wasting electricity, planting more trees, using more recycled paper and consuming less meat reduces global warming. Common and strong misconceptions were also observed, like the use of unleaded gasoline (Kisoglu 2010), the reduction of nuclear arsenal (Kisoglu et al. 2010), keeping beaches clean (Groves & Pugh 1999; 2002) and protecting endangered species (Boyes & Stanisstreet 1992; Daniel et al. 2004).

For instance, Groves and Pugh (2002) found that the 72% of the pre-service primary teachers

who participated in their research, believe that keeping beaches clean will help to alleviate the greenhouse effect. Similarly, Boyes and Stanisstreet (1993) found that pupils think that reducing the nuclear weapons would also lower the risk of global warming.

In relation to the *statistically significant differences*, *gender* was a crucial factor affecting STs understanding, especially among males. In particular, from the 16 statistically significant differences based on STs' gender, nine of them (e.g., throwing wastes, using pesticides, radiation in medicine, artificial fertilizers, ozone 'holes', skin cancer, keeping beaches clean, unleaded gasoline, and endangered species) were identified as misconceptions, all held in greater extent by males.

Only *secondary education background* seems to significantly affect STs' understanding, as in the recorded statistically significant differences included no misconceptions and students with Technological/Sciences background had much better understanding on the issues under consideration. From the five significant differences based on STs' secondary education background, none was supported by the Theoretical branch, mostly because of the nature of the issues under examination where background knowledge in sciences is needed in order to understand the complex phenomena like the greenhouse effect.

Overall, from the 21 observed significant differences, most of them are related to the human activities causing the greenhouse effect (8 significant differences) and ameliorative actions (4). Three significant differences were also identified, one in each of the topics of greenhouse substances, consequences of greenhouse effect and actions preventing climate change.

In addition, from the 33 observed misconceptions (see Figures 1 – 6), the majority of them were associated to human activities increasing the greenhouse effect (9 misconceptions) and to ameliorative actions (8). In the consequences of greenhouse effect we observed six misconceptions, while four misconceptions were identified in each of the topics of greenhouse substances and climate change prevention. Two more misconceptions were observed regarding the relation between greenhouse effect and ozone 'holes'.

The issue of CFCs seems to be the most controversial and difficult for students, as significant differences were observed to the particular issue based to both STs gender and secondary education background.

5. Implications

Conclusively, findings regarding the knowledge level of prospective primary and kindergarten schoolteachers are far from being considered as adequate. Although they had good knowledge on some topics (e.g., substances causing greenhouse effect), their general understanding was rather poor. Furthermore, in all topics under question, correct ideas coexist with many misconceptions, indicating confusion, and lack of relevant information.

As a result, future instructional interventions focusing on the greenhouse effect and climate change should make explicit these misconceptions in the first place. During teaching, exhausted discussions and experimentation where possible, should take place aiming to disperse these confusions and make the core ideas explicit.

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GREEK STUDENTS OF THE THIRD CLASS OF HIGH SCHOOL CONFRONTING SUBJECTS OF PISA 2003

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to investigate the behaviour of Greek students of the third class of high school on the subjects of PISA 2003. More specifically, this study examines in detail the behaviour of students in the PISA problems and compares the performance of students and the conclusion of the competition PISA 2003. Eight good students were asked to solve PISA problems. Students' responses were evaluated and then conducted interviews in order to analyze the way of thinking of students and identify their weaknesses. Several important weaknesses of students came to light in basic subjects of Algebra, Geometry and mostly Statistics. It seemed that even most of the students applied inefficient solution strategies regardless of whether their answer agrees with common sense. It is worth mention the pleasure students displayed during the PISA problem solving, in contrast to the anxiety and fear they were occupied with, during the problem solving in class.

Keywords: *PISA 2003, performance of Greek students, mathematical literacy*

1. Introduction

The PISA (Programme for International Student Assessment) is an international survey conducted by the OECD (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development) on the purpose of the international evaluation of educational systems of the countries involved in this, and is centred on the ability of young people to use knowledge and abilities so they can cope to real life challenges. Each phase of the PISA program takes place every three years and searches the knowledge and skills in the areas of reading comprehension, mathematics and science, of 15 year old pupils.

The aim of the PISA program, on the mathematical literacy is to assess the ability to apply mathematical knowledge to problems of everyday life and their solution varies and depends on the thinking and the sharpness of the students and not the playability or the simply repeat of what was taught as mathematical knowledge.

The knowledge and abilities of children in PISA 2003 (the subject of which they were used in the present study) were evaluated according

to the following parameters:

- a. The mathematical content in which the problems were referred to.
- b. The procedures that were needed to activate in order to connect different conditions were observed with mathematics in the subsequent problem solving.
- c. The conditions and frameworks that were used as stimuli during the problem solving.

In the following text there is a presentation of some general conclusions that were derived from evaluation of the 15 year old students in PISA 2003 contest. Afterwards, the procedure of drawing conclusions of our own examination (examination with questionnaire and personal interviews) of 8 pupils of the same age on the PISA 2003 subjects.

2. The rating scale in PISA 2003

In the PISA 2003, students' performance in mathematical literacy was grouped into 6 levels of ability. These grading levels represent target groups of progressive difficulty with Level 6 being the highest and Level 1 the lowest. Later on the content of each level is represented according to the OECD (2004):

At Level 1 (358-420 units) students have such a limited scientific knowledge that it can only be applied to a few, familiar situations. They can present scientific explanations that are obvious and that follow explicitly from given evidence

At level 2 (420 to 482 units) students have adequate scientific knowledge to provide possible explanations in familiar contexts or draw conclusions based on simple investigations. They are capable of direct reasoning and making literal interpretations of the results of scientific inquiry or technological problem solving.

At Level 3 (482-544 units), students can identify clearly described scientific issues in a range of contexts. They can select facts and knowledge to explain phenomena and apply simple models or inquiry strategies. Students at this level can interpret and use scientific concepts from different disciplines and can apply them directly. They can develop short statements using facts and make decisions based on scientific knowledge.

At Level 4 (544 to 606 points), students can

work effectively with situations and issues that may involve explicit phenomena requiring them to make inferences about the role of science or technology. They can select and integrate explanations from different disciplines of science or technology and link those explanations directly to aspects of life situations. Students at this level can reflect on their actions and they can communicate decisions using scientific knowledge and evidence.

At level 5 (606-668 points) students can identify the scientific components of many complex life situations, apply both scientific concepts and knowledge about science to these situations, and can compare, select and evaluate appropriate scientific evidence for responding to life situations. Students at this level can use well-developed inquiry abilities, link knowledge appropriately and bring critical insights to situations. They can construct explanations based on evidence and arguments based on their critical analysis

At level 6 (668 - more units) students can consistently identify, explain and apply scientific knowledge and knowledge about science in a variety of complex life situations. They can link different information sources and explanations and use evidence from those sources to justify decisions. They clearly and consistently demonstrate advanced scientific thinking and reasoning, and they demonstrate willingness to use their scientific understanding in support of solutions to unfamiliar scientific and technological situations. (OECD, 2004).

3. Mathematical content - the four dominant concepts

The program PISA, uses four dominant concepts (overarching ideas).

A. Quantity

The major elements of quantity is the perception of the absolute and relative size, the recognition of numerical formulas and use numbers for the symbolism of quantity but also other characteristics of the environment that we can express in quantity (numbering and counting).

B. Space and Shape

The study of shape required to understand the properties of the objects and relationships between them. We must be

able to perceive the space the shapes which image objects.

C. Change and Relationships

The 'Functional' way of thinking meaning to think in terms of the relationships and functions, is one of the fundamental target of teaching Mathematics. The relationships depicted in different ways: algebraic, geometric, with graphical illustrations in the display form.

D. Principle of Uncertainty

The primary meaning of the uncertainty principle introduces us into in two different fields: data and luck. These are respectively the centre of mathematical study in statistics and probability.

The students' abilities that problem solving requires:

1. Ability of Reproduction. The ability of Reproduction is for the student to know, the material was taught, the general truths of mathematics and ordinary ways of presenting problems and be able to remember mathematical theories and properties as well as perform routine operations, to follow procedures, applied established algorithms, to handle types and make calculations.
2. Ability of correlations. The ability of correlations is based on the ability of problem solving is not simply applying a formula, but they refer to almost familiar to the learners procedures in which they can reproduce these problems.

3. Ability of reflection. This package requires from the student some kind of creativity for problem solving. This ability of the student refers to the planning of a strategy that will be followed to be applied. These problems that the students are called to solve are more authentic and definitely unaffordable for them. This ability examines the capacity of justification is examined in more rigorous ways, documentation, abstraction, generalization and application of known models in new contexts (OECD, 2003).

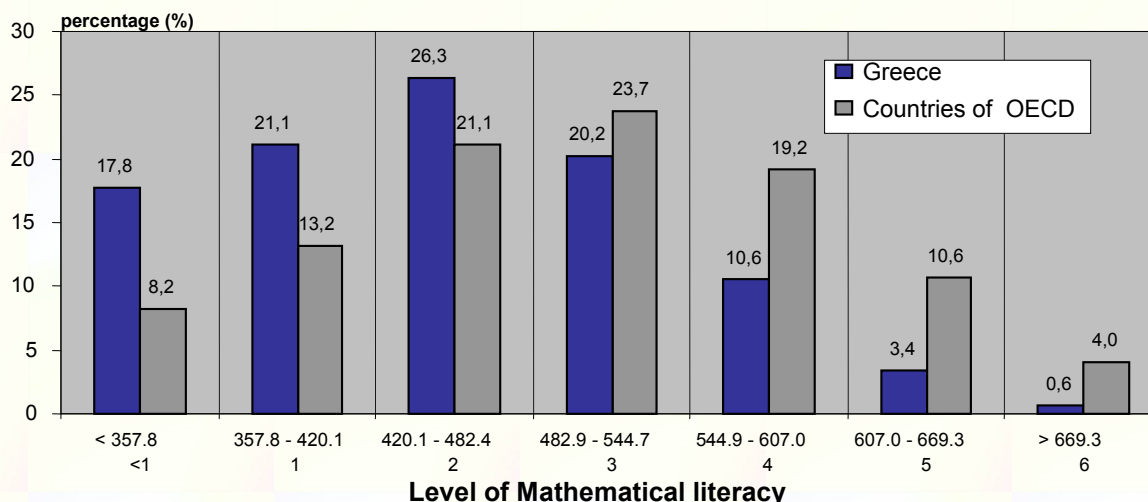
4. Performance of Greek students in PISA 2003

Greece took part in PISA 2000 with 5.425 students from 175 schools and was placed at the 26th position in the OECD countries and in 27th position out of the 40 countries that participated.

In PISA 2003 took place with 4,620 students from 171 schools, 7 of which were private and was placed at the 27th position (445 units) among the 29 OECD countries and 32nd out of 40 countries that where part of the research. (K . European Union, 2005).

The performance of Greek students in mathematical literacy in PISA 2003, according to the above levels, is presented to the following table 1:

Table 1: Performance of Greek students compared with other OECD countries in 6 levels.



Knowing that, the level 2 was considered as base for grading of PISA 2003, it is appeared that 38.9% of Greek students failed to perform at the demands of Level 2 testing.

More specific:

- At level 6, with a score greater than 669.3 units, it represents 0.6% of Greek students. Only this small percentage of students can perform the particularly complicated targets of the 6th level.
- At level 5, with a score/ GPA (Grade Point Average) between 607.0 and 669.3 units, it represents 3.4% of students from Greece. The rate is quite low compared to the average of OECD countries.
- At Level 4, with scores between 544.7 and 607.0 units, it represents 10.6% of Greek students.
- At level 3, with a score between 482.4 and 544.7 points, it represents 20.2% of the students. In case of level 3 we see that Greece is close to the average of OECD countries which is 23.7%.
- At level 2, with a score between 420.1 and 482.4 units, it represents 26.3% of Greek students.
- At level 1, with a score between 357.8 and 420.1 units or less, it represents 21.1% of Greek students at Level 1 and 17.8% below it.

In PISA 2003, the overall performance of students can be summarized with the average results for each country, so we see that Hong Kong-China (550 units), Finland (544 units) and Korea (542 units) were placed at the three highest positions, our country was placed at the 27th position among the OECD countries and at the 32th position out of the total countries who participated in the evaluation. The average performance of Greece with Italy, Turkey and Portugal are level 2 (445 units).

From the results of PISA 2003 some of the conclusions that can be drawn for our country are the following:

- The average performance of students in mathematics in our country is placed at level 2, this achievement which is considered marginal from PISA and in this level teenagers reveals skills that allow operational use of mathematics
- Only 0.6% of students can perform highly

complex tasks of Level 6, while 17.8% are not able to achieve their goals of Level 1.

- Greece has a similar performance in the four thematic areas of mathematics assessed in PISA 2003 (Quantity, Space and shape, change and relationships, uncertainty principle) - Slightly higher performance notes in the thematic area of uncertainty with 458 units. More than one quarter of the students of our country could not achieve the targets of Level 2, in all four mathematical areas that were researched.
- Our country is the second-between the countries - members of the OECD in terms of the grade differentiation in mathematics performance between the sexes, men and women, (19units) with Korea as first. The difference in terms of performance between boys and girls becomes greater at the schools classes, reaching 29 degrees.

The PISA 2003 researched the socioeconomic background of education. Some of the important observations for our country are the following:

- The expenditure per student in primary and secondary education increased during the seven years period 1995-2002, at a rate 30%, OECD (2005).
- While the spending per student in the third grade level of education were increased in a percentage higher than 30%, nevertheless our country is in the 21th position among OECD countries in terms of expenditure per student, at the higher education institutions OECD (2005).
- Greece did not spend 4% of GDP for investment in education, while the OECD average is 6.1%, this places Greece at the 27th position.
- The level of financing of higher education from private sources is below 4%.
- The salary level of the teachers places Greece at the 27th position in all OECD countries.
- Our country takes the first place in the ascending scale participation in "lifelong education", and only a small percentage

under 5% of the working class participated in a training program OECD (2005).

- Women who live in our country and have a low educational level are likely not to work compared with: a) men who have a similar level of education and b) women with a higher educational level.

Generally, as far as Greece is concerned boys with no significant difference with girls and most important distinction is the fact that the majority of children's performance in mathematics that is evaluated at Level 5 and 6 are boys. It also becomes obvious that a large percentage of our country's children - especially girls, find it difficult to understand, judge and infiltrate into a problematic situation with mathematics context.

Even Greece is among the countries that placed at the percentage over 20% of 15 year old students could be classified as "functionally illiterate" as their performance in literacy in the language was on the first level and below.

Our country is placed between the third position among OECD countries as far as is concerned the workload of the homework. But our students are occupied with the courses more hours than all the participating countries, because they take lessons outside of school (private lessons) 5.3 hours per week, followed by Turkey with 4.1 hours per week. OECD (2004, pp. 431).

5. Methodology

5.1. Participants

The survey was conducted at the beginning of May 2012, just before the final exams in June, in a high school of Florina. The participating students from the third class of high school where eight, specifically 4 boys and 4 girls from two different classes. The performance of these students in school as it shows on Graf 2, were of excellent (grade 20) to very good (grade 16) with GPA 18.37 / 20. The two classes had different math teacher, who informed the researcher that the performance of the students had no major discrepancies. Below we can see the performance of 8 students in school and in the research.

Table 2: Performance of 8 students in school and research

STUDENTS	Grading in math. at school	Success in our testing	Success Rate
Student 1. M1	19	35/43	81, 5%
Student 2. M2	20	32/43	74, 5%
Student 3. M3	18	29/43	67, 5%
Student 4. M4	20	25/43	58%
Student 5. M5	17	24/43	56%
Student 6. M6	20	19/43	44%
Student 7. M7	16	19/43	44%
Student 8. M8	17	19/43	44%

5.2. Procedure

The research was conducted in two phases. In the first phase the subjects were asked to answer an essay of 43 questions (the total amount of questions at the PISA exams Pwas 85) were grouped accordingly to the four dominant mathematical concepts (Quantity, Space and shape, change and relationships, uncertainty principle). To essay there was a pilot testing on two students of the Third class of high school (2 girls) who were not part of our survey sample. The reason of the pilot test was designed to assess the time required for the completion. After the pilot examination the maximum time of exercise was placed at one hour and a half. Before the beginning of the problem solving it was explained to the students the purpose of this research and emphasized that the data collected will be used anonymously. Then the examination material was given to the students without any help, during school time.

The second phase of the study included interviews. The interviews were conducted just before the final exams of the students and after consultation with the school and the students themselves. All students participated in the interviews and the time of each interview was according to the number of solutions of each student that presenting research interest. After the interviews were given a questionnaire to investigate the way students think about issues concerning school, mathematics, relationships between students and teachers, about the way of lessons teaching and finally their opinion on the subjects that were asked to answer in this review.

6. Results

6.1. The performance of students

According to table 2, we observe that the performance of students that had a high grade at school, are not so good. These students succeed in the problems of PISA on average

58.5%, we can see characteristically a student with excellent grade in school (20) not even answer correctly to the half of the questions (44% success).

Below table 3 shows the performance of the 8 students in the four dominant concepts and the individual abilities that is required to solve it.

Table 3: Performance of the 8 students in the four dominant concepts and the individual skill that required for problem solving

Dominant sense	Ability	Number of questions	Success
Change and relationships	Reproduction	6	31/48 (64.5%)
	Correlation	10	34/80 (42.5%)
	Reflection	1	4/8 (50%)
Quantity	Reproduction	3	16/24 (66.5%)
	Correlation	5	25/40 (62.5%)
	Reflection	3	24/24 (100%)
Space and shape	Reproduction	4	28/32 (87.5%)
	Correlation	5	16/40 (40%)
	Reflection	1	Eighth (12.5%)
Principle of Uncertainty	Reproduction	1	5/8 (62.5%)
	Correlation	3	12/24 (50%)
	Reflection	1	0/8 (0%)

In the questions that the main concept was the change and relationships that were basically Algebraic, all the 17 questions answered correctly by 52.5% of students. That means that only half of the students are able to answer such questions. Analyzing this concept further in the types of skills that required for the proper knowledge, we can see that the exercises where it is necessary to have the reproductive ability, there was a success level of 64.5%. The ability of correlations achieved 45% of students and the ability of reflection at 50%. There were only one question of change and relations with the ability of reflection which only one student achieved.

Out of 10 questions that they had the dominant concept of Space and Shape answered from 46.5% of the students. More specifically out of these exercises, the reproducibility of students achieved 87.5% in the ability to relate to 40% and finally the ability of reflection 12.5%.

On the 5 Statistical questions with primary concept the Uncertainty principle we observe that the success rate comes to 37.5%. In these questions where were evaluating the reproducibility the students display a success rate of 62.5%, the questions that were rating the

ability to relate the success was 50% and those that evaluated the ability of reflection none student answer correctly.

Finally with the exercises with the dominant concept of Quantity (algebraic basis), students achieved a 76.5% rate. In these questions, the ability to reproduce success rate was 66.5%, the ability of correlations has the success rate of 62.5% and reflection ability by 100%.

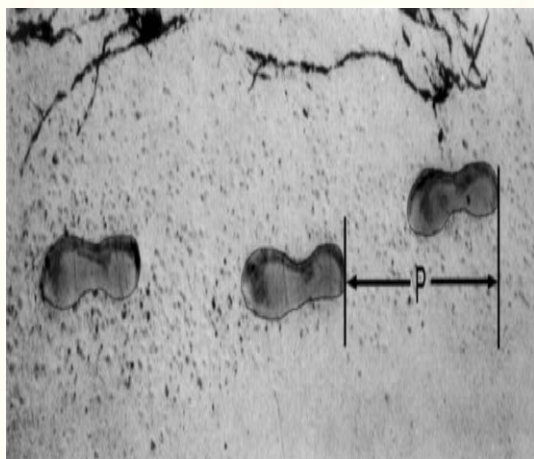
Regarding students' abilities in those three sets of capabilities, recreation, correlations and reflection we observe that: at the *recreation* ability the success of students stands at 70.5%, to the questions that evaluated the ability of *correlations*, success was 49% and finally at the questions that evaluated the ability of the students *reflection* the success was at 40, 5%. We observe that the students in our sample, who are good at school, know the mathematical concepts and can reproduce them into a simple application, while much less and almost half of them have the ability to relate to familiar situations these concepts that are not a straightforward application of formulas. Finally fewer students can explain, they can verify, they can generalize and apply known models in new

contexts.

We mention below two examples of the problems that were given: "Walking" and "rock music concert". At the problem of "Walking" to question 1 answered correctly all students. At the question 2 failed to answer 6 students: 4 of them did not multiply by 0.80 to convert steps per minute to meters per minute. So considering the 112 m / min and not steps per minute as solution of the exercise, the subsequent conversion to km / h was completely wrong. The other 2 students could not find any result, saying that the exercise was very difficult and further information was necessary and more data were needed in order to solve the problem.

This is an exercise that evaluates the ability to reproduce and it seems that students are not able to transform a formula because they do not realize what states the quantities of each element of the relationship.

WALKING



The picture shows the footprints of a man walking. The pacer length P is the distance between the rear of two consecutive footprints.

For men, the formula, $P/n=40$, gives an approximate relationship between n and P where,

n = number of steps per minute, and
 P = pacer length in metres.

Question 1

If the formula applies to Heiko's walking and Heiko takes 70 steps per minute, what is Heiko's pacer length? Show your work.

Question 2

Bernard knows his pacer length is 0.80 metres. The formula applies to Bernard's walking. Calculate Bernard's walking speed in metres per minute and in kilometres per hour.

Show your working out.

ROCK CONCERT

For a Rock concert a rectangular field of size 100 m by 50 m was reserved for the audience. The concert was completely sold out and the field was full with all the fans standing.

Which one of the following is likely to be the best estimate of the total number of people attending the concert?

- a. 2.000
- b. 5.000
- c. 20.000
- d. 50.000
- e. 100.000

At the problem "rock music concert" the correct answer was C. 20,000. 6 out of the 8 students answered wrong, and these 6 students calculated the area of the field and found that it is properly 5.000 sq.m. Three of the students considered this as the solution of the exercise without examining the real condition of the concert (1 square meter per person in a crowded stadium is something that does not correspond to reality). Two of the students subtracted the probable area that the stage could occupy and theorized that 5,000 people were enough for an area of 4.490 sq m. It appears that they had a difficulty to comprehend the real conditions of the problem and what the 5,000 sq.m size means.

From the analysis of the exam results and the interviews afterwards showed that our students had several difficulties to understand the problem. It is known, moreover, that the majority of Greek students are used to face problems with a direct application of formulas that have been taught, (routine problems) to apply the theory that they know, and clearly waiting for some key words that will help them to understand what type or strategy to use to solve the problem. Any ambiguity in pronunciation because of the language, either from lack of keywords which they lead them immediately to the application of known types and methodologies, make students to feel embarrassed and not afford any attempt to solve.

6.2. Students' comments

The following we will present students' comments that were set at the questionnaire that was given to them after the interviews in

relation to: the hours of study, their relationship with mathematics, themes conducted during mathematics courses and the difficulties the students found during the Pisa problem solving.

The 8 students that were examined were all of Greek origin, and specifically residents of Florina and their parents except one high grading student, there were all hold university degree or an associating degree, or had graduated technical schools. We can say that the sample was of the middle socioeconomic status.

Finally about the *study hours*, students stated that the hours they spend for study and play, first comes the study on homework, on average of 2 hours for each student. After that at the same rate following the hours they spend on extracurricular activities and for private lessons, on average of 1.5 hours daily and that much for other hobbies and extracurricular activities. Besides, according to the research of PISA 2003 our students are involved with courses many more hours than all the other students that participate in research.

About *their relationship with mathematics* almost everyone said that enjoys reading mathematics as they find them interesting and useful for their subsequent evolution. Finally they stated as far as the contents of Mathematics is concerned feel comfortable and shelf confident in handling geometric and algebraic concepts and understanding statistical values. They feel unable to read and convert distances under scale for the calculation in example of the gas that a car consumes.

In the relation to the way that the lesson of Mathematics is conducted, students state that during the lesson they are much more quietness than in the other lessons, that the professor encourages them to express their opinions, solve their queries but can not be dealt with the weaknesses of each student individually as there is not enough time. Finally the lesson becomes clear only through their teaching manuals.

Students were asked to remark, in a few lines, the level of difficulty of the questions of PISA 2003 and compare the topics of the competition with the exercises on Mathematics problems that solved and learned in their classroom.

As it was expected, everybody said that the exercises of the test were in general of medium level, with escalating difficulty, smart, etc. and had nothing to do with mathematics that they

learn in high school, because in classroom they have to be perfectly aware of the theory, formulas, methodologies for problem solving so to be able to solve any exercise that could be given to them. Five students claimed that they could solve the exercises given to them without knowledge of mathematics that they gained the last three years. Also there was no stress for the grading of the exercises, made them work enthusiastically because all that was needed to solve these exercises was to be practical and be able to think mathematically. They thought that it was a pleasure and different experience and they would like to participate again in such examination.

7. Conclusion

In this research that we conducted on a small sample of good students in school mathematics, we found out that these students have difficulties and cannot solve easily mathematic problems that examines the ability of Mathematical literacy that is applied to everyday life. It appears that these students know well mathematical school theory, i.e. mathematical formulas and algorithms that they can apply to school subjects on direct application without carrying for the circumstances and the facts of real life situation. These students spend a lot of time in studying school lessons, and this is a conclusion drawn from the PISA results showing that Greek students, compared with students from other countries that participated in the contest, spend more time for studying for school.

Greek students although they spend a lot of time preoccupied with school lessons and extra help from private lessons we recognise that are not in the position to competent the "instrumental" use of Mathematics and are having difficulty to apply their knowledge into every day problem conditions. This shows that there is a general problem with the contents of the curriculum and for the way that mathematics is taught. The children do not learn mathematics out of the preoccupations of complicate exercises that improve their procedural knowledge, but through original problems of everyday life that they involved them in the learning process and help them understand that mathematics can not be distinguished in school Mathematics or not.

During the procedure of the interviews it appears that a large number of students that solved one exercise did not check their answers. This conclusion is confirmed by many previous studies (Polya 1957; Greer, 1997) that shows that students are in used answer verbal problems, disregarding entirely on whether their response is in line with common sense. This tendency of students is up to a degree justified and expected because what they see in the classroom is that a good student is the student who solves problems into a minimum amount of time, and not a student that takes time to think through a problem.

Finally it would be interesting to design an experimental teaching where students would be taught these concepts by solving mathematical problems in order to understand the usefulness of these concepts and connect them into real-life situations, as it was suggested by Verschaffel (2002), Chapman (2004) and Silver (2004).

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PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS' VIEWS ABOUT MODELS IN SCIENCE EDUCATION

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Abstract

Modern curricula stress the necessity for the development of pupils' modeling skills. However, research reports have shown that this development is influenced by the teachers experience in teaching with models and in carrying out modelling activities inside the classroom. Most papers show that teachers front difficulties in teaching models or about models. This paper presents a part of a broader qualitative research, undertaken to investigate the conceptions of pre-service teachers concerning the modes of representation of models. The research sample is related to 15 individuals from Physics department, Elementary School and Nursery School. The semi-structured interview was used as the research tool. The results showed that the symbolic types and the verbal rules are rarely recognised as models by the university students, whereas the tangible dynamic representations and the software are.

Keywords: *Models, modes of representation, teachers' views of models*

1. Introduction

A model in Science tends to mean the initial notion and '*invented idea*' and later the manifested representation a person create with a view to explain the physical reality around him (Gilbert & Osborne, 1980). In the first stage, models start out as conceptual constructions that help us form an image of things we cannot see and they allow us to make predictions concerning unseen aspects of nature, such as the atomic model (Hewitt, 2005). A model may be a theoretical construction and may consist of a complex of theoretical principles (such as, for example, Bohr's quantized shell model of the atom, about which it is given as a principal, that electrons can have stable orbits around the nucleus) but it can also be manifested for the behaviour of a system to be visualized. This can be achieved using tactile constructions, images, maps, objects, dynamic representations by simulation programmes.

Models offer a visualized view of reality and can contribute to the essential understanding of a phenomenon or event. This is a basic reason why models are considered essential tools in teaching of Sciences, in other words, they can be

used as means of gaining knowledge that we want to offer our students (Gilbert et al., 2003, Justi & Gilbert, 2002, Robtain et al., 2006, Portides, 2007). The use of models is particularly effective when the phenomena and the concepts we wish to study are either abstract (as in the concept of the magnetic field), or not observable (as in the atoms and molecules), or they cannot be explained in any other way than by the use of analogies (as in the refraction of light) (Harrison, 2001, Matthews, 2007). As a result, teachers are asked to be in a position to teach their students about models and their functions (Justi & Gilbert, 2002).

Several papers in literature study the difficulties that teachers experience in teaching with or about models and modeling (Grosslight et. al 1991, Ingham & Gilbert 1991, Van Driel & Verloop 1999, Harrison, 2001, Henze et al., 2007). However, in our own country, the pertinent research findings are limited in number. The present qualitative research aims, to a certain degree, to fill this gap: it presents the conceptions of student teachers about the modes of representation of models.

2. The teaching of models in compulsory education

2.1. Forms and modes of representation of models.

In recent years, research in the field of Science teaching has brought to the fore many facets of models. There is a variety of categorizations, either in connection with the forms of models, or in relation to how these are conceived and the way they work. A certain model may belong to more than just one category and may appear in different forms. For example, it might deal with a conceptual representation, such as the existing model in our minds concerning the solar system, but the mode of its representation can be tactile (in a construction), visual (in a sketch) as well as mathematical (the formulae whereby the orbit of the planets around the sun is described). This paper concentrates on the forms of models and the modes of representation whereby they become conceived. In other words, a choice is made of the most important and distinctive, in our opinion, categories of model forms and modes of representation, basing our selection on how frequently they are met in school textbooks

(diagram 1). Thus, we have models as:

Data bases, which consist of data tables, diagrams, illustrations, graphs. Therefore, in this category there belong graphic representations, arithmetic data tables¹, bar graphs, maps and others.

Exact representations such as exact or scale copies, samples or others. In this category belong models which represent a system or object, such as a miniature of a boat.

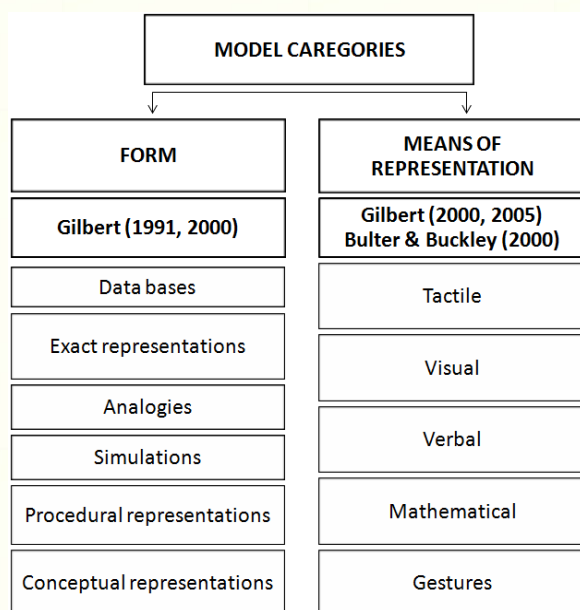
Analogies, models with particular correspondences in relation to a real system. In this category models which are used metaphorically in relation to the system they represent are included, such as the use of a basket ball and a ping pong ball to compare the size of the Sun with that of the Earth.

Simulations, such as simulation games, artificial representations of phenomena, role play games and others.

Procedural representations, such as a system of rules and laws, with directions, shapes matrixes and others. In this category we have models that represent a dynamic procedure of a system or that describe the dynamic correlation of the variables of a system. For example, a rotating vector which represents the periodic movement, is governed by several rules and expresses the correlations of various variables, and thus it constitutes such a model.

Conceptual, theoretical representations, which may include oral and written instructions, mathematical formulae, predictions and hypotheses, conceptual maps etc.

¹ At this point it becomes clear that the term model does not concern a table that includes unrelated data, but a table whose data show a relationship of dependence and from which can stem a theory from around a concept.

Diagram 1: Categories of models

Models can be represented in the following modes:

Concrete mode, which refers to the three-dimensional models constructed from authentic, stable materials, such as a plaster construction for the presentation of a section of a geological layer.

Verbal mode, which signifies the description of entities and the relationship between them, either with the description of the nature of the material from which a real model is constituted, or with the verbal description of the metaphors and analogies upon which a model is based. The verbal depiction of the solar system model with reference to the laws which govern the movement of the planets conveys this means.

Mathematical mode, which includes mathematical expressions and equations, such as the classical ideal gas law (equation of state).

Visual mode, which refers to the representation of a model using data tables, diagrams and mobile depictions, as is the two-dimension pictorial representation of the structure of an atom.

Gesture mode, related to a mode of representing a model by using the movement of parts of the body. The law of the left hand that is used for the representation of the direction of the vector

of angular velocity during the rotation of a solid body is evidence of this mode of representation.

2.2. Teacher's views about modes of representation of models

There is a great deal of research that has related that teachers experience problems in teaching about models or applying modeling procedures in the classroom (Grosslight et. al 1991, Ingham & Gilbert 1991, Van Driel & Verloop 1999, Harrison, 2001, Henze et al., 2007). The main difficulties are confronted in the recognition and the application not only of the interpretive function of models, but mainly in the recognition of models' ability to predict a systems' behaviour or other phenomena (Treagust et. al, 2002, Cullin & Crawford 2003, De Jong, Van Driel, Verloop, 2005). It appears that teachers' knowledge of models and modeling is limited to visualized tactile models while they do not recognize sufficiently their nature and functions. Furthermore, they experience difficulty in explaining the term "model" the way it is used by the curricula, which they are requested to accomplish during Science teaching (Justi & Van Driel, 2005).

Teachers' views of models are classified by researchers into levels of knowledge based on how far they deviate from the scientific views (Cullin & Crawford, 2003, Grosslight, 1991, Πετρίδου, 2008, Windschitl & Thomson, 2006, Στεφανή & Τσαπαρλή, 2009). As an example, in Windschitl's & Thomson's (2006) research, the conceptions of the teachers in their sample with reference to the nature and functions of models are classified into 3 levels, in which those in level (1) is comprised of those who deviate from the scientific view, whereas level (3) is comprised of the answers approaching the scientific view.

In Greece curricula of study for Science² encompass proposals related to the use or, in addition, the creation of models: for example, the teachers are requested to plan activities during which they will "discuss the role and nature of density models" (page 76). However, little research has focused on the investigation of conceptions of pre-service and in-service

² In Greece for the last two years 2 curricula have been implemented: the Interdisciplinary Joint Framework of Programmes of Study for Physics and Chemistry and the piloted New Programme of Studies

teachers concerning their views of models (Πετρίδου, 2008, Στεφανή & Τσαπαρλής, 2009).

3. Research methodology

This paper is related to a part of a broader research, the subject of which was the investigation of future teachers concerning 4 facets of models: their nature, characteristics, functioning and forms. A semi-structured interview was planned and validated for the gathering of data with 4 main questions, one for each facet.

In this article the results are pertaining to the views of the teachers concerning the modes of representation of models. Specifically, there is an attempt to answer the research question:

Which forms and modes of representation do the students recognize as models?

3.1. The sample

The 15 individuals in the sample were chosen from: Elementary School, Nursery School and Physics department, based on the following criteria: the student teachers from the Physics department selected the "Teaching of Physics" course, while the others followed the "Sciences" course. The codification of the individuals in the sample was undertaken based on their status (S-students) and their School of Study (E - Elementary student teacher, N-Nursery student teacher, P-Physics): for example, SN5 is a member of the school of Nursery students who is the fifth member of the group of such teachers participating in the research.

3.2. The research tool

The semi-structured interview was selected as the most suitable research tool as a mean to investigate in depth the conceptions of student teachers (Flick, 2006, Patton, 2002).

The initial interview questions were:

- Pre-determined question: "Do you think models can have different forms?"
- Assistant question: "Can you give me an example?"

Following that, they were presented with 6 cases with the assistant question, "do you think this case is a model? Why?"

The 6 models are presented in table 1.

Model 1 – Educational Software: This model was used for the teaching of the phenomena

of floating / sinking, using the simulation of the sinking of a ship (Kariotoglou et al., 2009). It is a *visual, simulation model*. It is also dynamic because it is mobile and interactive because the user can observe the results of his actions.

Model 2 – Verbal rule: These proposals constitute a verbal model for the prediction of floating / sinking phenomena. This is a verbal model consisting of a conceptual, theoretic representation.

Model 3 – Depictions of density: This includes three models: the representation of the density of materials with different colours, with more or fewer lines, and with dots. The final line of the table is made up of the 'dots-per-box' model (Havu-Nuutinen, 2005, Snir, 1997, Kariotoglou et al., 2009). It is a model consisting of a table – data base.




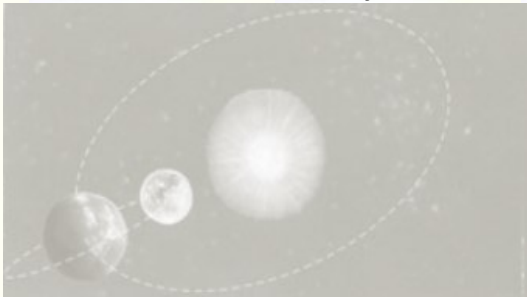
Model 4 – Symbolic type: This symbolic model is the relationship the extent of density describes compared to the mass and volume of a material, for elementary and secondary school level education. It is a model that constitutes a *conceptual, theoretical representation* that includes the visual, verbal and mainly mathematical modes of representation.

Model 5 – Heliocentric system: The heliocentric system of sun-earth-moon (Hewitt, 2005, p.155) is a *tactile*, dynamic construction, with which the movement of the Earth around itself and the Sun can be studied and constitutes a *tactile* model of *exact representation*³.

Model 6 – Sketch of the heliocentric system: the sketch of the system is a static mode of presentation of the Sun-Earth-Moon system. It is an *exact* presentation model, from which the heliocentric system may be represented.

³ The picture of the specific dynamic model represents a model of the sun, moon, and earth with which the teacher who uses it explains tidal phenomena, the analysis of which exempts from this paper's framework.

Table 1: Representations given during the research

Models	Forms – Modes of representation
1. Educational software 	Simulation – Visual (dynamic)
2. Verbal rule “When the density of an object (homogenous or composite) is greater than the density of a liquid the object sinks. When the density of an object (homogenous or composite) is less than the density of a liquid the object floats”	Conceptual representation - Verbal
3. Depictions of density 	Data base – Visual (static)
4. Symbolic type $\rho = m/V$	Conceptual representation - Mathematical
5. Heliocentric system 	Exact representation – Tactile (dynamic)
6. Sketch of the heliocentric system 	Exact representation – Visual (static)

3.3. Analysis of the data

The method utilized for the analysis of the data was content analysis (Cohen et al., 2007, Mertens, 2005, Patton, 2002). The data processing was achieved with the recognition of a unit phrase which refers to one phrase with integral semantic content, that is to say whatsoever phrasal entity with complete meaning. In a unit phrase, there are ascribed entry grades (EG) that are analogous to the meaning that could be extracted from the student's response. The EG with common meaning are grouped together in the same category which is codified according to the semantic key word of the student's response. For example, in the analysis of the unit phrase: "a video should be used, or a picture, or an object" the EG related to "variety of forms" is ascribed. This concerns, in effect, the references that each student makes to key words that constitute the core meaning of his/her response.

4. Results

4.1. Results related to the diversity of forms of models

The results show that from the total of 15 students; 7 consider that a model can be presented in a variety of forms and 8 are not sure or give vague responses (specifically 2 students give no response at all). Table 2 presents indicative answers of the students from these two categories.

Table 2: Indicative student responses

Student code	Indicative response
SE5	<i>"Yes, the density model. If I want to teach density in Elementary School, obviously I won't refer to the type, but to the numbered die ... Number 9 represents very great density and 1 much less density."</i>
SN1	<i>"Yes, like through software, which will be closer to that which someone will see and comprehend; the other could be like a sketch, or a construction."</i>
SS1	<i>"A model would be a heliocentric system; a model could also be a simulation on a computer"</i>

Student code	Indicative response
SE2	<i>".. it depends on what they want to show.."</i>
SN4	<i>"yes, each person can show it whichever way s/he thinks fit"</i>
SS4	<i>"At this moment, nothing specific comes to mind"</i>

4.2. Results related to the recognition of a given case as a model

With reference to the representations given to the student teachers, the results are presented in diagram 2. The diagram includes the distribution of the number of students giving positive responses (POS), responses within which they place preconditions concerning whether a representation could be a model (PRE) and negative responses (NEG).

It, thus, appears that the majority of students recognize the heliocentric system as a model (86.7%). Additionally, high positive percentages exist for software (80%) and the depiction of density (66.7%). In contrast, the verbal rule and the symbolic type are not recognized by the majority as models, (73.3% and 60% respectively). The sketch of the heliocentric system presents itself as the most controversial model because the responses are divided into three categories. This seems to contradict the results of the first question, because the majority of students who had been giving positive answers concerning the diversity of the forms of models were presenting as examples the sketches and pictures, whereas in this phase they were either negative or accepted with preconditions, the representations as models.

The results of the affirmative responses are presented in diagram 3, in which the students supplying positive responses for each representation per group are enumerated, as well as the total number of positive answers per group. It is clear that the individuals in the Elementary student teachers group give the most positive responses (20 EG), a fact which means that they are more flexible when terming a representation as a model. Furthermore, it is discerned that only in this group are the 2 positive responses of the verbal rule presented and the 2 (out of 3 positive responses) for the symbolic type. These two individuals recognize

each representation they are presented with as a model.

The individuals in the Nursery student teachers group give the fewest positive responses (11 EG), not one recognizes the verbal rule or the symbolic type as a model and just one gives a positive response concerning the heliocentric system sketch.

We put down these results to, on the one hand, the fact that the majority of students originally have a theoretical education background during Secondary Education, and, on the other, the approach of models in pre-school education is not necessitating the use of such representations so that neither in their degree studies do they progress to commensurate analyses.

Indicative of this, the case of SN3 is mentioned. Concerning the verbal rule he replies:

SN3: *"The definition of the theory....no, for me it's just a theory, not a model".*

In the Physics student teachers group there are 14 EG which correspond to positive responses. An interesting finding concerns the fact that the software is not considered a model by all the students in the Physics group. This occurs because they are unsure as to whether it is completely understandable and explanatory, because it seems to not satisfy some scientific criteria, such as "you cannot see the forces

which impel the motion of the ship", thereby substantiating it and bringing it "nearer to Physics". However, all the students recognize the representation of density as a model. This was considered an interesting finding in combination with the few affirmative responses tabulated in the remaining representations.

Worthy of mention is the fact that no physics student teacher considered the verbal rule as a model and, moreover, that 1 student recognizes the symbolic type as a model. These two findings illustrate that the students' conceptions about the different means of depiction of models are limited and, indeed deal with the two depictions taught in compulsory education.

SN5 and SP4 are considered special cases since they state that the heliocentric system is not a model, but the model is what is being represented through the construction, together with the laws and the principles governing the system and the rationale each person has concerning this matter. For example, SP4's answer was:

SP4: *"The model is what we call the solar system. What you show me (the tactile heliocentric system) is an experimental arrangement that shows this model. The model is all... the model is really the concepts. And how they are connected between them..."*

Diagram 2: Results of student replies about the mode of representation

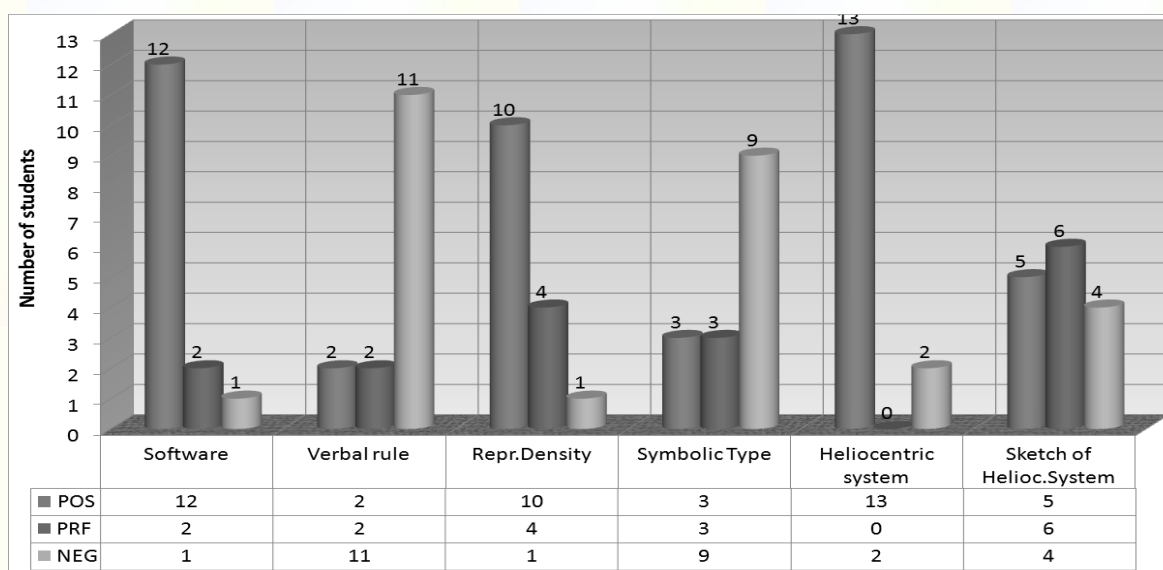
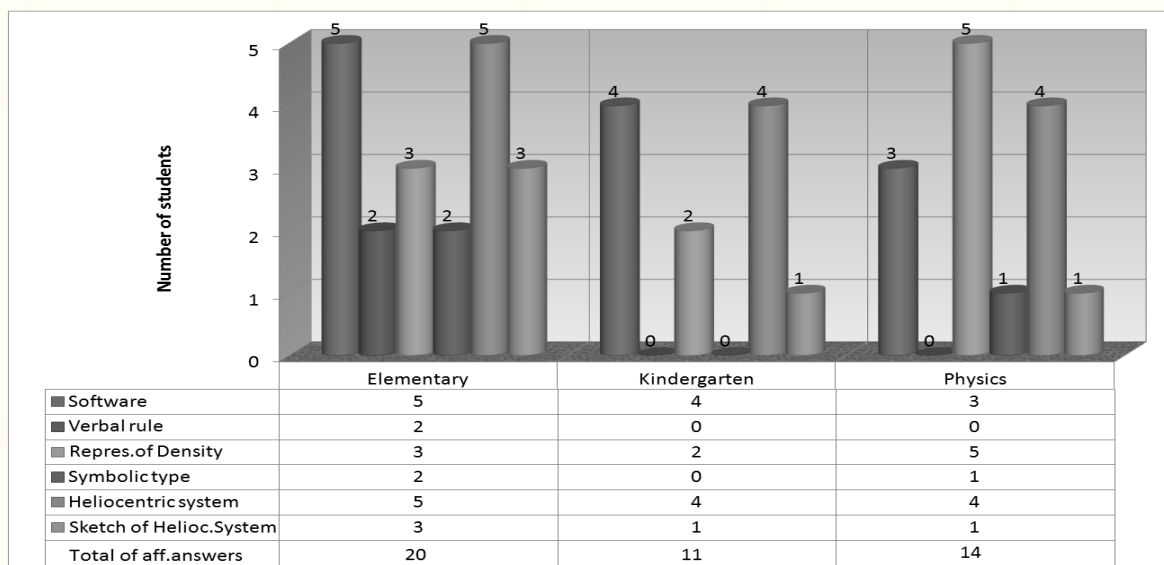


Diagram 3: Results of the tabulation of affirmative responses group by group

4.3. Conclusions – Discussion

The conceptions of the student teachers of the sample were grouped together and tabulated at three levels (see table 3). In level 1 belong the students' responses which were either vague, or diverged greatly from the scientific view of models. Specifically, the core perception concerning this level is that the models are only the tangible objects. In level 2 belong the conceptions which presents a more developed knowledge about models in relation to the first level, while diverging less from the scientific ones e.g. the models signify representations, even abstract notions. In level 3 belong the conceptions that coincide more with the scientific ones and show a more composite rationale concerning the models (for example, in level 3 the core perception is that models are multi-dimensional tools of interpretation of phenomena and concepts and can constitute abstract representations).

Table 3: Perception levels about the forms and modes of representation of models

Teachers' levels of knowledge	
1	Level 1 Models are objects and dynamic representations depicting a system to be demonstrated and comprehended.
2	Level 2 Models may be objects, dynamic representations, tables and sketches, if explained suitably, are

Teachers' levels of knowledge

realistic, substantiated / documented and clear and are used in correlation to the people they are meant for.

- 3 Level 3 Models may be any representation or theoretical construction including both verbal rules and symbolic types, which is used for the description and interpretation of a concept or a system.

In conclusion, the research question "*Which forms and modes of representation do the students recognize as models?*" may be answered as follows:

Most conceptions are tabulated in level 1, and mainly belong to the Nursery group. There are students whose conceptions belong to two levels. Moreover, for a representation to be recognized by some students as a model, it must satisfy criteria such as the level of understanding it provides, how descriptive it is or the supervision it offers, as well as the precision and clarity with which it represents the objective. To sum up, only with 2 students did we observe conceptions belonging to level 3.

The research findings demonstrate the need for the careful planning of the teaching of models in higher education - in Schools and Departments where pre-service teachers study, because those individuals will be invited to apply

modeling procedures in practice. Thus, what is essential is the planning of appropriate study programmes and the introduction of Science subjects with a model based approach, taking into consideration the disparateness with which the students of each School perceive models and Science in general. As Wiechert (2003) specifies, the challenge in university education is the teaching of the "art of modeling" in an effective way.

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PROCESSING HYPOTHESES FOR DETERMINING ERRORS IN MATHEMATICS IN EARLY EDUCATION

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Abstract

Studying mathematics, as well as any other discipline, is followed by numerous difficulties which are evident in the omissions of the students' achievements, and which can be noted by the errors students make when solving problems. However, not in many disciplines detection of omissions and their removal in time is particularly important as it is in mathematics, because if they are not removed, they will multiply and become an insurmountable obstacle in the process of adopting new skills and knowledge further on. The proposed article in the area of methods in teaching mathematics in primary education aims to determine the causes for omissions in the knowledge of students from theoretical point of view as well as to investigate the real causes for omission occurrence, which have been quite diverse so far. Also, the purpose of the article is to outline methods for correcting errors, as well as to consider a possible need for a different approach to designing a new syllabus of teaching mathematics and its implementation. Nevertheless, the reasons for omissions in the students' knowledge can be subjective in nature, i.e. they can be a result of an incomplete or poor-quality implementation of the syllabus. Therefore, we suggest conducting an empirical research which should provide guidelines for correction of the omissions in the students' knowledge.

Keywords: *knowledge of mathematics, omissions, determination*

1. Introduction

Numerous attempts have been undertaken for quite a period in order to improve the entire educational system including mathematics teaching. However, the research carried out by international expert associations reveals that despite the innumerable projects on education modernization, most of which refer to the mathematics teaching itself, the results are still unsatisfactory which can be drawn from the ranking of our students in most of the research dealing with these problems. In addition, each ranking shows only the actual situation but it does not state the reasons behind it. Hence *the need* arises for conducting a research based on certain parameters that affect the outcome of

the educational process. Following these needs, a research needs to be conducted determining the causes for occurrence of omissions in the mathematical knowledge in primary education.

It is an undeniable fact that the errors students make while solving mathematical problems, i.e. the omissions in the mathematical knowledge and skills are multiplied in a manifold manner while acquiring new knowledge and skills. Thus, it is clear that detecting and correcting these mistakes in time can considerably improve the acquisition of new knowledge and the overall student achievement as well. Hence the definition of the research problem which is *determining the causes for omission occurrence in the mathematical knowledge in primary education as well as proposing methods for correction of the omissions in the students' achievements in primary education.*

2. Student's errors in Primary Education

In accordance with the research focus and objectives, we formulated one main hypothesis: *"A certain error made by students is accidental".*

It means that this certain error has not been repeated a considerable number of times and therefore it is not a result of the weaknesses in the syllabi, the text-based didactic means and the teaching implementation carried out by the teachers.

In order to detect the omissions in the students' knowledge and skills, knowledge tests have been used, which are prepared by the teachers themselves, as well as a certain number of classes observation for students from Ss. Kliment Ohridski, Pedagogical Faculty, Skopje. In this case, unified tests of knowledge have not been used since different schools use different textbooks approaching the syllabus with different methods and on different levels.

Due to the inability of obtaining simple random sample (spatial and organizational problems for conducting tests for detection of omissions in the students' knowledge and skills), a stratified sample has been used:

- 500 second grade students;
- 600 third grade students;
- 600 fourth grade students;
- 500 fifth grade students;

In this part, we will focus on the analysis and

the interpretation of some of the obtained results from the research. In addition, in order to test the main hypothesis we will first present the number of students from each grade separately who make errors in terms of each module:

Second grade modules: (Krsteska, B., Dimovski, D., Temelkovska, K. & Pankova, D. (2011). *Mathematics for second grade in nine year primary education*. Skopje: Prosvetno Delo.)

1. Word problems,
2. Numbers up to 20: Addition and subtraction up to 20,
3. Problems.

Third grade modules: (Atanasova-Pachemska, T., Ristovska, Zh., Mamuti, L. & Ramadani, S. (2008). *Mathematics for third grade in nine year primary education*. Skopje: Prosvetno Delo.)

1. Word problems
2. Numbers up to 100: Addition and subtraction up to 100
3. Numbers up to 100: Multiplication and division up to 100
4. Equations with unknown addend, unknown minuend and unknown subtrahend.
5. Equations with unknown multiplier, unknown dividend and unknown divisor, and
6. Measurement.

Fourth grade modules: (Dimovski, D., Krsteska, B., Jordanovska, P., Dimitrievska, S. & Paunoska, V. (2009). *Mathematics for fourth grade in nine year primary education*. Ministry of Education and Science, Skopje.)

1. Numbers up to 1000: Addition and subtraction up to 1000, multiplication and division up to 1000
2. Word problems
3. Measurement units, and
4. Geometric figures in the plane

Fifth grade modules:

1. Theory of sets
2. Working with data
3. Measurement
4. Addition, subtraction, multiplication and division up to 1000000
5. Fractions, and
6. Plane shapes

Table 1 shows the total number of students

and the number of second grade students who make errors for each module:

Table 1

Total number of students	500
Students who make errors while solving word problems	120
Students who make error regarding the module Numbers up to 20	80
Students who make errors while solving problems	140

Table 2 shows the total number of students and the number of third grade students who make errors for each module:

Table 2

Total number of students	600
Students who make errors while solving word problems	130
Students who make errors regarding the module Numbers up to 100: addition and subtraction	75
Students who make errors regarding the module Numbers up to 100: multiplications and division	95
Students who make errors regarding the module Equations with unknown addend, unknown minuend and unknown subtrahend	128
Students who make errors regarding the module Equations with unknown multiplier, unknown dividend and unknown divisor	134
Students who make errors regarding the module Measurement	112

Table 3 shows the total number of students and the number of fourth grade students who make errors for each module:

Table 3

Total number of students	600
Students who make errors while solving word problems	115
Students who make errors regarding the module Numbers up to 1000: Addition, subtraction, multiplication and division	87

Total number of students	600
Students who make errors regarding the module Geometric figures	109
Students who make errors regarding the module Measurement units	108

Table 4 shows the total number of students and the number of fifth grade students who make errors for each module:

Table 4

Total number of students	500
Students who make errors regarding the module Theory of sets	77
Students who make errors regarding the module Addition, subtraction, multiplication and division up to 1000000	81
Students who make errors regarding the module Working with data	82
Students who make errors regarding the module Measurement	94
Students who make errors regarding the module Plane shapes	65
Students who make errors regarding the module Fractions	69

In order to test the main hypothesis, it is going to be presumed that a certain type of error is of a random character if the probability of the same error to be made is less than 0.05. Furthermore, the data from Table 1 point that the empirical probability that a second grade student is to make an error in the three analyzed modules are the following: $\frac{120}{500} = 0,24$, $\frac{80}{500} = 0,16$ and $\frac{140}{500} = 0,28$. It means that the empirical probabilities are considerably higher thus concluding that the errors are not accidental. It has to be noticed that this conclusion can be verified when testing the hypothesis $H_0 : p \leq p_0 = 0,05$ contrary to the alternative hypothesis $H_1 : p > p_0 = 0,05$. In addition, if $H_0 : p \leq p_0$ proves to be correct, then $\frac{S_n - np_0}{\sqrt{np_0q_0}}$ has distribution $N(0;1)$, in which case for the errors while solving word problems $n = 500$, $S_n = 120$ and so forth. For a certain significance level α from the table with normal

distribution, the quantile is $z_{1-\alpha}$ which brings

$$P_{H_0} \left\{ \frac{S_n - np_0}{\sqrt{np_0q_0}} \geq z_{1-\alpha} \right\} = \alpha.$$

Furthermore, if for the realization of x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n with sample X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n can be noted that

$$\frac{S_n - np_0}{\sqrt{np_0q_0}} \geq z_{1-\alpha}, \quad \text{then the hypothesis}$$

$$H_0 : p \leq p_0 \text{ is rejected, and if } \frac{S_n - np_0}{\sqrt{np_0q_0}} < z_{1-\alpha} \text{ is}$$

the case, then it can be stated that the sample X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n does not contradict the hypothesis $H_0 : p \leq p_0$, ([52]).

Similarly, the data from Table 2 show that the empirical probabilities that a second grade student is to make an error in the six analyzed modules are the following: $\frac{130}{600} = 0,2167$, $\frac{75}{600} = 0,125$, $\frac{95}{600} = 0,1583$, $\frac{128}{600} = 0,2133$, $\frac{134}{600} = 0,2233$ and $\frac{112}{600} = 0,1867$ which means that the empirical probabilities are considerably higher, thus concluding that the errors are not accidental.

In the same way, it can be concluded from the data from Table 3 and the data from Table 4 that the errors third and fourth grade students make and the errors fifth grade students make are not accidental.

Ultimately, it can be concluded from the above stated facts that the main hypothesis regarding all types of errors students from second to fifth grade make is rejected which is:

Certain error the students commit is accidental which means that that same error does not repeat for a considerable number of times thus not being a result of the weaknesses in the syllabi, the text-based didactic means and the teaching implementation carried out by the teachers.

3. Conclusion

In the previous analysis we focused on the formulation of the main hypothesis. Since it was rejected, it is quite logical to formulate the next specific hypothesis:

- First specific hypothesis: A certain error is a result of the mathematics syllabus, which means that the syllabus demands are not coordinated with the students'

capabilities or that the syllabus is inconsistent.

- Second specific hypothesis: Certain error is a result of the poor elaboration of the syllabus regarding the text-based didactic means which means that the syllabus demands are not coordinated with the students' capabilities or that the syllabus is inconsistent.
- Third specific hypothesis: Certain error is a result of the teaching implementation conducted by the teachers which means that there is a need of additional teacher training.

The verification of the last three hypotheses definitely requires a more complex study and it will be the goal of our research further on.

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THE EXPONENTIAL FUNCTION WITH GEOGEBRA. AN ACTION RESEARCH

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Abstract

In recent decades, some of the weaknesses of secondary school students to learn, even more, to "do" algebra are attributed to the approach and the teaching of school algebra. Sufficient research evidence suggests that the approach of algebra should be more conceptual than procedural. The emphasis must be on recognition, representation and interpretation of relations through solving real world problems rather, than manipulations without meaning. The teaching methods must be student- centered and collaborative. Thus, the notion of function becomes the core content of school algebra and the role of the teacher- researcher is revealed in the learning process. It is also argued that the use of new technology can enhance the perception of a functional approach to algebra. Based on this discussion, we implemented an action research with second grade Unified School students referred to the teaching of the exponential functions. We used the software Geogebra in collaborative learning environment to teach the exponential functions' family through problem solving procedures. The goals of the study were to examine whether this innovative teaching method contributes to deeper knowledge of the exponential functions, combining procedural and conceptual understanding. In addition to this, we examined whether this method motivates the students and whether or not they adopt positive attitudes towards the subject. The findings are positive according to an assessment test completed by students and the reports of two class observers and the researcher.

Keywords: *exponential function family, teaching with technology, conceptual understanding, multiple representations*

1. Introduction

International competitions and surveys show that students find it difficult to learn and even more to "do" algebra (PISA 2003). In recent decades, the students' difficulty is associated with the formal approach and the traditional teaching of algebra (Bartolini Bussu 1995; Sfard 2001). The ineffectiveness of teaching algebra is also associated with the massification of secondary education, which resulted in creating a diverse student population as far as capabilities

and interests in classrooms are concerned.

The efforts to improve the effectiveness of teaching and learning of algebra converge to see algebra in a different perspective, to give a broader meaning to the term "Teaching Algebra", to be more precise in what it can mean "Learning Algebra", to utilize the potential of technology and to rethink the role of the teacher and the student in the algebra classroom.

Students should cultivate their physical strength to see the mathematical elements of a situation, to ponder over them, to earn conclusions. The conceptual understanding, emphasizing on connections among different pieces of "knowledge", should be the goal of teaching algebra (Hilbert and Lefevre, 1986). Certainly, however, this process must be carried out with pleasure, confidence and responsibility by students. If algebra is to be of value to all students, we need to find contents and ways of teaching to reach those who, at present, for a variety of reasons, are disadvantaged, unmotivated or uncooperative.

In this quest, the meaning of algebra needs to be evident to the students. According to Radford et al (2004), this meaning is generated at the crossroads of various symbolic mathematical and non mathematical systems in problem solving. The recognition, expression and interpretation of functional dependencies between quantities are key competence for problem solving. The practices and the transformative capabilities could be integrated in the study of basic families of functions. Thus, the function becomes a core concept of algebra (Fey & Good 1985).

Studies have shown that students encounter difficulties with their learning of functions (Dreyfus & Eisenberg 1983, Kieran 1990, Kaldrymidou & Economou 1992, Schwartz & Dreyfus 1995, Thomas 2000), and applications (PISA 2003) when taught in traditional way and made recommendations to address them (Kaput 1992, Haimes 1996, Thomas 2000, Manouchehri 2004).

Technology has opened the doors to many wonderful opportunities for teaching functions. By using it, the function approach can change. It is possible to start with any representation of a function and move to any other. The calculations can be used deliberately to introduce the function concept. The graphs can be introduced early to offer representation of linear, quadratic

and exponential functions' families. Zbiek and Heid(2001) claim that using cursors, the displays show spontaneously the symbolic expressions and the graphs of a family of functions and allow the study and generalization of its properties. The connection and the dynamic manipulation of representations of a function in appropriate technology environments can provide new opportunities for problems solving and the development of algebraic reasoning. The formalities may be delayed. Lagrange (2003) argues that in technical environments, conceptual learning evolves along with techniques transformative activities.

The new extended perceptions about the concepts and procedures of algebra content and approach have gradually turned the mathematical community's interest to student-centered teaching methods and challenge all kinds of algebra- teacher's knowledge (content, pedagogy and pedagogical content knowledge). The design of new paths for effective teaching and learning of algebra is important to involve teachers in a new role. The role of the teacher-researcher who designs, teaches, reflects upon, changes or confirms his practice of teaching and communicates and shares his experiences.

2. The research

2.1. Introduction

In the context of the above discussion about improving the teaching and learning of algebra for all students, we applied an experimental teaching intervention at second grade students about the family of exponential functions and examined whether it improved cognitive and emotional students' responses more than a traditional teaching. The research method we chose was action research.

2.2. Methodology

60 second- graded students of Unified Lyceum, divided in three groups and two mathematics teachers of the same school, as class observers, participated in the research. The first group (25 students), the control group, was taught traditionally, the second group (25 students), the experimental group, was taught experimentally and the third group (10 students) participated in pilot testing of the survey. In the traditional teaching and experimental intervention the

problems solved referred to the same themes and ideas. The survey was designed and implemented by the researcher who was also the teacher of the two groups. To select the groups we got into account the program of each class, the teachers' program and the availability of the computer lab at school. The experimental teaching was attended by the teachers-observers who submitted reports together with the researcher.

2.3. Research questions

The research questions which addressed were, whether the teaching of exponential functions' family, through problem solving, using the computer program Geogebra, in collaborative learning environment, contributes to conceptual understanding more than a traditional teaching. We also examined whether this innovative teaching motivates the students and whether or not the students adopt positive attitude towards the subject.

2.4. The research stages

The research was evolved in three stages. The first stage involved contacts and discussions with teachers-observers, preparing students, identifying prior students' knowledge, research designing and pilot testing. The second stage involved the action, namely the implementation and observation of the experimental and traditional teaching. The third stage involved the evaluation of the action. In the first stage, we found that the students' prior knowledge on functions was satisfactory. The percent of success was 68% in the control group and 72% in the experimental group. Next we present a part of the second and the third stage.

2.4.1. Stage 2. Action: The experimental teaching

The curriculum for B' class in Lyceum according to the Greek Educational System suggests 6-7 credit hours for teaching exponential function and requires students to be able to define the exponential function and know its basic properties, to design the graph of an exponential function, to solve simple exponential equations and inequalities graphically, to describe the process of defining the number 'e' and solve problems of exponential change in the end of the teaching.

2.4.1.1. General description and goals of the Experimental Teaching

The experimental teaching was performed in March 2012 in the school's computer lab. It lasted 6 teaching hours. Its aim was to achieve the objectives of the curriculum with respect to exponential functions through conceptual understanding, students' motivation and acquisition of positive attitudes towards the subject. Thus, we chose to introduce new concepts through problem situations, to experiment within the interactive environment of Geogebra and promote guided discovery through worksheets. Work in cooperative learning environment (heterogeneous groups of students) was followed to strengthen students' motivation, mutual aiding, active involvement and creation of positive attitude.

The intervention was divided into three sections lasting 2 hours each. The first section was devoted to the introduction (1 hour) and the study of the properties of the family of exponential functions (1 hour). The second section was devoted to problem solving (1 hour) and introducing the number 'e' and the law of exponential change (1 hour). The third section was devoted to solving problems on the law of exponential change (1 hour) and completing assessment test (1 hour).

Next, we present in detail the first section of the intervention, the introduction of exponential functions' family (1 hour) and the study of her properties (1 hour) and a problem of the second section.

2.4.1.2. 1st section, 1st hour: Definition of the exponential functions' family

The first class period, the students were guided, through a problem and using worksheets, in the discovery of the exponential function as an expression of a certain type of co-variation between two quantities and also as an extension of geometric sequence in.

Table 1: weight of the bacteria

hour	bacteria weight
1 ⁿ	2
2 ⁿ	4
3 ⁿ	8
4 ⁿ	16

hour	bacteria weight
5 ⁿ	...
6 ⁿ	...
7 ⁿ	...
8 ⁿ	...

1st phase: Introduction to the new concept

A. As an introductory activity students were given the following problem:

Problem 1

A biologist studies the weight of a bacteria society during an experiment in the laboratory. The time of initiation of the experiment the weight of the bacteria was 1m (m: weight unit). After each hour the biologist records the weight of the bacteria, as shown in table 1:

1. Can you help the biologist to calculate the weight of the bacteria:

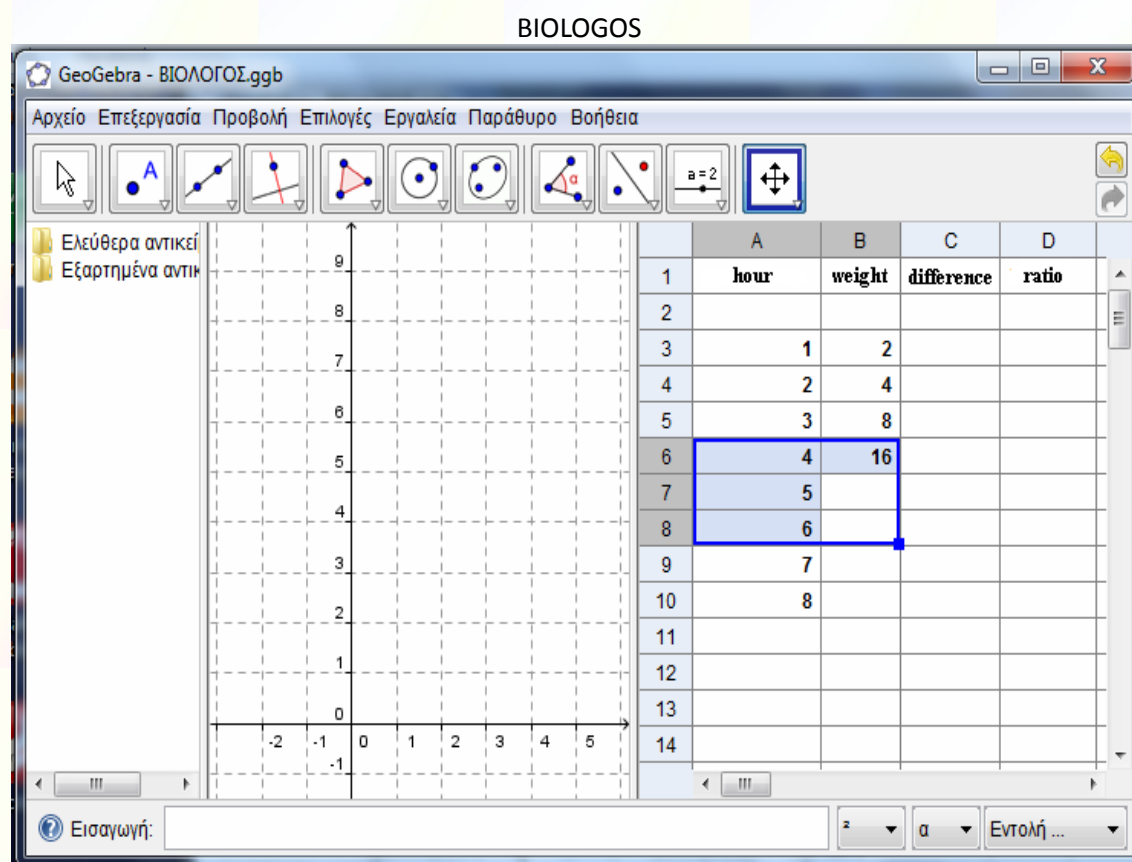
a. At the end of 8th hour?

- At the end of 20th hour?
- After 2.5 hours from the beginning of the observation?
- 3 hours before the beginning of the observation, if it's considered that before starting the observation, bacteria weight varied over time in the same way?

2. A critical value for the weight of the bacteria is 10.000m. How many time will the biologist wait until this weight to happen?

3. How would you answer the above questions if the weight of the bacteria every hour halved?

B. The students first worked in teams to answer these questions. They had difficulties with (c) and (d), which resulted in class discussion and the students were invited to open the file BIOLOGOS of Geogebra and follow the next steps working in teams.



1a. Fill the cells B7-B10 in graphics view

1b. Complete columns C and D of file BIOLOGOS with the difference and the ratio

correspondingly of two successive weight values in the cells of column B as follows:- In cell C3, calculate the difference B4-B3

(write, = B4-B3) in cell C4 calculate the difference B5-B4 ... -in cell D3 calculate the ratio C4 / C3 (write, = C4 / C3), in cell D4 calculate the ratio C5 / C4 ...What do you notice?

1c. According to Table 1, write an equality to express the weight y of the bacteria corresponding to time t during the experiment. Does this equality express y as function of t ? Yes or no? Why?

1d. Calculate the number of bacteria 20 hours after, 2,5 hours after and 3 hours before the beginning of the observation and complete Table 12. Do a list of points using the data of completed Table 1. What do you notice?

3. How many hours from the beginning of the observation will the bacteria weight be greater than 10.000 m?

4. In spreadsheet view, complete a table of values (name it table 2) to indicate the weight of the bacteria at the end of each hour, from the first until the fifth hour, if the weight at the end of each hour is halved. Then, do a list of points according to data of Table 2. What do you notice?

5. According to Table 2, write an algebraic form that describes the weight y as function of time t .

6. Using graphics view, make a graph of the functions of the questions 1c and 5 in the same system of axes. What do you notice?

2nd phase: Establishing the new knowledge

Students, who discussed and reflected on their previous steps, concluded that all functions they had seen were described by the general pattern $y = a^x$, $a > 0$, $x \in \mathbb{R}$. After asking students about the specific case $a = 1$, the teacher defined the exponential function as $f(x) = a^x$, $0 < a \neq 1$, $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

3rd phase: Applications and Consolidation

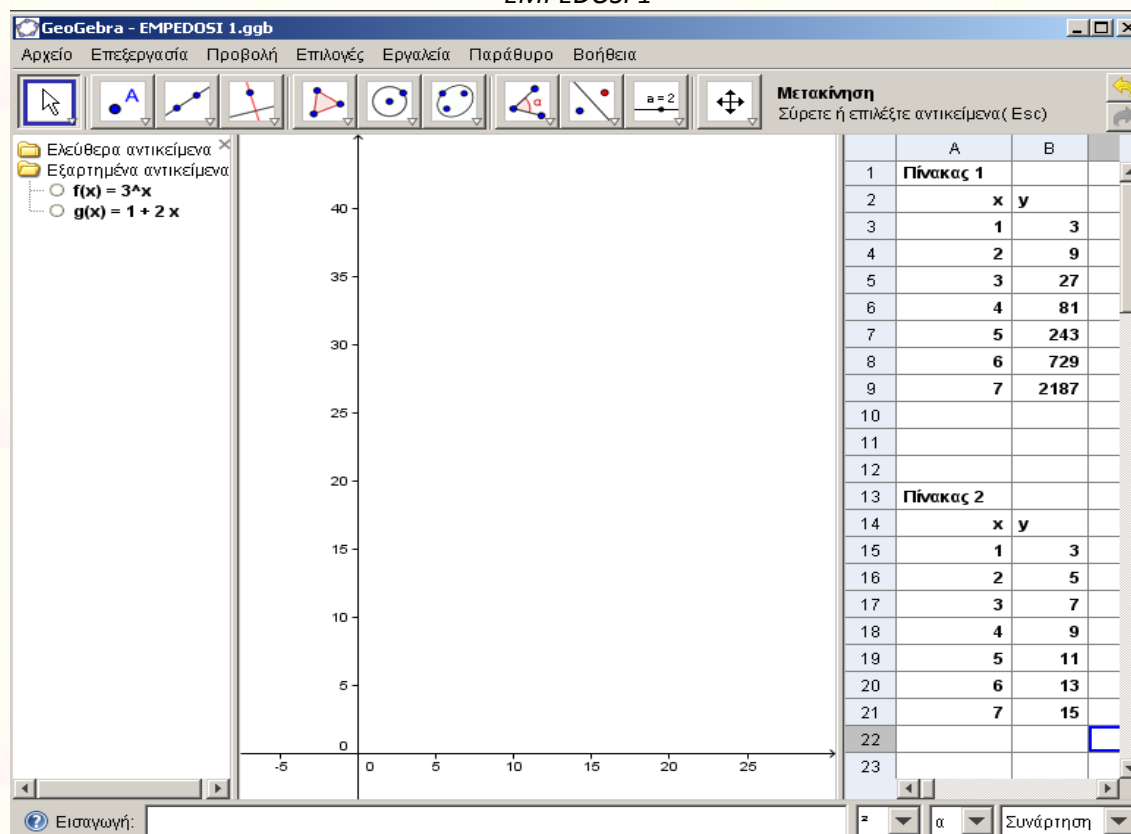
The following problem 2 was given to students as an application to consolidate the new knowledge.

Problem 2

Open the file EMPEDOSI 1 of Geogebra

¹ \mathbb{R} represents the set of real numbers

EMPEDOSI 1



In spreadsheet view, tables 1 and 2 show the number of calls received by two call centers every hour during 7 hours.

- Consider the change in the number of calls per hour described by each of Tables 1 and 2.
- Write down the algebraic equality that describes the number y of calls received by the two call centers using time t (in hours). Do these equalities represent functions? Why?
- Find the number of calls received by the two centers after 20 hours. Comment on the results using a graph of these functions in the same file.

instructed to find two subfamilies of exponential families, one with $0 < a < 1$ and one with $a > 1$. Then, students studied each subfamily separately using cursors for investigation and generalization.

A. Distinguishing two cases: $0 < a < 1$ and $a > 1$

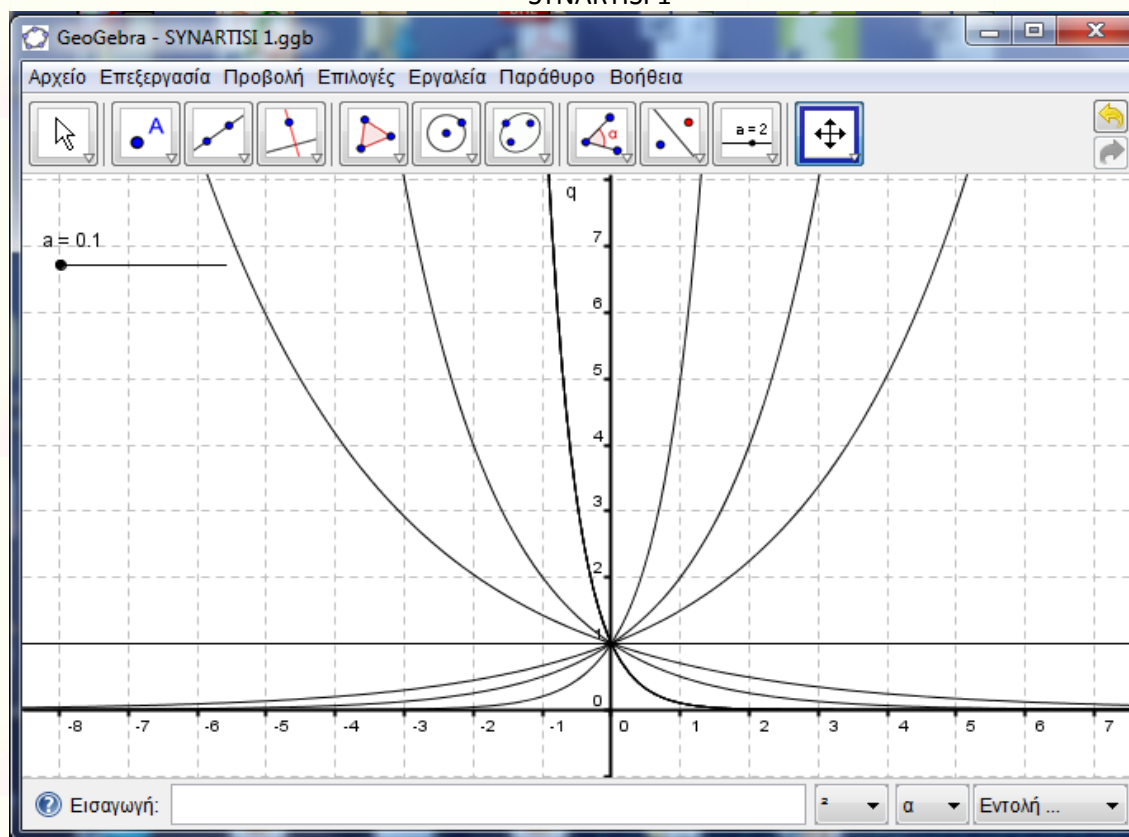
1st Phase: Experimentation

- Open the file SYNARTISI 1 of Geogebra in the graphical view.
- Draw the graph of the function $f(x) = a^x$
- Move the cursor "a" and notice the graph as it changes to "a" and write down your observations.

2.4.1.3. 1st section, 2nd hour: Study of the properties of the exponential functions' family

During the second hour, students were instructed to study inductively, through experimentation, the family of exponential functions $f(x) = a^x$, $0 < a \neq 1$. Through dynamic control, with the help of properly designed runners files of Geogebra, students were

SYNARTISI 1

2nd phase: Establishing new knowledge

The groups of students were asked to communicate their findings; through recapitulation, the teacher formalized the new knowledge that, the family of exponential functions is comprised of two sub-families, one with $0 < a < 1$ and another with $a > 1$

B. Study of the sub-family with $0 < a < 1$ 1st phase: Experimentation1.

Open the file SYNARTISI 4 of Geogebra in graphical view

2. Draw the graph of the function $f(x) = a^x$
3. (a) Give the cursor a certain value (eg, $a = 0.5$), observe the graph of the corresponding function $f(x) = 0.5^x$ and complete the following table 2

Table 2

$$f(x) = 0.5^x, 0 < a < 1$$

Domain

Set of values

Monotony

in words

symbolically

Intersection with axes $y'y$

(b) In the graph of the question (a), making constantly zoom in Ox , consider its position on the graph of $f(x) = 0.5^x$ (c) Enter the line $y = c$. Changing the cursor c , explore the common points of the graph of $f(x) = 0.5^x$ and the line $y = c$ in any position of the line. Is the function "1-1"? Write it down symbolically

(c) Move cursor "a" and observe the graphs of functions $f(x) = a^x$ for the different values of $0 < a < 1$. Does the completed table in question (a) have changes?

4. Work in a similar way as in question 3, if $a > 1$.

2nd phase: Establishing new knowledge

The groups of students were asked to communicate their findings; through recapitulation, the teacher formalized the new knowledge:

1. Sub-family of functions $f(x) = a^x$, $0 < a < 1$: has as domain \mathbb{R} and as set of values $(0, +\infty)$, is strictly decreasing, is '1-1', has the Ox as asymptote.

2. Sub-family of functions $f(x) = a^x$, $a > 1$: has as domain \mathbb{R} and as set of values $(0, +\infty)$, is strictly increasing, is '1-1', has the Ox' as asymptote.

3rd phase: Consolidation and Applications

The students encountered four exercises in order to:

- Realize the similarities and differences between the families of functions $f(x) = a^x$, $0 < a < 1$ and $f(x) = a^x$, $a > 1$ by completing a table with their properties,
- Find the algebraic form of exponential functions given in graphical form
- Find the parameter values in the algebraic expression of a function so that the function becomes: i. exponential which has \mathbb{R} as domain and ii. exponential which has \mathbb{R} as domain and is decreasing.
- Solve simple exponential equations and inequalities properly, either algebraically or graphically.

2.4.1.4 2nd section: Solving problems (2 hours)

After acquiring the new knowledge, we called students to solve problems in order to motivate their interest to consolidate, deepen and extend this knowledge through situations that are meaningful to them and highlight the importance of algebraic knowledge for understanding in depth real situations of everyday life. Next, we present the first problem.

2nd section, 1st hourProblem 1

Two friends, Alexander and Maria deposited the same day 3 thousands euros each to the postal savings bank with an interest rate of 5%. Alexander deposited with annual

compounding, and Maria agreed to take the interest at the end of each year.

- Fill in the following table the amount of money (principal and interest) will have both depositors at 1, 2 and 3 years from deposit.

	Alexander	Maria
1 st year		
2 nd year		
3 rd year		

- Find the function that expresses the total amount (capital interest) of each depositor t years after deposit and draw their graphical representation in the same system of axes to a new file Geogebra.
- If Alexander did not open the account, in how many years will the original amount of 3th. euros will double?
- How many years will it take Maria to double the original amount?
- Interpret the results to questions (c) and (d)
- From which year onwards, will Alexander have more money than Mary?

3. Assessment- conclusions**3.1 Assessment**

The evaluation of the teaching intervention was made by the researcher and observers' reports and the comparison of students' performance in the experimental and control groups in a final post-test. The reports agreed on two areas. One was the conceptual understanding of the content and the other, the emotional motivation and attitudes of students in the development of instructional intervention focusing on key concepts mentioned above.

The post- test was completed by the two groups of students in the classroom during a teaching hour and consisted of two parts. The first part examined the knowledge acquired by the students with the two different ways of teaching and was common to both groups. The second part considered the feelings of the students on the content and on the experimental teaching approach and was supplemented by the experimental group's students.

3.1.1 Evidence of the researcher and class observers

According to the evidence of the researcher and observers, students seemed excited working in the computer lab on the computer screen. There was liveliness in the lab. Students, while experimenting, turned to be small researchers. They were talking, arguing and laughing with strange ideas.

- *How pleasant is to have algebra lessons here always! - When we use computers, we don't realize how fast time flies!*

Initially, there was embarrassment and difficulty for students to work in groups. Some students had also difficulties in using Geogebra. In the process, as the observers and the teacher guided students, things became better.

Framed approach to new knowledge through a real problem motivated students. Some students had difficulty in starting to solve the introductory problem.- *What happens with the biologist? I don't know what to do.*

The communication in the team and the guidance of the worksheet, eventually allowed their engagement in the learning process.

Generally, with the selected problems, students, especially the low- achieving ones, were interested in the new knowledge and saw its importance in real life and the value of its acquisition.

- *What happens? How much is borrowed and how much is repaid!-Guys, watch out loans, risk-death*
- *That 'e' is inconceivable. - I didn't know that so much time is required to break out radioactive materials. They do irreparable damage and are dangerous to the environment and to our lives!*

Problem solving made it difficult for students especially at the stage of symbolic expression of the relationships described in words. The guidance to the relationship between linear function- arithmetic sequence and exponential function - geometric sequence and the cooperation in the teams helped to overcome initial difficulties.- *I understand what is happening, but I can not write algebraic expressions.-We finally learned to describe two types of change.*

The graphical solution of equations made it easier to solve real problems. Some students,

mostly the high-achieving ones, seemed disturbed unlike others.- *Since this is so, why we learned so many algebraic techniques to solve equations?- It is not so simple, but this way we can solve difficult equations that we couldn't otherwise.*

The theoretical knowledge was built by the students naturally with the help of the activities of generalization and dynamic control in the learning environment of Geogebra. The majority of students seemed to enjoy it. But, we should mention that some high-achieving students didn't feel content with the exploratory and inductive thinking, so contradictory opinions were expressed.

- *This way, we feel we are in the classroom*
- *First time I realized how theory is built*
- *So we will not forget what we learned and*
- *There is a lot of fuss. How to work it?*
- *If you told us the theory all a long, we could solve many more exercises.*

Finally, the issue everyone agreed to was the limited availability of time for exploratory and collaborative learning in labs with 25 students.- *Give us some extra more time to think!*

- *It's good to work this way, but we must have more time to think and decide.*

3.1.2. The assessment post-test

3.1.2.1. Knowledge domain (control and experimental groups)

The first part of the post- test examined the acquisition of new knowledge and included thirteen questions. The first six questions examined procedural knowledge. The next seven required conceptual understanding as referred to a problem which contained recognition, expression and comparison of linear and exponential change.

The students' performance in the post- test is shown in the next table which displays the percents of success, unfinished answers and failure per question.

Table 3: Performance in the post- test per question

question	success %	control group		experimental group		
		unfinished %	failure %	success %	unfinished %	failure%
1	48	52	0	48	52	0
2	84	16	0	80	20	0
3	100	0	0	100	0	0
4	52	40	8	76	24	0
5	52	36	12	52	44	4
6	40	60	0	64	36	0
<i>average</i>	<i>62,67</i>	<i>34</i>	<i>3,33</i>	<i>70</i>	<i>29,33</i>	<i>0,67</i>
7	36	64	0	60	40	0
8	68	32	0	80	20	0
9	76	24	0	80	20	0
10	8	76	16	36	36	28
11	16	48	36	16	68	16
12	84	12	4	84	16	0
13	20	56	24	48	44	8
<i>average</i>	<i>44</i>	<i>44,57</i>	<i>11,43</i>	<i>57,71</i>	<i>34,86</i>	<i>7,43</i>
<i>total average</i>	<i>52,62</i>	<i>39,69</i>	<i>7,69</i>	<i>63,38</i>	<i>32,31</i>	<i>4,31</i>

As it is clear, the total performance in the post-test of the experimental group was better than that of the control group. Specifically, in the first six questions, which examined the acquisition of procedural knowledge, the difference in success between the experimental and the control group was 7,33% and in the next seven questions which examined the acquisition of conceptual knowledge the difference almost doubled and became 13,71%. The difference between the average performance of the two groups in the level 5% was not significant statistically ($p=0,08 > 0,05$, Mann-Whitney U).

3.1.2.2. Affective domain (Experimental group)

The questionnaire in this area contained nine questions. The first seven, 1- 7, referred to the feelings of students in the teaching process, teaching content, solving real problems, using Geogebra and work in teams. The next two were open-ended and invited students to name two things that they both liked and did not like during the experimental intervention. Students, in questions 1- 7, had to choose one of the

answers: Not at all, A little and Much. The students' responses in the questions are presented in the table below.

Table 6: Responses per question per student (experimental group)

	Much (%)	A little (%)	Not at all (%)
q1	88	12	0
q2	92	8	0
q3	68	32	0
q4	84	16	0
q5	80	20	0
q6	80	20	0
q7	100	0	0
<i>average</i>	<i>84,57</i>	<i>15,43</i>	<i>0</i>

As shown in the table, the majority of students developed a positive attitude towards the experimental teaching. Learning the exponential functions through problem solving was interesting for the students. They were facilitated by the program Geogebra and enjoyed

it. Teamwork helped all students. Nevertheless the teacher remains confident assistant for students.

Among the things they liked and did not like during the teaching intervention are the following we present below:- *I liked all!- What I especially liked in the course was the use of H / Y for teaching and learning and my collaboration with others in the group- I liked the use of Geogebra because it helped me to realize the meaning of exponential change*

- *Some problems were difficult for me to solve, but they were interesting*
- *I liked the course because it was different from the usual- I liked that I understood what to do guided by the worksheet*
- *I liked to see how useful are mathematics*
- *I liked that good students were not always the first to talk about.*
- *I do not like to loose time to get into the lab and open computers. It was a lot of fuss.*
- *I did not like that only a few hours were dedicated to teaching exponential functions.*
- *I didn't like the collaboration group. It delayed much.*
- *I didn't like that we worked a lot with Geogebra and didn't solve exercises from the book.*

3.2 Comments - Conclusions

In this research, we tried, by comparing an experimental teaching intervention with a traditional one, to examine whether the teaching of exponential functions' family, through problem solving, using the computer program Geogebra, in collaborative learning environment, contributes to deeper understanding of the exponential functions combining conceptual and procedural knowledge. We also examined whether this method motivated the students and whether or not they adopted positive attitudes towards the subject.

We faced many difficulties in order to perform our experimental teaching. Among these we refer to the limited availability of time to prepare students in using Geogebra and teach exponential functions as required by the curriculum. The students are customized to teacher- centered teaching and the change to active involvement and guided inquiry requires a

lot of time. The last problem is exacerbated by the large number of students in the lab. More teachers are needed in the lab to get results. Another problem was the way in which we should assess students learning. The available time and the kind of assessment (written, without using technology, individually, common tasks in the two groups) limited our selections to the control group.

Finally, despite all these limitations, we think that the intervention had a positive effect on all dimensions examined: the conceptual understanding of the subject, the students' motivation and the creation of positive emotions to them. The majority of the experimental group enjoyed the kind of teaching and learning we adopted and performed better than the control group in all the questions of the post- test. The software Geogebra provided representations and dynamic control of the exponential functions' family and resulted in actual construction of the new knowledge and in active involvement in the teaching process. Teaching the exponential functions' family through problem solving connected algebra with important real life situations and created meaning for the students. In the questions which examined the acquisition of conceptual knowledge, the success rate of the experimental group was 13,71%, almost double the 7,33% of the control group. The difference in student performance between the two groups was not statistically significant. The above limitations seem to explain this small difference, as shown by other studies (Streun et al., 2000). It is interesting to look at the future development of the students in cognitive and emotional level. We think that the outcomes of our teaching intervention are encouraging ones and that our effort must be continued by other algebra school teachers.

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THE PELAGONIA'S WATERSHED. AN EXAMPLE OF TRANSFORMATIVE LEARNING

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Abstract

Our example, considers transformative learning within the context of an environmental program, about water management in *Pelagonia's*¹ watershed. Program's main aim was focused on promoting students' environmental awareness, introducing the systemic thought, in regard to the identification of conceptual models of aquatic resources. Our ultimate goal was to inspire students to think in a critical way. More specifically, we take students from an activating event through the critical discourse phase of transformational learning theory and set the stage for more opportunities to test and apply. With the activating event we attempt to bring students at the point of realizing that their own understandings and values are insufficient to address the complex problem at hand. Is it possible human activities in one region to generate problems to other places? If we dig our recent environmental history we'll find a lot of events. This reminds us, also, phenomena that could be explained by complexity theory. Students could present their own experience of polluting the environment (in local, national or global level) through critical discourse. As environmental issues drop down we see how things interrelate in systems like air, water, soil and living world. This provides a framework in which students confront and make explicit their own values, reflect on the origin of these values and engage in critical discourse geared towards creating a balanced and informed argument.

Keywords: *transformative learning, environmental awareness, complexity, systemic thought (linking-thinking)*

1. Environmental awareness. The role of education

Sustainable societies are values-dependent, not only because they influence behaviour, but also since they involve human priorities and thus the ability to survive. We are living in a very crucial moment of human history. A lot of important events are clothing a very dangerous frame in what we say biosphere. Human living has become complicate and difficult: economy crisis, ethic crisis... values degeneration. It is like in a film named "the humans against nature" or

¹ Concerns both Greek and FYROM parts.

correctly “humans against themselves”.

The failure of humanity to play the role of the administrator of natural world (mainly because of the hegemonic paradigm) and the explosion of the new sciences (e.g. complexity, quantic) leads society to a revision and transformation of the modern mechanistic worldview. In a highly complex and turbulent world, there's an increasingly shared view that analytical thinking is not enough (Sterling, 2005). However, a lot of scientific disciplines, including the social sciences, comprehend the world's needs by a systemic approach (Senge, 1990:18). Education has failed because of linear didactic processes (splitting the knowledge in too many domains), following society's dominant paradigm of analytical and reductionist thinking, which attempts to understand things by taking them apart (reference).

Undoubtedly, we need a new social paradigm, within economy which will be appreciate all beings (biosphere). A new social paradigm that promotes new values to a biocentric direction (Neef, 1992), in which the most important value is life and not money. Education should serve this new paradigm, by playing a significant role in the formation of a new ethic. More specifically, we are interested in for the development of students' ability on moral reasoning, and especially in terms of their relationship with the environment. We need learning approaches of transformative nature (Selby 1997, Taylor 2000, Davis 2002, Sterling 2003 and more), that concern questions of a postmodern age, relatively to interrelations between entities and phenomena such as complexity, rapid changes, patterns and so on.

1.1. Transformative learning

Transformative learning seems to have a place in primary and secondary school classroom (especially in environmental education issues). Firstly, this method has been developed by Mazirow (1978, 1981, 1990, 1996, 1999) for adults aiming to transform their old values. His theory was built on the work of Freire, Dewey, Bruner, Rogers and Knowles (reference???). He expanded the idea of self-direction in adult learning by taking into account the psycho-cultural and psycho-social contexts in which learners have been socialised.

Mezirow's theory of perspective transformative learning can be summarized as: a

process of acquiring new knowledge during which learners critically examines their core beliefs, assumptions and values (reference or year). More specifically, the objective of transformative learning is to revise old assumptions and ways of interpreting experience through critical reflection and self-reflection (Cranton, 1996).

According to Mezirow (2000), the transformation often follows some variation of a number of phases, such as: 1) a disorienting dilemma 2) self-examination with (of??) feelings of fear, anger, guilt, shame 3) a critical assessment of assumptions 4) recognition that one's discontent and the process of transformation are shared 5) exploration of options for new roles, relationships and actions.

Cranton (2002) offered a simplified version of Mezirow's theory phases:

- Creating an Activating Event
- Articulating Assumptions
- Critical Self-Reflection
- Openness to Alternatives
- Discourse
- Revision of Assumptions and Perspectives
- Acting on Revisions

In transformative learning, the most significant learning occurs in the communicative domain that involves:

- identification of problematic ideas, values, beliefs and feelings,
- critical examination of the assumptions upon which they are based,
- testing of their justification through rational discourse and
- making decisions predicated upon the resulting consensus (Mezirow, 1995)

A transformation can occur when people start to research the old beliefs or values after an experience of a sudden or an unexpected event (Cranton, 2002). As behaviour change is a matter of choice, teachers cannot impose their will on students. However, they can influence them by modelling and shaping a safe and supportive to change environment.

2. Program's profile

Our example, considers transformative learning within the context of an environmental program on water management, developed bu Meliti's

(Florina) Environmental Education Centre. Actually, this has been adopted as part of a program titled "*Tracking the Pelagonia's watershed*"². It is addressed to 5th-6th grade primary school and high school learners, as well to adults through life-long learning approaches. The main program's aim focused on promoting environmental awareness to learners, introducing the systemic thought (linking-thinking), in regard to the identification of conceptual models of aquatic resources.

Our ultimate aim was to improve the quality of aquatic systems and the interrelation to other systems as the soil, the air and the living world (biosphere).

Has water pollution in rivers, lakes, seas etc. anything to do with our every day consumption behaviour?

A paragraph is needed here to explain and describe the nature of the following sections and their relation to theory. The headings of the sections correspond to phases/stages of the program or are the main issues under study? Readers may be confused as some of them are presented as activities (2.1, 2.2, 3.1, 3.2) while some other are main issues under study (section 3). In general, the structure of sections 2 and 3 (or at least their heading) needs revision in order to be clear what is described, as methods (e.g., activities) are mixed with main issues/phases/parts of the program.

2.1. An activating event through the critical discourse phase

We take students from an *activating event* through the *critical discourse* phase of transformational learning theory and set the stage - later in the program, for more opportunities to test and apply. With the activating event we attempt to bring students *in a stage* where they realize, with the surprise caused by an unexpected event, that their own understandings and values are insufficient to address the complex problem at hand.

² Daikopoulos Y, Kalaitzi A, Nanis N, & Triantafyllou E. (2004). *Tracking the Pelagonia's watershed. One-day Program*. Environmental Education Center of Meliti – Florina
(http://www.kpemelitis.gr/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=64&Itemid=53)

2.2. A letter from far away - A weird event happened – A broken ... bank card³

We read a letter from Indonesia's Greek consular, addressed to the citizens of the small village of Papayannis, Florina, where a *strange* situation is described and students are called to seek for possible answers.

On an Indonesia's atoll, a bank card was found in a young albatross's stomach and actually had caused its death. It had stuck in its stomach, as it was perceived as something eatable. As a result, a major sea problem concerning pollution caused from littering has immersed because of our everyday consumption.

The story continues... The local environmental centre, in Midway atoll found that plastic card. ... A Greek name and an address were written on that plastic card.

- *Who is this person who lost his card?*
- *Where was he living for the past two years?*
- *If he lived in Greece, how was his bank card found in Indonesia?*

In their small inquiry the villagers found, that two years ago the villager-farmer (whose name appeared on the card), had lost his bankcard near the river.

We examine in groups (cooperative learning) how this could have happened. Was it possible?

Every group traces on a world map a possible track or "road" that the card could have followed (by air, by sea, by rivers - whatever), until it ended to the young albatross stomach, as its parents had fed it with human rubbish from the sea, like that plastic card.

2.3. Complexity issues

Apart from the severe sea pollution problem and its impact on albatrosses, another major issue of interactions immersed:

- *Is it possible human activities in one region to generate problems in other places?*

If we search our recent environmental history we shall find a lot of events. For example, the pollution export from Great Britain to Scandinavian countries, Chernobyl caesium contamination in almost all Europe and so on.

³ See a related video about sea pollution on <http://www.midwayfilm.com/>

This reminds us, also, phenomena that could be explained by complexity theory like the butterfly effect or the defective horseshoe and the lost of battle.

We need to comprehend the old, in order the new to be emerged. Every group of students could present their own experience of polluting the environment (in local, national or global level) through critical discourse. A role-play could follow.

This provides a framework in which students confront and make explicit their own values, reflect on the origin of these values and engage in critical discourse geared towards creating a balanced and informed argument.

3. Understanding the concept of watershed

It is necessary that the concept of watershed be clarified:

- *What is a watershed? - The characteristics of a watershed - A watershed as a system within a system (system nesting)*

3.1. Watershed modelling or simulation

The students play with a watershed model (Photo 1) using simple material: a wrinkled piece of paper in a vase, clay or plasticized models, colours and observe how the pollution spreads because of human's activities.

Photo 1: Watershed model



Complexity patterns and system similes help students to understand the conceptual model of a watershed.

Photo 2. Fractal patterns in dried out desert rivers⁴



We could play with cylindrical models (see photo 3) in order to comprehend the conceptual model of a watershed and how systems nest (a babushka doll could also be useful).

Photo 3. Systems nesting



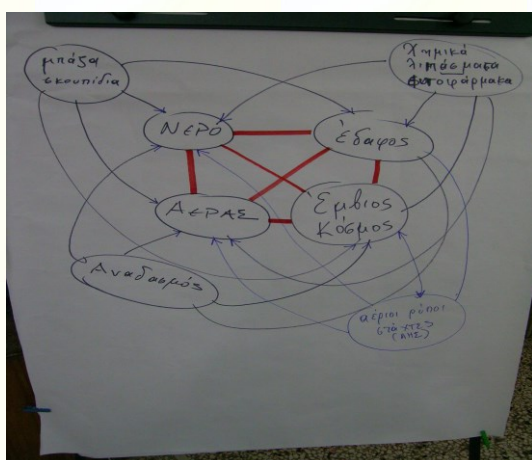
⁴ Kevin Spina:

http://www.fandrop.com/collection/SpinaKevin/simply_amaizing

3.2. Concept map - Everything is connected - Living in a systemic world

A research on newspaper articles about environmental issues (e.g., human wastes, air, water, soil pollution), leads us to construct a concept map (Photo 4). As environmental issues drop down, we see how things work in systems (air, water, soil and living world). The concept map is constructed in parallel to critical discourse and students realize that as every human activity affect one or more elements of the biosphere, everything is connected, interaction is everywhere.

Photo 4. Concept map



We live in a highly connected world, which sometimes is known as a 'systemic world'. This phrase is heard a good deal less than other descriptions of our life and times, such the 'information age', the 'post-modern society', and the 'globalised world'. But if the world is highly interrelated, it makes sense to recognize and try to understand the nature of systemic connection, and the possible consequences of our actions (WWF, 2005). Our example was developed to explore systemic connection in the world between people, places, issues, environment, etc. in the transformative learning context. The activities could be conducted at a very simple level of discussion if the group has never encountered linking thinking. This program has a lot to do with the interdisciplinary. A lot of domains (language, geography, arts, art education, etc) are clothing a systemic context in which students initiate to the idea that the *environment is a living net* with a lot of interactions. Transformative learning comes as a trigger to create an interest, to question their old beliefs and values (ethics) by a critical way and

finally change behaviour. Transformative learning is needed because our society needs to change.

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THE STUDY OF PLACE VALUE CONCEPTS AND THE NOTION OF CARRIED NUMBER THROUGH THE CHINESE ABACUS

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Abstract

This paper is part of a Master research study in sixth grade students. The aim was to develop understanding of the place-value system and the notion of carried-number with the use of the history of mathematics. Place value questions and the open question “*What is a carried-number?*” were administered as pre-tests. The results showed that students had difficulties in place value concepts and the answers about the carried number were mathematically meaningless. An instructive intervention with the aid of an historical tool, the Chinese abacus, was held. At the post test students achieved better results influenced by the abacus investigation and the carried number was put forward as an elaboration of exchange between classes and not as an aid of ambiguous nature. In conclusion, the Chinese abacus seems to be an adequate means to investigate the place value system.

Keywords: *Historical instruments, Chinese abacus, carried number, place value*

1. Introduction

Studies have shown that many students do not comprehend thoroughly the structure of our number system. They do not know the value of the digits of a number and how these values interrelate (Fuson 1990). Resnick (1983b) uses the term ‘multiple partitioning’ to describe the ability to partition numbers in non-standard ways e.g. 34 can be decomposed into 2 Tens and 14 Units. This in turn is essential for competence in calculations and many trading errors that have been observed in trading (Fuson 1990; Lemonides 1999) are due to the students’ difficulty to acquire it. That is why the development of the concept of the carried number which is associated with exchanges between classes should deserve more attention during primary school’s years (Poisard 2006).

In this paper we focus on the difficulties that the students of the present study faced in converting nonstandard representations of the numbers (multiple partitioning) in standard form and in interpreting the carried number. Also we describe the way that we have tried to address these difficulties with the use of the history of mathematics through a historical instrument, the Chinese abacus. Finally, we analyse the results and discuss the findings.

2. The history of Mathematics in the modern classroom

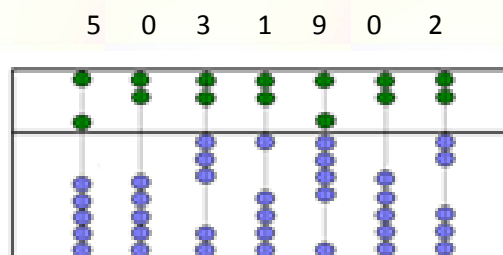
So far a wide range of perspectives and experience has emerged of why and how the history of mathematics can help (Maanen, J.V. & Fauvel, J. 2000). History could be used in the classroom as a cognitive tool for the learning of mathematics and as a goal in itself in order to highlight the evolution of mathematics and cultural factors (Jankvist, 2009). One of the possible ways to use history as a cognitive tool is the study of ancient mechanical instruments. They are considered as non-standard media - unlike blackboard and books-that could affect students cognitively and emotionally too (Maanen, 2000, pp.329-358). As Bussi (2000) argues they can illustrate mathematical concepts and proofs in an empirical basis. Students manufacture and explore ancient instruments using them as historical sources for arithmetic, algebra or geometry.

1.2. The Chinese abacus a historical calculating instrument

The positional system up to the construction of algorithms for operation is embodied by abaci, such as the Chinese one (Bussi 2000). Martzloff (1996) cites that the first Chinese abacus' representations are found in manuals of the 14th and 15th centuries. The use of the abacus, however, became widespread from the mid-16th century during the Ming dynasty. At 1592 a Chinese mathematician Cheng Dawei printed his famous work *Suanfa Tongzong* which deals mainly with the abacus calculations. Due to this work, the Chinese abacus was spread in Korea and Japan.

The Chinese abacus is comprised of vertical rods with same sized beads sliding on them. The beads are divided by a horizontal bar into a set of two beads (value 5) above and a set of five beads (value one) below. The rate of the unit from right to left is in base ten. To represent a number on abacus e.g. (fig.1), the upper or/and the lower beads are pushed towards the bar, otherwise zero is represented.

Figure 1: The representation of numbers on Chinese abacus



Brian Rotman (cited at Bussi 2000) gives an epistemological analysis of abacus:

"To move from abacus to paper is to shift from a gestural medium (in which physical movements are given ostensibly and transiently in relation to an external apparatus) to a graphic medium (in which permanent signs, having their origin in these movements, are subject to a syntax given independently of any physical interpretation)".

Many characteristics of our number system are illustrated by the abacus (Spitzer 1942). The semi-abstract structure of the abacus is revealed as the same sized beads and their position-dependent value has direct reference to digit numbers promoting the comprehension of the multiplicative structure of our number system. The function of zero is represented, as a place-holder. Furthermore, the idea of collection is illustrated, since amounts on the abacus are almost forced to be thought of in terms of place value.

Finally, the notion of carried number emerges. What is so functional of our base 10 numeration system is to allow the representation of big numbers. In each position the digits from zero to nine are written. As soon as ten is reached there is a transfer of numbers between ranks, e.g. 10 tens = 1 hundred, 10 hundreds = 1 thousand, etc. To do arithmetic operations we use this relation. From the definition of the carried number that Poisard (2005b: p.78) gives to the carried number is highlighted its relation to the functionality of the decimal system to allow quick calculations:

"The carried number allows managing the change of the place value; it carries out a transfer of the numbers between the ranks"

In Poisard's study sixth grade students were

asked “what is a carried number?” Most answers did not have mathematical meaning. After the workshop with the Chinese abacus the answers were more specific. According to Poisard, (2005b: p. 57-59) the fact that we can write up to fifteen in each rank on Chinese abacus and make exchanges with the hand, reinforces the conceptual understanding of the notion of carried number. The same question was given to teachers, but definitions that link the place-value system with the carried-number, were cited by few teachers. That is why Poisard points out that the study of the carried number requires in depth comprehension of the place-value system and this problem should be confronted in teachers’ education as well.

What Poisard stresses as crucial in the teaching/learning process is the use of the abacus as an instrument (the user learns mathematics) and not as a machine (the user just calculates). If the students do not ‘see’ the concepts that regulate the movements on abacus, they may learn to calculate quick and correctly but without understanding.

Based on the studies about students’ difficulties in place value understanding and the possible positive contribution of the history of mathematics via the Chinese abacus, the present study sets various objectives. The objectives below concern the present analysis.

Objectives:

- Study whether students recognize the structure of our system when handling numbers.
- Study how students explain verbally the carried number
- Study to what extent an instructive intervention with the investigation of the Chinese abacus would help students acquire a better conceptual understanding.

3. Research

The research took place at a primary school of the urban area of Thessaloniki during the school year 2010-2011. Our aim was to introduce the History of Mathematics as a cognitive tool and to lesser extends as a goal (Jankvist 2009). It was held weekly in two-hour sessions and the participants were eighteen twelve-year old students (nine girls and nine boys) of grade six.

For the first two objectives two questionnaires were administered, as pre-tests.

Questionnaire A consisted of six closed-type place value questions and one of written calculations. After the intervention similar questions were administered as post-test (Appendix 1, p.10). As for the concepts regarding the creation of the questions were taken into account: a) the literature about students’ difficulties b) the Greek mathematics curriculum so as to ascertain that they constitute prerequisite knowledge in the beginning of grade six, c) the feasibility of teaching via the abacus. One of these questions is subjected in analysis here and concerns exchanges between classes (sub question 3b).

Questionnaire B (Appendix 2, p.11) consisted of Poisard’s (2005b: p.101) four open questions. The same questions were given as post-test. Here we focus on question 4 ‘*What is a carried number?*’

For the third objective we designed an instructive intervention inspired by Jankvist’s (2009), ‘module approach’. Modules are instructional units that could be tied or not to the curriculum and could vary in size and scope. Students may study historical primary sources or textbooks, may use mechanical instruments, the web, worksheets etc. In our research the modules were tied to the curriculum and lasted eight months. The main part of the program five months used history as a cognitive tool.

Initially, the arguments mentioned below are aimed at exploring why history would support the learning of mathematics, based on the study of Tzanakis and Arcavis (2000) study. Through history students are motivated:

- To develop conceptual understanding by exploring mathematical concepts empirically in a visual-kinetic way.
- To acquire awareness of the intrinsic nature of mathematics by analysing the non-formal procedure and corresponding with the formal one.

3.1. Design and implementation of the intervention

The sequence of the instructive intervention was allocated in three sections; we investigated place value concepts in integers, then in decimals and

finally we proceeded to calculations. For every didactical session we were elaborating a teaching plan which included the procedure, forms of work (individual, in pairs or in small groups), the media and material. Many sessions were videotaped as feedback.

Students worked with abaci that constructed themselves, web application (Appendix 4, p.11) and worksheets designed by the researcher teacher (Appendix 3, p.11). At the end of the school year students presented their work to other students.

3.2. Example of a two-hour didactical session

Section 1: Integers; Subsection 1.3: Regrouping number quantities to standard numbers

Previous knowledge on the abacus: Students know how to read and to form multidigit numbers; to identify the place value of the digits and to analyze numbers in the expanded form; to compose ten units of a class to the next upper class as one unit e.g. 10 tens of a column are exchanged for 1 hundred unit of the next left column.

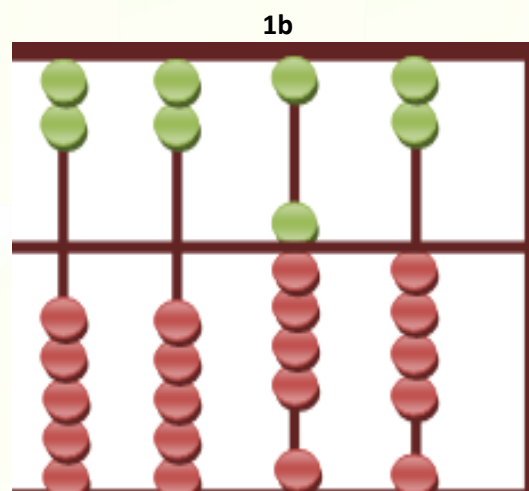
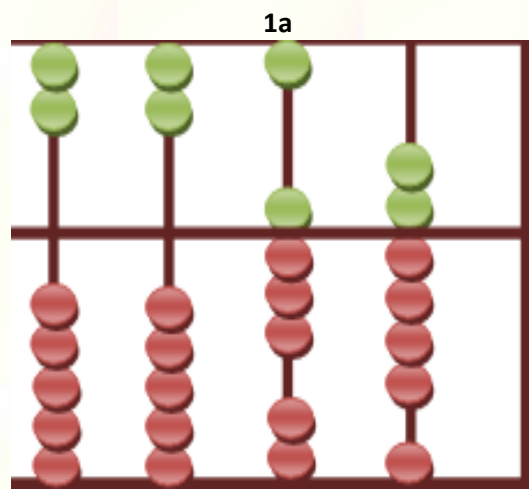
Objectives: to convert more complex number quantities (that in specific classes exceed the nine units) to standard numbers through composing.

The concept of the carried number: The composing activities in later stages served as cognitive scaffolding for the conceptual understanding of the carried number in the operation of addition. In analogy, the decomposing activities of other didactical sessions were connected with the concept of the carried number in subtraction.

Procedure:

First stage: The teacher forms a quantity e.g. 8 Tens and 14 Units (fig.1a) on the interactive blackboard's simulation or on the classroom's handmade abacus. She asks students to discover the number. They are encouraged to recall how ten units of higher value are composed on abacus. A student implements the process. The passage from 10 units to 1 ten is made by pushing away the two five beads in the units rod and pushing forward one unit bead in the tens rod (fig.1b).

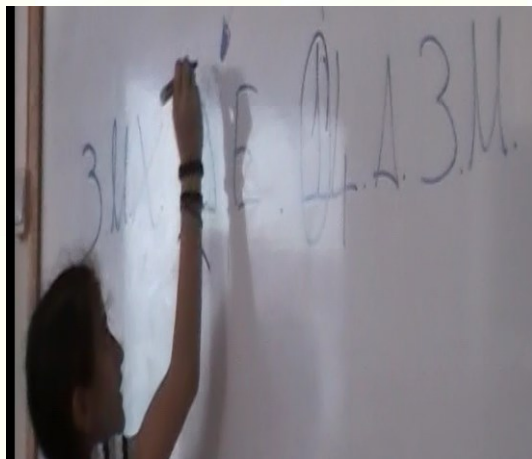
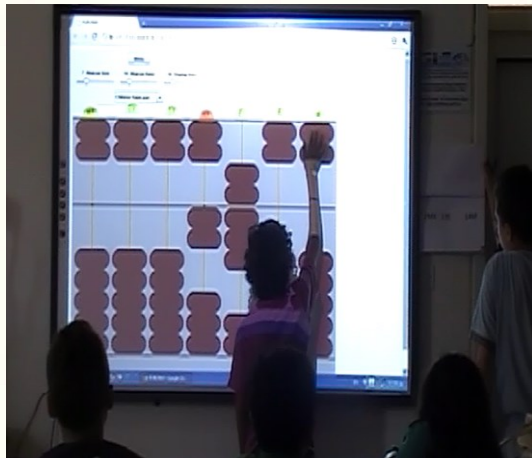
Figures 1a and 1b: Regrouping quantities on abacus



To avoid the abacus-machine usage the teacher asks for explanations in terms of place value. Thus, the student while doing the bead-movements says: *"I transfer ten of the fourteen units to the tens' column and compose 1 more ten in the tenth's column. So we have 9 tens and 4 units. The number is 94"*.

Second stage: Students volunteer and elaborate their own quantities on the interactive whiteboard (fig.2). Afterwards other students try to match the abacus procedure with the symbolic one on the classic whiteboard.

Figure 2: Students corresponding abacus and paper regrouping process



Third stage: Students apply the new knowledge on worksheets in order to regroup quantities that they cannot be represented on abacus (appendix, p.11).

4. Results

Questionnaire A: The total score of questionnaire A was 100. The T tests showed a statistically significant difference between the two measurements of students' scores ($t = 5.243$, $df = 17$, $p < 0.001$) Mean: pre-test 50.5, post-test 78.2.

Question 3: Particularly for question 3 the T tests showed a statistically significant difference between the means of the two measurements: ($t = 6.172$, $df = 17$, $p < 0.001$) pre-test: Mean 4.67, Std. Deviation 5; post-test: Mean 12.9, std. deviation 3.5.

1. In this paper we analyse the results of the sub question 3b. The qualitative analysis that follows aims to find if the

improvement of the scores at the post test is connected with better conceptual understanding through the investigation of the abacus. For this reason we studied students' verbal explanations.

2. Pre-test: 'Compare 8 hundreds 2 tens 1unit ___ 7 hundreds 11 tens 16 units using the sign of inequality/equality. Explain the way you have thought'.

Table 1: Question 1- Answers' reasoning analysis

Types of reasoning	Pre test	Post test
correct	4	16
incorrect	8	
insufficient/no explain	6	2

From the explanations (table 1) we observe that only four students at the pre-test justified correctly while at the post-test the majority of them. Examples of students' verbal explanations in pre and post-tests follow below.

Abbreviations: H=Hundreds, T=Tens, U=Units

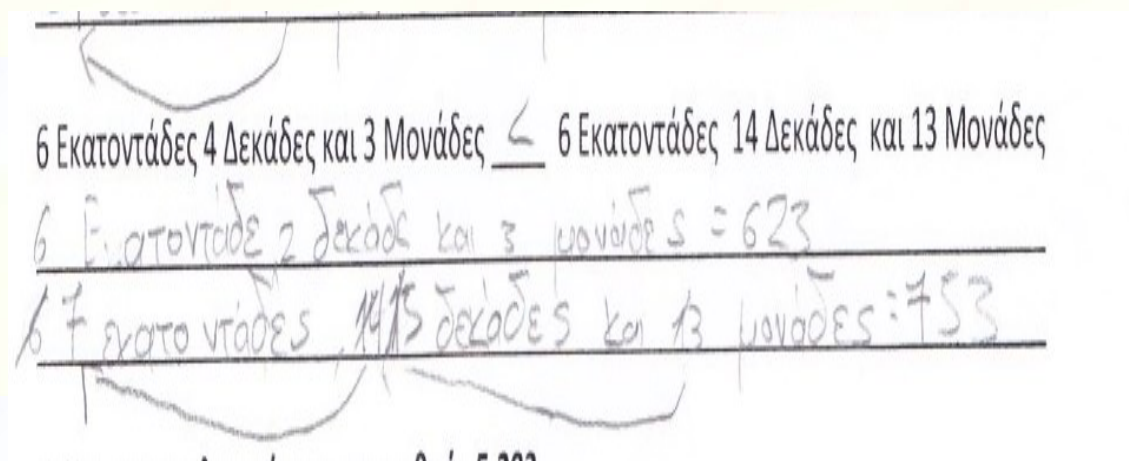
Correct reasoning: '11T=1H and 1T. Also 16U=1T and 6U. So we have $700+110+16=826$. The first is 826 too, so they are equal'.

Incorrect reasoning: Students simply saw individual numbers on both sides: 'The second is bigger than the first in two numbers'. They isolated digits and putting them in line formed a number: '826 less than 71,116'. They compared only the hundred's class maybe recalling a vague knowledge of upper classes: 'The first number has 1H more so it is bigger because hundreds matter'. 'The second is bigger because 8 hundreds are more than 7 hundreds'.

Insufficient reasoning: 'Because 7hundreds 11tens 16units is bigger'.

Post-test: 'Compare 6 hundreds 3 tens 3 units ___ 6 hundreds 14 tens 13 units using the sign of inequality/equality. Explain the way you have thought'.

At the post test most students use figurative explanations (fig.3). Circling and using arrows students were depicting the process of transferring ten units to a higher class.

Figure 3: Sub question 3b- Schematic representations for regrouping at the post test

Translation: "6 hundreds 2 tens and 3 units =623. And 6 hundreds 14 tens and 13 units=753"

Fewer students used detailed verbal explanations without figures. Example: "I get 10 from 14 T and make 1 H. The hundreds now are 7. Then we have 13 U. I take 10 U and do another 1 T. So the number 753 is greater than the number 643".

Questionnaire B- 'What is a carried number?'

Table 2: Pre-test - The interpretation of the carried number

Explanations	N
something we find/use/ in calculations	9
Example with an addition	5
I don't know/remember, I cannot describe it	4
When the number exceeds 10	1

Table 3: Post-test - The interpretation of the carried number

With example	N	Verbal explanations	N
Composing e.g. 10 hundreds = 1 thousand	6	Ten units move to the next position as one unit	3
Decomposing e.g. 1 hundred = 10 tens	1	Number used in operations for transfer	2
Composing /decomposing	1	Borrowing from a number	1

With example	N	Verbal explanations	N
		A format of tens, hundreds etc. for transfer	2
		Convert a number of 10 and over to other format	1

From the results of pre and post-test (tables 2 & 3) we observe that the answers with an example qualitatively differ. At the pre-test the students performed an addition while in the post-test they put forward the process of composing and decomposing. Similarly, the verbal explanations at the pre-test seemed meaningless and only in one answer we detected an attempt of conceptual interpretation, though mathematically incorrect; 'When the number exceeds 10'. At the post-test the students still have a difficulty to explain verbally but more of them use the idea of exchange with expressions such as 'transfer' or 'convert the format of numbers, though one is specific: '10 units move to the next class as 1 unit'. Few students seem to mix the knowledge before and after the intervention 'a number which is kept aside for transfer'. In general, more frequent were the references for composing than decomposing.

5. Discussion

The findings of the study showed that at the pre-tests students could not comprehend our numbers' structure; they managed number quantities, not as whole, but mainly as plain digits. The notion of carried number was generally recognised as an aid in operations but of ambiguous nature.

The introduction of the History of Mathematics, through the investigation of the Chinese abacus, helped students develop place value understanding and the concept of carried number which is associated with the interrelation of these values in calculations. At the post-test we observed a qualitative change in their answers. The schematic representations, that students used to convert nonstandard numbers to standard form, directly referred to abacus composing process. The composing and decomposing activities and their connection with the operations of addition and subtraction respectively, affected students' perspective for the carried number. It was perceived as exchange between classes and this was imprinted at the post-test's interpretations. To a certain extent approached the generality of Poisard's definition, either verbally denoted or through an example with regrouping.

In agreement with Poisard (2005b: p.57), the emergence of the concept of the carried number in students' thought was promoted by the structure of the historical tool that allows to right up to fifteen units in each column and actually 'see' the passage of the carried number. The importance of the tactile experience offered by the Chinese abacus and generally by the ancient instruments was pointed out also by Bussi (2000: p.348), as base of the cognitive foundations of mathematical activity.

5.1. Further research interest

Based on the experience of the instructive intervention some thoughts of the introduction of Chinese abacus and generally of the history of mathematics in the classroom could be put under discussion. The study of the Chinese abacus could begin in younger age-groups to develop understanding of simpler concepts as solid ground for more complex ones in older age-groups. For example, the teaching of single-digit addition with sums between 10 and 20 (Zhou Z.

& Peverly S. 2005: p.267); the representation of the digits in the form of $5+n$ (where n is 1, 2, 3, 4) on the Chinese abacus could help children develop gradually mental strategies with the use of '5' as an intermediate unit.

Another issue concerns the production of material involving the history of mathematics in the primary education. The use of web-based applications and of the handmade abaci in the present intervention, influenced students cognitively and emotionally as well. Thus it would be innovative the production of software with accompanying teaching scenarios and worksheets with the cooperation of university departments and schools.

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Zhou Z., Pevery S., (2005). Teaching addition and subtraction to first graders: A Chinese perspective. *Psychology in the Schools*, 42 (3). Retrieved August 2010 from the World Wide Web www.interscience.wiley.com

APPENDIX 1

Questionnaire A-Post-Test**1 Write the place value of the digit "2" in every position of the number:**

27.257.275

2. Write the number 4.018.379 in the expanded form as in the colored example

(4x _____) + (0x _____) + (1x _____) + (8x _____) +

(3x _____) + (7x 10 _____) + (9x _____)

3. Compare the numbers using the signs >, <, =.**3.a.** 4 Tens and 3 Units ____ 3 Tens and 13 Units**3.b.** 6 Hundreds 4 Tens and 3 Units ____ 6 Hundreds 14 Tens and 13 Units**Explain written the way you have thought**

4. Round the number 5.283

a.	To the nearest ten	
b.	To the nearest hundred	
c.	To the nearest thousand	

5. Write the following decimal numbers with digits

a.	Eight tenths
b.	Forty six hundredths
c.	Seven thousandths
d.	Twelve tenths

6. Fill in the gaps using the sequence of numbers

0,2	0,5	0,8		
-----	-----	-----	--	--

7. Perform the operations in vertical form:

40.006 - 9

5, 4 + 3, 46

21- 3, 56

623 x 82

APPENDIX 2

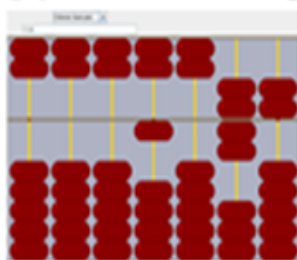
Questionnaire B

1. What does it mean for you "I do mathematics"?
2. Cite objects to make calculations.
3. Do you know what an abacus is? If yes, explain.
4. **What is a carried number?**

APPENDIX 3

Worksheet 19**Regrouping quantities**

- Discover the number that the quantities represent on the abacus. Use the empty abacus's drawing to form the number in standard form.



- Explain the way you have thought

Electronic abacus quantity 1 thousands 0 hundreds 12 tens and 10 units

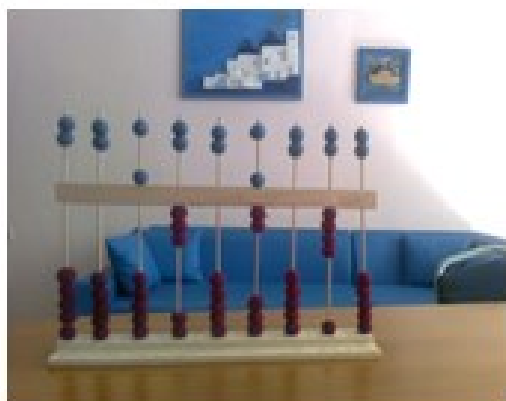
Standard form: => _____

1TH 0H 12T 10U =>

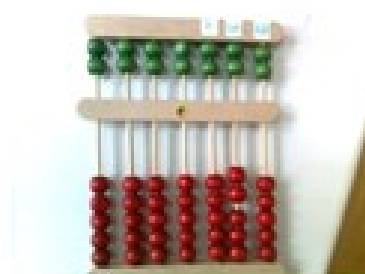
Free Activity

As pairs, choose a four digit number. Use your abacuses to form it as a quantity that exceeds 9 units in some columns. Afterwards call the other teams to discover the number.

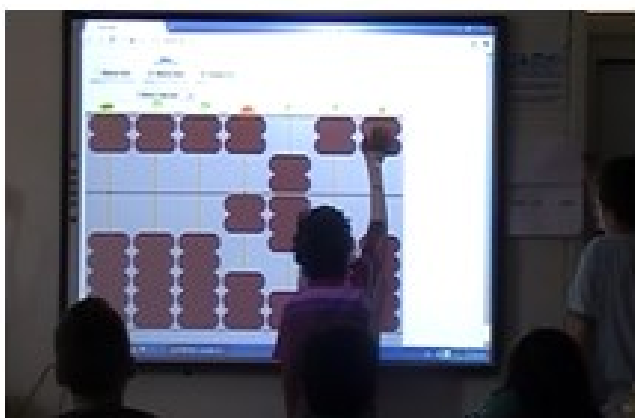
APPENDIX 4



Abacus for
demonstration



Student's abacus



Web application



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