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Language choice among Albanian immigrant adolescents in Greece: The effect of the interlocutor’s generation

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Abstract

Research in bilingualism developed in immigrant contexts (Clyne, 1991; Clyne & Kipp, 1997; Li Wei, 1994; Pauwels, 2004, etc.) has demonstrated that the use of the ethnic language usually diminishes as a function of the generation the speaker and his/her interlocutor belongs to: while parents use the second language to a smaller or larger extent, their children soon develop a preference for the majority language and use it especially with same-age interlocutors.  
This paper reports findings related to a questionnaire study conducted in Crete in 2009 (Xenikaki, 2010) with the aim to investigate patterns of Greek and ethnic language use among the immigrant-origin secondary-school students of Ierapetra. In particular we discuss the Albanian students’ (N=79) patterns of language use with family and friends and the potential influence of the interlocutors’ generation on language choice. Our findings suggest that our subjects still use frequently the ethnic language with family members but its use diminishes along age lines, something which concurs with previous research. The tendency to use the majority language with siblings and peers is also clear. However, for the time being the ethnic language can be said to hold its ground in this particular community.

Keywords: immigrant adolescents, Albanian-Greek bilinguals, language choice, language maintenance

Language choice in the context of immigration

Bilingual settings emerging from immigration are usually characterized by a functional differentiation between the majority and the minority languages. Such a differentiation often takes the form of a change in the functional distribution of L1 and L2 at the cost of the former (Extra & Verhoeven, 1993; Pauwels, 2004) and results in language shift, defined as “the gradual disappearance of a language in a community where it used to be spoken” (Jaspaert & Kroon, 1993: 298). In other cases, though, the immigrant community in question manages to achieve language maintenance, since it continues to use the minority language alongside the majority one in some or all spheres of life (Pauwels, 2004: 719).

A useful theoretical tool for analysing minority speakers’ behaviour with regard to language maintenance and shift has proven to be the concept of domains, introduced by Joshua Fishman (1965/2007). Domains can be thought of as interactional situations such as family, friendship, religion, education and employment, where the use of a specific language is deemed appropriate. Research in language maintenance and shift has frequently made use of domain analysis (cf. e.g. Janik, 1996; Namei, 2008; Urzua & Gomez, 2008), investigating the gradual take-over of informal domains (such as family, friendship, leisure), which supposedly call for the use of the minority language, by the language of the majority. Its application has demonstrated the unequivocal importance of certain domains such as the family and friendship networks for language maintenance.
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(Garcia, 2003; Winter & Pauwels, 2006; Yağmur & Akinci, 2003). After all, as Fishman (1991) argues, intergenerational language transmission is the condition sine qua non of language maintenance. Without a secure place for the ethnic language in the family repertoire, mother tongue education on its own cannot ensure its survival.

It is, therefore, imperative that any investigation of a minority community’s behaviour in a particular setting include the analysis of its members’ linguistic behaviour in those domains. Research so far has produced two basic findings. First, the majority language constitutes the children’s main or preferred code with siblings and peers, being the language of their primary or secondary socialization (e.g. Oliver & Purdie, 1998; Tannenbaum, 2003; Wong-Filmore, 1991). Because of its heightened saliency for their lives, children eventually impose the majority language as a legitimate code in the family repertoire, irrespective of their parents’ wishes; the only thing that seems to differ is the degree of use of the majority language and the rate of its ‘intrusion’. Spolsky (2004:45) characteristically refers to this phenomenon as children acting as agents of change, since the intrusion of the majority language into the family domain paves the way for language shift. A second finding refers to the dynamics developed within the family environment and which refer to age, or to be exact, to speakers’ generation (Clyne, 1991; Clyne & Kipp, 1997; Li Wei, 1994; Pauwels, 2004, 2005; Tannenbaum, 2003; Wright & Kurtoglu-Hooton, 2006; Yağmur & Akinci, 2003). There usually seems to be a decline of the use of the ethnic language along age lines: grandparents use it the most, parents to a fair extent, children much less. Other relatives and friends (uncles/aunts, cousins, friends of the family, friends of the children) tend to behave according to the generation group they belong to. Moreover, interlocutors accommodate to a large extent to the preference attributed to each speaker on the basis of his/her generation. For instance, children speak the ethnic language far more to their grandparents than to their siblings, and the same applies to parents. On the whole, the degree to which the ethnic language continues to be used at home depends upon the extent to which younger speakers respect their elders’ linguistic preference and accommodate to them.

The present paper reports on a study of Albanian immigrant adolescents in Greece which investigated, among other things, patterns of language use in the ‘home’ and ‘friendship’ domains and whether there were correlations between language choice and the interlocutors’ age group/generation. Our purpose was to contribute to the discussion regarding such issues by shedding additional light on a previously rather under-researched group. Moreover, our study complements, from the point of view of geography and methodology, the few studies investigating issues of language shift among Albanians in Greece (Chatzidaki, 2005; Gogonas, 2007; Maligkoudi, 2010). We shall discuss the specific place it holds among them in the last section of the paper.

Albanian immigrants in Greece

In the last twenty years, Greece has been receiving a large number of illegal aliens from a multitude of countries, ranging from the Balkans to Asia and Africa. Albanian immigrants constitute the largest ethnic group among foreign workers in Greece; they number over 400,000 people and account for 57.5% of the registered immigrant population) (Lyberaki & Maroukis, 2005). Albanian-origin children are the majority of immigrant-background students. According to official figures, in 2002-03 students born in Albania accounted for 69,880 children constituting 72.4% of foreign-born students in the Greek educational system (grades K to 12) (Gotovos & Markou, 2004). These figures do not include an important number of children currently in Greek Kindergartens and primary schools who
were born in Greece to Albanian parents.

Albanian immigration into Greece started in the early ‘90s, immediately after the collapse of the communist regime in Albania (Gogonas, 2007; Maligkoudi, 2010). Although in the ‘90s Albanians used to perform only badly paid, low-prestige, unstable jobs and to have no social security, more recent studies (Hatziprokiou, 2003; Gogonas, 2007, 2010; Lyberaki & Maroukis, 2005) suggest that many Albanian immigrants have managed to secure an upward economic mobility and have organized their lives in increasingly better terms as far as employment, residence, social security and interpersonal relations are concerned. In fact, many studies testify to their willingness to integrate into the host society, especially with regard to the second generation (Pavlou et al., 2005 in Gogonas, 2007, 2010).

Despite their eagerness to transcend ethnic borders, their acceptance by the majority population remains problematic. As Gogonas (2007, 2009, 2010) points out, the Greek people, who pride themselves in their homogeneity and their distinct ethnic and religious identity vis-à-vis other European nations, were not prepared for the immigration wave which ensued in the last twenty years and the settlement of such large numbers of people of different ethnic, religious and cultural backgrounds. Moreover, immigrants, especially Albanians, have been portrayed by most media as villains and criminals; the unprecedented rise in crime figures has been attributed to the presence of immigrants, contributing thus to their collective demonization (Hatziprokiou, 2003; Gogonas, 2009, 2010).

With regard to the measures aiming at addressing cultural and linguistic diversity at the school level, one might say they have been too vague and off-focus. Educational provisions for immigrant children include mainly the teaching of Greek as a Second language in Reception or Tutorial classes in mainstream schools (Dimakos & Tasiopoulou, 2003). The legislation currently in place (law 2413/96 on Intercultural Education) has not ensured the kind of policies that would permeate the whole educational system, enhancing students’ awareness of and acceptance of cultural diversity among them (Damanakis, 1997; Mitakidou, Tressou & Daniliidou, 2007). The Greek educational system has been criticized for promoting ethnocentrism and conformity with monolingual norms (Frangoudaki & Dragonas, 1997). In mainstream schools, the pupils’ cultural and religious diversity are not taken into consideration with the exception of the child’s exemption from the Religious education class and the attendance of religious services should the parents request it. There is no provision for heritage language instruction at school at present, although the law stipulates this possibility. On the whole, minority children’s bilingualism remains largely “invisible” (Tsokalidou, 2005) and absent from the school premises. Misguided teachers advise parents to speak only Greek at home or, at best, consider their first language as an obstacle to be overcome rather than as an asset to be cherished and cultivated, and do nothing to promote its development and use at school (Gkaintartzi & Tsokalidou, 2011; Gogonas, 2007; Kassimi, 2005). As a result, the burden of developing bilingualism in the ethnic languages falls upon the families themselves.

**The study**

**Background of the study**

Although this paper discusses findings related to Albanian-origin adolescents, it should be said that they formed part of the sample of a larger investigation, which was undertaken for the requirements of a Master’s thesis (Xenikaki, 2010). The study took the form of a questionnaire survey and was conducted in February and March 2009. The overall aim of
the research was to investigate patterns of bilingual development and language choice in a group of immigrant-background adolescents living in the Greek countryside. The research site was the town of Ierapetra, located on the south-east coast of Crete, which has been attracting quite a large number of immigrants employed mainly as farm workers. The county of Lasithi, to which Ierapetra belongs, is among those which contain the highest percentages of immigrant workers (Rovolis & Tragaki, 2006). As a result, the situation there was considered rather typical of Greece at large.

Sample

The original population under study consisted of the total number of students of immigrant origin in the three Secondary schools of Ierapetra (n=118). The Albanian group (n=79) made up 67% of the original sample. The final sample, discussed in this paper, amounted to 79 youngsters, 43 boys and 36 girls, aged between 11 and 17 years (mean age of 14).

Only five of our informants were born in Greece (6.3%). The rest had a mean age of arrival of 3.71 years. A more accurate picture is given if one considers that 79.9% of the informants who were born in Albania came to Greece when they were between a few months old and six years old (63.3% were under four years old when they arrived). Their length of stay was calculated on the basis of information concerning their age of arrival and their present age. It varies between one (for one student) and thirteen years with a mean of more than ten years (10.11).

With regard to their integration into native peer groups, the vast majority of the students (89.9%) were involved in multicultural, multilingual friendship relationships, as they claimed to have friends from Greece, their parents’ country of origin and other countries.

As far as education in the country of origin is concerned, only 21.5% (n=17) had attended some classes there, with the majority (9 children) having attended only as far as second grade.

Finally, information was sought and collected on our subjects’ language competence. The instrument used was a self-rating scale. Informants were asked to provide an assessment of their own competence in both languages on a five-point scale ("not at all", "a little", "so and so", "fairly well", "very well") and in five different skills ("I can speak", "I can understand a conversation between strangers or watch a TV series", "I can understand my teachers during courses/a news bulletin on TV", "I can read", "I can write") covering both informal and formal ('academic') aspects of language competence (Cummins, 2000).

With regard to the Greek language, our informants report a high level of competence, fairly evenly distributed across skills (combined ratings of "fairly well" and "very well" range between 91.1% for writing to 98.7% for understanding teachers/TV programmes and speaking skills). Such a finding is largely to be expected given their considerable length of stay and the fact that they received most or all of their schooling in Greek. As it might be expected, the same skills are less developed in the ethnic language: 81% can understand a conversation between strangers or a TV series "fairly" or "very well", 69.6% report the same ability with regard to understanding a news bulletin on TV, 78.5% with regard to speaking, 57% with regard to reading and 44.3% with regard to writing. All in all, the discrepancies noted are not extraordinary, as in the course of time the lack of opportunities to develop the ethnic language lead to diminished competence. However, in our view, the fact that about 4/5 of the sample have reported speaking and understanding the ethnic language "fairly" or "very well" should be considered as evidence of a satisfactory level of development. It is also noteworthy that, whereas only 21.5% of the informants have had
some schooling in their country of origin, the percentage of those who claim to be able to read and write in Albanian ‘fairly’ or ‘very well’ is much higher, suggesting that parents managed to ensure that their offspring develop literacy skills in their language. In sum, the bilingualism our informants seem to experience is quite robust, something which obviously influences their language choices.

Data collection instruments

Our data collection instrument was a questionnaire in Greek comprising three sections. The first section contained questions regarding the students’ background: place of birth, age of arrival, number of school grades attended in country of origin, parents’ nationality and country of origin, etc. Questions in the second section regarded the students’ linguistic competence in Greek and their other language (Albanian in this case), and frequency of language use in specific activities. Finally, students were asked to provide data on their language choice with various interlocutors (family members and friends, all potential speakers of the ethnic language who live in Greece) and on the latter’s language choice with them. The question format we opted for was a variation of ‘language background scales’, used in many similar studies (cf. e.g. Extra & Yağmur, 2009; Janik, 1996; Namei, 2008; Urzua & Gomez, 2008; Wright & Karatoğlu, 2006). Informants were asked to choose one of the following options: (1) ‘only in the ethnic language’, (2) ‘mostly in the ethnic language’, (3) ‘in both languages equally’, (4) ‘mostly in Greek’, and (5) ‘only in Greek’. The inclusion of relatives, friends of the family and children’s friends corresponds roughly to the ‘home’ and ‘friendship’ domains and is structured along the generation line (older vs same age interlocutors).

Procedure

The researcher –the second author- visited the three schools after having obtained the permission of the authorities concerned (Pedagogical Institute) and the collaboration of the headmasters. At first, she presented herself to the students as a teacher of Greek and postgraduate student who was to give them a lecture on the topic of multilingualism. The ‘lecture’ was basically a series of quizzes on language variety around the globe and on the foreign loanwords in the Greek language. Our aim was twofold: firstly, to pave the ground for the researcher’s second visit in which the actual data collection took place, showing that the researcher holds positive views towards bilingualism and diversity. Secondly, we wished to avoid targeting the immigrant students as our informants, since we thought this might bring unwanted attention to their ‘distinct’ identity and create or enhance feelings of marginalization. As a result, when the researcher visited the school for the second time, the headmaster invited all immigrant and some Greek students in each class (all of them supposedly chosen at random) to take part in her study, completing the questionnaires in a quiet room in the presence of the researcher. The Greek students were given slightly different questionnaires to complete, containing questions about their knowledge of other languages (English, French etc.) and their linguistic practices. These data were not included in our study.

Limitations of the study

Obviously, the fact that our findings are based on self-reports and not corroborated by participant observation or other triangulation techniques is the main limitation of the study. With regard to the issue of self-assessment for instance (which is not a major variable in this paper, however), we are aware that although self-rating is a very common technique in
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As mentioned earlier, our informants were asked to choose one of the following options: (I speak to X/X speaks to me) (1) ‘only in the ethnic language’, (2) ‘mostly in the ethnic language’, (3) ‘in both languages equally’, (4) ‘mostly in Greek’, and (5) ‘only in Greek’. Their answers were originally codified as percentages included in five-column tables. To allow for a more concise presentation, in this paper we have decided to join percentages for options (1) and (2) on the one hand, and options (4) and (5) on the other.

The first results (Tables 1a and 1b) concern the informants’ language choice with older and younger interlocutors respectively.

**Discussion of findings**

As mentioned earlier, our informants were asked to choose one of the following options: (I speak to X/X speaks to me) (1) ‘only in the ethnic language’, (2) ‘mostly in the ethnic language’, (3) ‘in both languages equally’, (4) ‘mostly in Greek’, and (5) ‘only in Greek’. Their answers were originally codified as percentages included in five-column tables. To allow for a more concise presentation, in this paper we have decided to join percentages for options (1) and (2) on the one hand, and options (4) and (5) on the other.

**Table 1a. Languages informants use with parents, grandparents, uncles/aunts and friends of the family (%)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Informant speaks to</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>only or mostly in Albanian</th>
<th>in both languages equally</th>
<th>only or mostly in Greek</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>father</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>49.6</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>22.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mother</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>48.1</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>21.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uncles/aunts</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>47.3</td>
<td>24.3</td>
<td>28.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grandparents</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>78.2</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>family friends</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>51.9</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>30.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With regard to the language choices reported for parents, uncles and parents’ friends, we observe that almost half the sample reports using mostly or exclusively the Albanian language with them (49.6%, 48.1%, 47.3%, 51.9%). On the other hand, the percentage of
those who report the predominant or sole use of the Greek language ranges between 21.6 and 30.4. Moreover, the use of the ethnic language increases when the addressee is a grandparent (78.2%). Apparently, grandparents are the kind of interlocutor that ‘compels’ younger speakers to use the ethnic language with them, a common finding in the literature (Clyne, 1991; Janik, 1996; Luo & Wiseman, 2000; Pauwels, 2005; Wright & Kurtoğlu-Hooton, 2006) that points to the importance of older family members for language maintenance.

The picture that emerges from our informants’ language choice with younger speakers is quite different, as Table 1b shows.

### Table 1b. Languages informants use with siblings, cousins and peers (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Informant speaks to</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>only or mostly in Albanian</th>
<th>in both languages equally</th>
<th>only or mostly in Greek</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>younger siblings</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>58.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>older siblings</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>78.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cousins</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>65.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>friends at school</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>68.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>friends out of school</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>64.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The majority of our informants (58.8% to 78.1%) use exclusively or predominantly Greek when they address same-age relatives and friends. Especially impressive is the low use of Albanian towards older siblings (7.3%), compared to the use of the ethnic language with younger siblings (21.6%). We shall return to this point later on.

With regard to language use with friends at school, the Albanian language is reportedly used by one third of our sample (32%). This finding suggests that, although the Greek educational system does not encourage or promote the use of other languages, they are nevertheless present at the school premises. As other researchers have suggested (Extra & Yağmur, 2009; Willoughby, 2009), immigrant languages in this context usually serve ‘social’ functions such as marking solidarity with the ethnic group or putting forward a distinct identity.

The second part of our presentation of findings involves language choice towards the subjects (Tables 2a and 2b).

### Table 2a: Languages older-generation interlocutors use with informants (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Informant is spoken to by</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>only or mostly in Albanian</th>
<th>in both languages equally</th>
<th>only or mostly in Greek</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>father</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>61.5</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>14.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mother</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>58.2</td>
<td>27.8</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uncles/ aunts</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>52.7</td>
<td>25.7</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grandparents</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>69.5</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>family friends</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>50.7</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>29.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The language which predominates in the older speakers' choices is the ethnic one, with grandparents leading (69.5% use mostly or only Albanian), followed by fathers (61.5%). Lower percentages of predominant Albanian use are recorded in the case of mothers, uncles/aunts and friends of the family.

On the contrary, younger-generation speakers show a distinct preference for Greek, which is chosen as the main or the sole code of communication towards the subjects by almost two thirds of the sample. Younger siblings are an exception here, as they speak “only or mostly Greek” to a much smaller degree than other categories of speakers (51%).

Table 2b: Languages same-generation interlocutors use with informants (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Informant is spoken to by</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>only or mostly in Albanian</th>
<th>in both languages equally</th>
<th>only or mostly in Greek</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>younger siblings</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>51.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>older siblings</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>63.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cousins</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>65.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>friends at school</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>68.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>friends out of school</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>65.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to investigate the degree of reciprocity in language choice (see results in Tables 1a and 1b compared to results in Tables 2a and 2b respectively), we applied Wilcoxon's test. Statistically significant correlations (p<.05) were found only in the following three cases, namely with regard to the language choice between:

(a) the informants and their fathers (p=.000)
(b) the informants and their mothers (p=.001) and
(c) the informants and their older siblings (p=.041).

In all three cases, informants use the ethnic language towards these interlocutors to a smaller extent than the latter use with them.

Finally, in order to ascertain whether the students’ language behaviour varies according to their interlocutors - our main research question- we applied Wilcoxon's test one more time. The multiple comparisons showed that there were indeed statistically significant differences linked basically to the interlocutor’s generation. First of all, there were no statistically significant differences between the language choice reported for interlocutors who belong to the same (older, young) generation (p>.05), with the exception of grandparents, who differ in the language they are spoken to from all other interlocutors. On the contrary, there were statistically significant differences between the informants’ language choice with all members of the older generation and the members of the younger one (p<.05).

With regard to language choices made by interlocutors towards the informants, there were again differences found between generations of speakers (p=.000). These results suggest a neat distinction of language preferences according to age group or generation of speakers; the younger one is, the more one uses the Greek language and vice versa.
Discussion and conclusions

The study in question aimed at exploring the degree of ethnic language use in the ‘home’ and in the ‘friendship’ domains in a sample of 79 youngsters of Albanian origin who live in a small provincial town in Crete. Our investigation was based on an analysis of their language choice patterns both by and towards them when their interlocutor was a family member or someone belonging to their own or their parents’ friendship network (‘friend of the family’). The basic premise of our research was that the use of the ethnic language would characterize mainly older interlocutors (both as speakers and as addressees), and, as a result, that it would diminish along generation lines. However, the first step was to ascertain the frequency of ethnic/majority language use in this particular sample.

According to our subjects’ own reports, they frequently speak Albanian with older family members (nearly half the sample report using mostly or exclusively the Albanian language with parents, uncles and parents’ friends, and nearly four quarters do the same with grandparents). They are also frequently addressed in this language by these speakers (nearly 70% of grandparents and more than 60% of fathers use mostly or exclusively Albanian with the children, the rest of the older interlocutors following suit). Moreover, the ethnic language is still in use among younger speakers, especially siblings, despite the fact that about two thirds of the sample report using ‘mostly or only’ the Greek language (percentages vary between 58% and 78%). A first conclusion, therefore, is that our subjects seem to uphold the use of Albanian among family members and friends (mostly in the former case). This, in our view, suggests that the ethnic language is quite ‘safe’ for the time being in this particular community. This contention is further supported by the fact that many of our subjects have developed satisfactory levels of literacy and overall competence in this language, despite the fact that they had not had the chance to attend school in the country of origin. Since mother-tongue courses are lacking, one has to attribute our subjects’ bilingual development to a supportive home environment which implemented language policies promoting bilingualism and biliteracy. This obviously included the sustained use of the ethnic language both by parents, grandparents -when present-, and older siblings, in some cases.

With regard to the latter, as Tables 1b and 2b indicate, our subjects claim to use Albanian much more often with their younger (21.6% and 23.5%) than with their older siblings (7.3% and 12.2%). Investigating the degree of reciprocity between the informants’ and other interlocutors’ language choice with them, we found (again using Wilcoxon’s test) that fathers, mothers and older siblings were the types of interlocutors who used significantly more Albanian with the informants than the latter used with them (p=.000, p=.001 and p=.041 respectively). A possible interpretation of why older siblings tend to behave more like parents than like younger siblings and other same-age speakers may lie in the family’s ‘obligation’ to transmit the ethnic language to the next generation. Older siblings may share this duty as well, especially since usually both parents work, sometimes long hours, and child-rearing becomes a responsibility which falls upon the shoulders of an older child. It may also be the case that older siblings taught younger ones to read and write, as they were more advanced in such skills when they arrived in the host country. In general, older siblings have been reported to retain the use of the minority language more than younger ones in various contexts (e.g. Obied, 2009; Shin, 2002).

On the other hand, it is interesting that there were no differences found between the language informants choose when they address their grandparents and the language the latter use with them. It seems that in their case, young people are in a way ‘forced’ to use the ethnic language to a high degree, either because of their grandparents’ limited
competence in Greek or because they are stricter concerning language use (cf. Janik, 1996; Luo & Wiseman, 2000; Pauwels, 2005; Wright & Kurtoglu-Hooton, 2006). Other members of the older generation seem more tolerant towards the use of the majority language at home, so children can act more like language brokers (Myers-Scotton, 2006:101) in their case.

With regard to our main question as to whether there are patterns of language choice based on the interlocutors’ generation, our findings seem quite straightforward. The application of Wilcoxon’s test showed that, on the one hand, there were no statistically significant differences between the language choice reported for interlocutors who belong to the same (older, young) generation (p>.05), while there were statistically significant differences between the subjects’ language choice with all members of the older generation and the members of the younger one (p<.05).

Our findings are in line with research in other immigrant communities around the globe which points to the important role the speaker’s generation plays in issues of language choice with family and friends. While it confirms the basic trends, it sets an interesting question regarding the role of older vs younger siblings; in most studies there is no differentiation between interaction with an older or a younger sibling. Our findings suggest that this issue requires further investigation.

As mentioned earlier, our study complements from a methodological perspective the few other sociolinguistic studies which were conducted in Greece on language shift among Albanian immigrants. Although Chatzidaki (2005) used questionnaires and Maligkoudi (2010) used interviews to investigate language maintenance in Albanian households, they both resorted to parental reports with regard to their children’s language competence and bilingual use patterns. On the contrary, in our study, teenage speakers had the chance to express themselves on such issues. Gogonas, on the other hand, did use 70 adolescent informants of Albanian background in his study on language shift among the Albanian community in Athens (Gogonas 2007, 2009). Working within the framework of ethnolinguistic vitality theory, he collected information on language competence and use in his subjects’ families using mainly questionnaires. Although the questions relating to language choice -and his results- are very similar to ours, his study does not discuss in similar length the question of the role of various interlocutors with regard to language choice (no Wilcoxon-test was performed, for instance, to establish statistically significant differences). Based on the above, we consider that our study adds important new information on the language patterns of young bilingual speakers of Albanian speakers in Greece while investigating thoroughly the effect of the speakers’ generation.

However, all the above-mentioned studies, including our own, point to the same picture; although Albanian is still used quite frequently by young speakers, especially when they address older family members, second-generation speakers demonstrate a distinct preference for the use of the majority language. Although such findings are usually interpreted as indications of imminent language shift, we suggest that caution -and further research- is needed in the case of the Albanian community. One needs to take into account the fact that Albanian immigration is quite recent, that for many families it was meant to be temporary, and that the financial crisis has delivered a hard blow to the economic sectors providing employment to immigrants. On the other hand, the new legislation and ‘regularization’ programmes allow immigrants to apply for the status of the ‘long-term resident’ or even for the Greek nationality (Gogonas, 2010), making it thus easier for families to envisage a new life in Greece. Factors such as these have a direct bearing on the immigrants’ transmission of their languages, as well as the speakers’ ideologies towards the
languages and the societies in question. Therefore, we propose that future research should combine survey-like studies with qualitative, ethnographic research which is more suited to unveil the intricacies involved in speakers' relationship with their language and their identity.

References


Aspasia Chatzidaki - Ioanna Xenikaki: Language choice among Albanian immigrant adolescents in Greece: The effect of the interlocutor’s generation


**Brief biographies**

**Aspassia Chatzidaki**

Aspassia Chatzidaki (MA, University of Reading, Ph.D., Vrije Universiteit Brussel) is an Assistant Professor of Bilingualism at the Department of Primary Education of the University of Crete. Her research interests and publications refer to sociolinguistic aspects of bilingualism and the teaching of Greek as a second language both in Greece and abroad.

**Ioanna Xenikaki**

Ioanna Xenikaki is a teacher of Greek in secondary education. She holds a Master’s degree from the Department of Primary Education of the University of Crete (dissertation title ‘*Bilingual development and bilingual use of immigrant high school students in Ierapetra, Crete*’ [in Greek]). She has presented papers in various conferences.
Listening skills development: The effect of the implementation of an ESAP module

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Abstract

The aim of the study has been to identify the effect of a teaching intervention which was designed with the aim to improve listening skills among Greek tertiary education students on the basis of assessment of their perceived needs and deficiencies.

The adopted approach to enhancing listening skills, which was used for developing the listening component of an ESP syllabus, emerged from the data collected through the students’ questionnaires and interviews as part of a needs analysis project.

Experimental research design was employed; the students’ scores in a pre- and post-test instrument were analyzed by means of ANOVA. The post-intervention data revealed that the experimental group outperformed the control group in terms of test scores while between-groups comparison indicated statistically significant differences in listening skills performance of the experimental group. The results thus, provide support for the efficacy of the adopted needs-based approach to listening skills development.

Keywords: learner needs; listening; skills development; experimental module

1. The Skill of Listening

Listening comprehension “lies at the heart of language learning” and is considered an important language skill to develop in the language classroom as language learners need to be able to understand native and non-native speakers of English and comprehend a variety of aural input in the target language (Vandergrift, 2007a:191). In fact, listening is a valued interpersonal skill for personal and professional purposes since it is thought to be essential for success in academic and professional fields and career advancement (Flynn, Valikoski, & Grau, 2008:144) which is also the case of the learners in the context at issue.

However, listening skill is described as a complex multidimensional skill (Cooper, 1997) which tends to be identified by language learners as the most difficult language skill to acquire (Hasan, 2000; Kim, 2002; Graham, 2003). It is often reported to be a source of anxiety for most EFL/ESL learners (Elkhafaifi, 2005), a fact which can be adhered to “its implicit nature, the ephemeral nature of the acoustic input and the difficulty in accessing the processes” involved in it (Vandergrift, 2007a:191).

It is considered that the comprehension of aural input involves the construction of meaning by employing linguistic elements i.e. phonological, lexical, syntactic, semantic, or pragmatic knowledge and nonlinguistic elements i.e. knowledge of the context, topic, or general knowledge of the world (Buck, 2001; Rost, 2002; Vandergrift, 2007b). This is an inferential process in which “the listener applies a variety of the different types of knowledge through top-down and bottom-up processes, and it is assumed that successful listening comprehension is the result of a complex interaction between top-level and bottom-level cues” (Staehr, 2009:580).

However, although native language listeners are able to carry out such processes quickly and effectively this is not the case with non-native listeners, who may not possess adequate knowledge of language to automatically process what is heard (Vandergrift, 2004:4). In effect, they need to consciously focus on what they hear to cope with the demands of the situation, as well as the limitations of memory and the speed of delivery of speech (ibid:4-
In relation to the major factors which affect listening comprehension a review of research indicated the following: text characteristics, interlocutor characteristics, task characteristics, listener characteristics, and process characteristics all of which need to be dealt extensively within the language classroom (Rubin, 1994).

At this point it should be noted that listening for academic or specific purposes have their own distinct characteristics given their unique focus and context specificity which cannot be ignored. As a result, genre specificity in the teaching of listening is essential since students need to “be made aware of the particular features of the discourse community they wish to become members of” (Dudley-Evans, 1994:149). In this direction, knowledge of the schematic or macro-structure of a particular genre is believed to ease the listeners’ task for making predictions about the content of the prospective aural input which in effect, leads to more effective comprehension (Olsen & Huckin, 1990; Tauroza & Allison, 1994; Dudley Evans & St John, 1994).

The advent of the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) methodology, which emphasized the need for effective oral communication (Brown, 1987), sustained the need to systematically develop listening as a skill in its own right in line with the demand for listening in real time to perform communicative tasks and interact with native speakers (Morley, 1999). In this respect, listening instruction has been informed in terms of aspects such as the differences between the spoken and the written discourse, the variable levels of authenticity, and the development of tasks which offer contextualized language use (Brown, 1987). As a result, listening instruction has extended its focus beyond listening to learn that is the product of listening to include the process of listening that is learning to listen (Vandergrift, 2004:3).

2. The study

2.1. The aim and objectives of the study

The purpose for which English will be used, academic or professional, in response to the demands of academic institutions or market forces constitute fundamental aspects of the ESP classroom which inevitably influence course design specification.

The general aim of the present study was to identify the perceived needs of ESP students concerning listening skills and devise materials and tasks which would lead to improvement in the students’ listening performance. More specific the objectives were set as follows:

- To investigate the students’ perceived needs in relation to listening skills development;
- To use this insight to develop the listening component of an ESP course (the focus of the present paper - as part of a skills based approach to ESP course design);
- To trial this experimental material in the ESP classroom, and compare the effectiveness of its implementation to that of the presently adopted course;

2.2. The Participants

The participants involved in the study were 286 Business English students of tertiary education in Northern Greece streamed into the experimental group (N=147), who were
exposed to the needs-based listening skills development 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.

In response to the demands of the needs of the learners which are both academic and professional the particular teaching context can be regarded as English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) rather than simply EAP or ESP given its special emphasis on the distinct features of Business English which distinguish it from other disciplines.

2.3. The research instruments

A number of research instruments were used to diagnose the learners’ needs in relation to listening skills, develop materials to enhance listening skills, assess the students’ progress in relation to listening skills. In particular:

2.3.1. The students’ needs analysis project

In the attempt to determine the focus of the needs-based listening component, the students were provided with a checklist of major listening texts, task types and sub-skills and were asked to rank their needs on a scale from 1-5, with 5 being the most important and 1 the least important. The checklist was the result of a negotiated effort and consultation among the ESP tutors and the subject specialists. The items included in the list were thought to be most closely related to the learners’ needs concerning their target discipline.

Moreover, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 35 students in an attempt to gain more meaningful insights into the situation.

2.3.2. Data analysis of the students’ needs analysis project

The data derived from the checklist were analyzed by using descriptive statistical methods. Frequencies and percentages for all items were obtained.

The verbal data of the semi-structured interviews, which was analyzed qualitatively, underwent the procedures of data reduction, first and second level coding as well as pattern coding. Codes resulted in groups of categories, ‘labeled’ by a specific name (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Then, similar concepts with common characteristics were clustered into themes, so as to reduce the number of categories as shown in table 4.

2.3.3. The ESAP listening skills test.

The focus of the pre- and post-test was to assess listening skills development 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 a purpose of some kind for which a language user in the real professional or academic world would actually listen, speak, read, or write. Similarly, the types of listening texts used were selected in order to
provide appropriate subject-specific input in line with the demands of such tasks. In particular, the text types used for assessing listening were specialism-and study-related in their content and specialism-related reports and lectures/ seminars/ talks.

The task formats were determined by a skills focus and the most appropriate format to elicit the students’ understanding of the text. The tasks were productive (e.g. note-taking/ notes completion involving answers of no more than three words; prompts with single words) or objective (e.g. True/False answers; multiple matching). All tasks necessitated real time processing on the part of the learners. The format of the test as well as operations tested are presented on table 1.

**Table1. The Format of the Listening ESAP Test**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main Skill Focus</th>
<th>Type of Text</th>
<th>Type of Task</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Lecture/talk on specialism-related topic (monologue)</td>
<td>Productive task: locating and understanding specific information</td>
<td>Diagram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>talk on specialism-related topic (dialogue)</td>
<td>Objective task: deciding whether information on a recording corresponds to written information-understanding gist and detail</td>
<td>T/F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Lecture/Seminar on specialism-related topic (monologue)</td>
<td>Objective task: following the development of a narrative</td>
<td>Multiple-Matching</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to establish the reliability of the test, Cronbach’s 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).

2.3.4. Data analysis of the ESAP Test

In order to evaluate the effect of the teaching intervention on the students’ listening performance in the ESAP test, scores obtained from the pre- and post-intervention test were analyzed for statistical difference by means of ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) in order to investigate the differences between the mean scores of the examinees per group, experimental and control. The dependent variables were the subjects’ mean scores in listening at the pre- and post-intervention stage.

The independent variables were the experimental and control group and the teaching intervention. Means and standard deviations as well as F-ratios were calculated. The level of confidence for these analyses was set at .05. It should be noted that the development of listening skills was tested on the basis of the additive score of all items in the corresponding part of the test.
4. Results

4.1. Listening skills development: The focus of the needs based course

As far as listening skills development was concerned the students identified the following listening text types as essential to be included in the experimental syllabus component in order of importance (table 2). The students considered it of importance to be able to “listen and follow instructions” (m=4.35); “listen and comprehend recorded materials” (m=4.29); and “listen and comprehend seminars” (m=4.16). It was also strongly indicated that “listening for entertainment purposes” (m=1.08) was not considered by the students, who seemed to acknowledge the nature of the ESP course. As regards the listening process in the target language the participants ranked their needs in listening sub-skills as follows: “understanding main points” (m=4.42); “identifying specific information” (m=4.39); and “listening and keeping notes” (m=4.26). They also considered being trained to identify and “evaluate speaker(s) position” (m=4.14) and to comprehend “speakers with different accents” (m=3.94) essential. In fact, the high means estimated for all sub-skills emphasized the students’ need for extensive training in listening skills development.

<p>| Table 2. Mean, Median and Standard Deviation for listening skills development |
|------------------------------------------|------|--------|--------|--------|</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Listening Skills</th>
<th>N.</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seminars</td>
<td>394</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.787</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recorded materials</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>.928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Following instructions</td>
<td>394</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>.905</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Movies, songs</td>
<td>394</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>.334</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main points</td>
<td>394</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>.871</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specific Information</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>.926</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation of speaker position</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.973</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keeping notes</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.884</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Different accents</td>
<td>381</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.995</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A detailed account of the students’ responses concerning the focus of the listening skills module of the experimental syllabus in terms of percentages and counts follows in Table 3.

<p>| Table 3. Distribution of students’ needs in terms of listening skills development |
|------------------------------------------|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Listening Skills</th>
<th>N. I</th>
<th>L. I</th>
<th>M. I</th>
<th>Q. I</th>
<th>V. I</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seminars</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>.8%</td>
<td>1.8%</td>
<td>14.2%</td>
<td>47.0%</td>
<td>36.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recorded materials</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>.5%</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
<td>12.2%</td>
<td>27.3%</td>
<td>54.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Following instructions</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2. The students’ interviews

Rich insights into the learners’ views concerning ESP training provision were provided through the interviews which complemented the findings of the checklist. The data after being coded resulted in 44 codes which were grouped into 10 categories classified into three basic themes: a) ESP course: reasons for attendance and expectations b) the present situation: an appreciation of the ESP context c) suggestions for better training, presented on Table 4.

4.2.1. The students’ appreciation of the context, expectations, and suggestions

The data from the students’ interview highlighted the significance of the ESP course for the learners’ present and future needs and revealed the mismatch between the learners’ expectations and the present situation establishing the need for redesigning the ESP curriculum in a way that it would effectively meet the needs of the target group of learners. Among the issues raised by the learners is the need for an ESP listening component which encompasses the learners’ subject-specific and academic needs, involves authentic, challenging ESP materials, encourages productive learning in a relaxed atmosphere, focuses on sub-skills development, and caters for any deficiencies of the learners. Also, it needs hardly be argued that the role of ESP teacher should be reconsidered as well.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes/categories</th>
<th>Codes – Coding Patterns</th>
<th>Occurrences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. ESP: EXPECTATIONS AND ATTITUDES</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profile</td>
<td>Gender - Male/ Female</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. The students’ views about the ESP course
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons for taking the course</th>
<th>Role of English as International Language ROEIL</th>
<th>32</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>English for career prospects ENCAPRO</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>English for study purposes – bachelor ENSTUPU</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>English for postgraduate studies ENPOSTU</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A compulsory module COMMOD</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expectations from the listening component</td>
<td>Training in field specific listening skills TRFSPLSK</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Training in academic listening skills TRACLSK</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preferred materials</td>
<td>Up-to-date subject-specific materials UPSUSPM</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relevant to students’ language level RESTLAL</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Visual and audio materials VIAUMA</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning in class</td>
<td>Learn in a relaxed atmosphere LEREA T</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Arrangements to facilitate task processing ARFATPR</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Active engagement in ESP ACENESP</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interest in participating in ESP INPAESP</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**B. THE PRESENT SITUATION: AN APPRECIATION OF THE ESP CONTEXT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Needs Identification</th>
<th>No consideration of students’ present needs NCOSPRN</th>
<th>21</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No consideration of students’ target needs NCOSTAN</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No consideration of preferred ways to learn NCOPRWL</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No consideration of language competence NCOLACO</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Practical constraints</td>
<td>Too large classes TLACLA</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non-homogeneous classes- semester NHOCLSE</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mixed-ability classes- competence MIABCLA</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EGP language deficiencies EGLLADE</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**C. SUGGESTIONS FOR BETTER TRAINING**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>8. Developing a needs based listening component</th>
<th>Multi-dimensional needs analysis MUDINAN</th>
<th>24</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A course focused on target discipline COFOOACC</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3. The framework for listening skills development: input, instructional focus, main listening activities

The input for the listening component included both monologues (i.e. attending to seminars, lectures, presentations) and dialogues (client-professional/expert communication) related to the learners’ target discipline or field of study as indicated by the ESP tutors and subject specialists during consultation and negotiation process. In particular, it consisted of: a) spontaneous spoken language delivered by the teacher in class in the form of semi-scripted texts so as to exhibit a certain a degree of authenticity; b) authentic recordings downloaded from the internet to expose the learners to a variety of speakers with different accents and train them to confidently cope with the situation.

In the case considered, the adopted approach to listening skills development is based on the assumptions that “listening serves the goal of extracting meaning from messages” which necessitates the provision of training of both bottom-up and top-down processes in order
Dora Chostelidou: Listening skills development: The effect of the implementation of an ESAP module

for the learners to be able to arrive at an understanding of messages (Richards, 2005:86). It is also acknowledged that all spoken utterances (i.e. words, expressions, syntax) are carriers of meaning to be processed and decoded by the learners who need to be able to “recognize and act on the general, specific or implied meaning of utterances” (Richards, 2005:86).

Among the most essential skills in EAP/ESP contexts is the ability to decode the speech delivered which means understand its overall meaning; to comprehend it, that is be able to identify main from subsidiary points; and efficiently take notes of any important points for future use (James, 1977 cited in Jordan 1998:189). Such listening activities, which call for socially and contextually appropriate responses to spoken texts are in line with the principles of the Communicative Approach to Language Teaching (CLT) (Goh, 2008) and include sequencing tasks, true-false comprehension tasks, summary tasks, and picture identification tasks. In the case of the latter, talks with corresponding context visuals, i.e. photos representative of the setting, and content visuals, i.e. photos, diagrams and/or drawings related to the content of the audio text (Ginther, 2002:34-35) are included. All of them involve various techniques to be used for practicing listening comprehension in the language classroom (ibid). More specifically these are:

- Predicting the meaning of messages
- Identifying key words and ignoring others while listening
- Using background knowledge to facilitate selective listening
- Keeping the broad meaning of a text in mind while listening” (ibid).

These techniques are implemented through the typical sequence entailed in the pre-listening, while-listening and post-listening framework (Richards, 2005:87), where each phase serves a specific function and is linked to the other phases. In particular, Field (2002:245) presented the following format of a good listening practice:

- Pre-listening which sets the context aiming to create motivation;
- Listening either extensively, which is followed by questions on context, attitude of speaker(s) etc.; or intensively when learners have to identify the answers to specific pre-set task/pre-set questions or listen to check their answers;
- Post-listening which allows for the exploitation of functional language and inference of meaning for vocabulary items (Field, 2002:245).

The framework also lends itself for developing listening strategies for coping with problems related to the nature of the listening process and enhancing comprehension, such as the application of cognitive, metacognitive and social-affective strategies during listening along with the development of metacognitive awareness about L2 listening.

4.4. Evaluation of the Effectiveness of the teaching intervention

4.1.1. Hypothesis control-The effect of the teaching intervention on students’ performance in terms of skills and vocabulary

This research hypothesis seeks to investigate the effect of the teaching intervention on students’ performance in terms of listening skills. The prediction is that students in the experimental group will demonstrate better performance in terms of higher mean scores at the post-intervention measurement compared to their peers in the control group.
4.4.2. Listening Skills Development at the pre- and post-intervention stage

Listening skills development was analyzed for statistical significance using ANOVA which indicated that there is statistically significant interaction between the experimental and control group (F (1,284)=74.986, P<0.001) at the pre- and post-intervention stages as a result of the teaching intervention. In particular, as shown in Table 5, both the experimental and control group achieved statistically significant progress in terms of listening skills development as a consequence of the tuition they had received during the teaching intervention of an academic semester.

Table 5. Comparison of Pre- and Post-intervention measurements per Group for Listening Skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening Pre</td>
<td>10.3b</td>
<td>3.37515</td>
<td>147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening Post</td>
<td>13.8a</td>
<td>3.68172</td>
<td>147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening Pre</td>
<td>10.1b</td>
<td>3.16603</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening Post</td>
<td>11.0a</td>
<td>3.53243</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* For each group, means followed by different letter are statistically significant different, at significance level α=0.05, according to the LSD criterion.

In addition, as presented in Table 6, since the groups were equal in terms of listening competence in the baseline comparison, given their performance in the ESAP test at the pre-intervention stage, the analysis of variance showed that there was no statistically significant difference of the two groups are at the pre-intervention measurement. However, at the post-intervention measurement the experimental group is statistically significant differentiated from the control group as it acquired a considerably higher mean score. Specifically, at the post-intervention measurement the experimental group attained a mean score of 13.8 out of 20 whereas the mean score of the control group was 11.1. In the baseline comparison, the scores of both groups were 10.3 and 10.1 respectively.

Table 6. Comparison of the two Groups at each stage for Listening Skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Listening Pre</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>10.3a</td>
<td>3.37515</td>
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<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>10.1a</td>
<td>3.16603</td>
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<tr>
<td>Listening Post</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>13.8a</td>
<td>3.68172</td>
<td>147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>11.0b</td>
<td>3.53243</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* For each stage, means followed by different letter are statistically significant different, at significance level α=0.05, according to the LSD criterion.

Moreover, the difference of the mean scores for the measurements at the post-intervention and pre-intervention stages for the control group of were 11-10.1=0.9 while the respective measurements for the experimental group were 13.8-10.3=3.5, figures which signify that the estimated relative effect of the teaching intervention was 3.5/0.9=3.9. Consequently, it should be emphasized that the teaching intervention in terms of listening skills development which was provided to the experimental group was 3.9 times more effective.
than the conventional teaching intervention provided to the control group in terms of mean scores. In conclusion, the significance of the teaching intervention which was based on the experimental needs based syllabus document is highly valued in terms of listening skills development.

The following figure schematically demonstrates the differences in listening skills development in the two teaching interventions, employed for the experimental and control group respectively, from the pre- to post-intervention stages.

**Figure A. Performance in the pre- and post- intervention stages in relation to the development of listening skills of the experimental and control group**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Control</th>
<th>Experimental</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Listening Pre</td>
<td>10,1</td>
<td>10,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening Post</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13,8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Discussion

The research data highlighted the success of the experimental teaching intervention as suggested by the learners’ enhanced performance in relation to listening skills and indicated the significance of the needs-based approach to ESP course design (Cowling, 2007; Long, 2005; Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; West, 1997) towards optimizing learning conditions.

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 a traditional approach which viewed listening as ‘a passive activity’, meriting little classroom attention rather than as ‘an active process’ (Vandergrift, 2004:3). This fact underlines the effectiveness of the experimental listening component in meeting the needs of the target group of learners as regards the provision of efficient training in relation to the particular skill.

Furthermore, it cannot be ignored that the status of listening in the case considered has undergone substantial change; from being a neglected skill relegated to passing treatment as a minor strand within the course (i.e. the case of the until recently adopted course) it has now attained (i.e. in the case of the experimental module) to be regarded as a core module within the ESP program (Anderson and Lynch, 1988; Brown 1987; Buck 1995; Mendelsohn, 1998; Vandergrift, 2004;). The distinctive element between the two paradigms is the special emphasis placed in the latter case on the procedures which allow for a deeper understanding of the processes the listening process entails (Richards, 2005) on the part of the learners as well as a detailed approach as to how they could be facilitated.
in building up their listening ability (Underwood, 1989) and raising their awareness of skills, strategies and techniques in relation to listening (Underwood, 1989). In this direction, every effort has been made to present listening as a purposeful experience for students who were exposed to the listening texts and tasks with an identifiable purpose in mind rather than in an abstract way.

Moreover, since the ultimate goal of listening instruction was to help the learners cope with the demands of understanding the target language for a variety of purposes either personal or professional it was essential to provide them with authentic listening materials which offer them a range of real-life listening experiences including exposure to speakers with different accents and to different varieties of language (Vandergrift, 2007a). It is considered that the development of listening skills is greatly enhanced through exposure to authentic-type texts which offer a natural speech rate since this way the students can more easily access similar texts when listening for real-life purposes (ibid: 200) which is not the case when exposed to simplified texts only as was the case with the control group (Blanco, 2002; Gallien, 2001). Therefore, the experimental listening component can be clearly regarded as having an impact on the students’ mastery of listening skills development through the provision of a focused approach which exposed them to a variety of discipline specific tasks (Silva, 2004) serving both the students’ immediate academic needs and long-term needs as professionals (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) and reconceptualizing the link between the language classroom and the real world (Graves, 2008:417).

At this point it should be considered that listening in the ESP language classroom aimed to follow real-life information patterns, therefore, it was not limited to the so-called “one-way listening” which focuses on the process of information receiving but was also extended to involve “two-way listening” where interaction with another speaker takes place (Lynch & Mendelson, 2002).

Although it cannot be assumed of the students to have reached native like proficiency (Stern, 1983:341) concerning their listening skills during a single academic semester, they have made significant progress as indicated by the comparison of their mean scores before and after the teaching intervention. These scores provide evidence for the students having acquired considerable skills and become adequately competent in the process of listening as regards aspects of the target language in their field of study. Also, they are considered to have developed as listeners to engage confidently and efficiently in comprehending spoken exchanges for academic or professional purposes in effect of the focused training they were provided with.

In conclusion, the development and implementation of the needs-based experimental listening component can be regarded as highly effective in enhancing the learners’ performance and promoting their achievement in ESP as more effective listeners.

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Brief biography

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Dora Chostelidou is an EFL teacher in secondary education. She holds a M.A. degree in TEFL and is currently a Ph.D candidate at the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki. Her research interests include teaching EFL and ESP, needs-based course design, syllabus design and curriculum renewal, teacher development, and multilingualism/plurilingualism. She has participated in Greek and International Conferences and has published articles in journals.
Ekistics monumental heritage in today’s Turkey: current status and management prospects

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Abstract
Turkey, having historical links with ancient civilizations, has also to face many problems, under the influence of both natural and social factors, as regards the preservation of its historic environment. The country tried at first to develop legislation that regulates public intervention to protect primarily the urban architectural heritage, taking measures at national, regional and local level. The fundamental laws regarding the protection of cultural heritage coincide with periods of political and economic change, while the country, in the recent years, has started taking steps towards achieving a modern legal framework, concerning protection, commensurate with the European one. Nowadays, all activities concerning protection, planning, management and preservation of cultural and natural heritage, are carried out under the guidelines established by the Legislation about Conservation of Cultural and Natural Heritage and the Principles of the Supreme and Regional Councils of Conservation / Maintenance.

The country, today, is in transitional stage and the attempt to balance tradition and modernization leads to a cultural dualism, which is evident in all aspects of life and often associated with westernization and acceptance or rejection of Ottoman and Islamic elements. This paper targets to record and evaluate the institutional framework and policies on the management of cultural and architectural heritage in contemporary Turkey.

Keywords: Heritage, protection, management, institutional framework, Turkey

Elements of historical and cultural identity
The first period of Ottoman history is characterized by almost continuous territorial expansion, during which, the Ottoman Empire, beginning as a small hegemony in North-western Asia Minor, became an empire which included the South-eastern Europe, Asia Minor and the Arab world, conquering thereafter (1453) also Istanbul.

This Empire, under the leadership of Suleiman the Magnificent (1494-1566), occupied most of the Balkan lands, Hungary and large areas of the Middle East and North Africa 1.

According to Mehmet Özdogan, the Ottoman Empire ruled the Balkans and the Middle East for more than 600 years and "for the Ottomans, the Balkans were in fact the Empire’s heart rather than Anatolia." As he suggests, most monuments have been erected in the Balkans, without, though, them to being kept within the geographic area in an ideal preserving condition, except urban residential buildings and these especially due to purely touristic revenue reasons.

The contemporary Republic of Turkey (official instauration in 1923), is "genuine offspring" of the Ottoman Empire. In its territory, although from which there were detached some significant areas (such as the Balkan Peninsula, Cyprus, continental and insular Greece), were still included almost all areas considered by the western archaeologists as the cradle of culture and in which was detected – from even the time of the existence of the Empire - an especially large number of excavations.

This had also particular impact on the local archaeologists, thus resulting in the fact that

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1 Özdogan Mehmet, in Meskell Lynn, 2006
 sciences such as archaeology and generally the promotion of cultural heritage in Turkey were being developed to a significant degree, imitating mostly the western standards.  

There are few cases, however, when Turkey has been blamed for "selective destruction of antiquities". Of course (according to the same investigator, Mehmet Özdogan), its scientists exult conflicting, expanding of views which refer to disasters during industrialization period travelled by the country as well as the inadequate implementation of the legislation on the registration of Turkey’s cultural heritage. This record, not having been completed up to now, has also similar effects on Ottoman residues along with those of other historical periods, such as the Byzantine period.

Architecture

The cultural heritage of Turkey is being influenced by the Arabic, the Byzantine and the Western culture. The period after the Conquest of Constantinople by Mehmet II the Conqueror, was for the Ottoman Empire an important milestone in its evolution. Among others, it was characterized by extensive artistic and architectural creations, especially works of religious, as well as, secular architecture, of monumental scale.

Later, during the 18th century, when the Empire met with deteriorating situations, the last period of cultural activity - known as the Tulip period (Liale devri: 1703 – 1730), constitutes, according to Aristides Passadaios, the last Ottoman attempt to architectural and artistic expression, with obvious western influences, especially at decoration.

During the decline period of the Ottoman Empire and especially from the Russo-Turkish War (1878-1879) until the Balkan wars, Turkey lost a large part of its territories. However, the Ottoman Empire has passed to us not only religious monuments, but also an example of traditional architecture, as a result of the common to all Balkan populations' cultural tradition.

The geographic location and history graced Turkey with countless historical monuments, which were adopted as part of its cultural heritage, without any distinction between populations and cultures being grown for centuries consecutively on its territory. The heritage of traditional architecture possesses a particularly special place.

The Ottomans, after the establishment of their empire, created at the dominated territories their religious and secular (monumental) architecture. Their (folksy) traditional architecture has been also developed during that same period.

The traditional way of life is one of the main factors that determined the spirit and the form of folk architecture. The Turkish tradition has its roots both in its primitive history ethics and its Islam worldview. However, according to Haliuk Sezgin, among the particular architectural and construction features which the Ottomans brought from the East, they also assimilated many of those found in the conquered regions, developing thereafter a complex cultural character.

Determinants of Turkish traditional architecture

Undoubtedly the Turkish house is distinguished by certain, almost unchangeable

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2 Özdogan Mehmet, in Meskell Lynn, 2006
3 Özdogan Mehmet, in Meskell Lynn, 2006, Papadopoulou-Symeonidou Parysatis, 2003
4 Passadaios Aristides, 1981
5 Sezgin Haliuk, in Balkan Traditional Architecture, 1993
characteristics, derived from living standards and social specifications. Because of the compulsory by the Islamic dogma segregation between men and women, there had been arisen the necessity of distinction between "harem" and "selamlik". At the general floor plan of the house, such a distinction came over only on large residencies of Ottoman capital city at the end of 19th century. On the common urban and rural house, on the contrary, the resolution of the distinction between "harem" and "selamlik" was their placement on different floors. Nevertheless, the upper level was always designed for the private life of the family. The same applies to all houses, regardless of form and construction materials.

The main determinant of Turkish traditional architecture is the life model of residents, itself, that is to say the social customs, the religious moral principles, the production etc. A determinant of society is its cultural and economic structure. Anatolia and Eastern Rumelia, as they called the European part of Ottoman Empire, had a simple economic system, based on agriculture and farm products. Except wheat crop and stock farming in rural areas, there was also a pre-industrial production at the urban space. Agricultural life and economy had given a rather primitive look at houses, as there was often the demand of a large ground floor used as a stable and a storehouse of agricultural products. The mills, but mainly, the wheat and corn storehouses, called "serender" (serender: wooden wheat storehouse, very common along the east coast of Black Sea), are other constructions which belong to the main house, and they are rather rare and additional at those rural districts with a slightly higher income.

In the cities, on the contrary, manufacturing pushed certain changes on traditional buildings. On the houses, for instance, of Bithynia, where families were mainly working on silk mills, there was a special study for an attic especially to silkworm farming. Yet, along the Aegean Sea coast the carpet manufacturing demands the construction of additional auxiliary spaces on the ground floors of houses. The rest types of cottage industry do not ask for specific layout of the spaces of the building. That system was very popular all over Ottoman Empire, in contemporary Turkey and Northern Greece and Albania as well.

The modernity of traditional Turkish house

The modernity of the Turkish house is not only connected with the historical trend of modern Turkish architecture but also with the history of architecture in general, that means that many of its characteristics have served as points of reference for modern architecture.

The exploration of the history of architecture imposed on the architects of Western Europe to discover the Turkish house. Anyhow, those architects did not show any interest for the traditional architecture early and, in particular, no earlier than mid-19th century. Particularly prototype was the project of Nicolas Huyot (1780 – 1840). In 1817 and 1818, when he was traveling along the Turkish Aegean coast, was interested in traditional residences, impressing many plans (layouts) (in Istanbul, Therapeia, Dardanelles), whilst leaving an accurate and objective description of them. In 1991, the, approximately ten, sketches of Ottoman residences of European Turkey or Istanbul drew by Le Corbusier, indicate the intense interest they provoked to him.

The classicism (mainly, historicism) appeared in Turkey in the 1940’s with the "Second Nationalism of Architecture", headed of which was professor Eldem Sedad who also expressed himself in many projects currently adorning the coastline of Bosporus.

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6 Mauer Elisabeth, Maurer Ursula, 1975
Let us note that the modernity of Turkish house also consists in its typological elements. The drift of the centre of significance from the external to internal part of the house, occurred by the presence of "sofa" in the ottoman house, is a still existing element to some countries. Thus, it’s given the impression that the urban house with central yard tends to be an apartment with a main central space.

It is remarkable that the Turkish traditional/folk house, thanks to the favorable conditions within Ottoman Empire, turned out to be a new-formed Balkan style.

Apart of it, the outlook, or rather the outlook characteristics of Turkish traditional house, influenced certain contemporary architects of the country, who turned to traditional values. During the recent years, at the privileged districts of big Turkish cities, there have been constructed some buildings which are very successful copies of former ones. Apart from those samples, yet, there’s also a tendency to post-modernization, particularly dangerous when in wrong hands with limited knowledge and skills.

Urban planning

It is known that Ottomans, since their early conquests in the Balkan Peninsula, did not cause any changes in the external view of the villages, but, they significantly changed, however, the external appearance of the cities, leaving their permanent stamp to them. The medieval Islamic culture invading the Balkans is primarily urban culture.

The key feature of the medieval Muslim city is the absence of organic building blocks, as it consists of several self - administered groups. The idea of self - administration was further strengthened by the theocratic principle, upon which was based the Ottoman state, as it demanded the organization of the population according to their religion. The inhabitants with common religion or common employment lived in separate districts with their own religious sites. The differentiated "mahalas" is the typical characteristic of the Ottoman city.

Reference area of the city was the "charsi / bazaar", a central street where all commercial and production activities / functions were gathered in sheds and rough open markets, in others shaded, as well as in solid corresponding commercial constructions, the "bezestenes / covered markets". Here were assembled all the "hania / inns" (hostels for merchants) and the various warehouses. The guild professional organization (in "isnafia") dictated housing of shops and workshops of every guild in a certain space and the organization of individual stores within specialities.

The centre included the great mosque of the city and around it – in a residential complex – the rest religious and spiritual institutions. The management (administrational) centre along with the military, police and market regulations services were often located in the fortified part of the town, the castle.

According to the Bulgarian historian and diplomat N.Todorov, in his book "Balkan City", a second essential feature of the Ottoman city is the direct intervention of central authority in economic life through legislation and control. Thus, the population of the Balkan Muslim city can be divided into two main categories: the representatives of authority, as

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7 Eldem Sedad Hakki, 1968
8 International Council on the Monuments and Sites, 1977
9 Moutsopoulos K. Nikolaos, 1988
10 Todorov Nikolai, 1983
well as those who maintained the city’s prestige, namely the administration, and the ordinary citizens, the rays, who produced the material goods.

After the Ottoman conquest all Balkan cities were organized within this context. Many of them had become remarkable economic centers, by the Byzantine era, thanks also to their important geographical location.

As it is known, the Ottoman Empire has since 1838 entered a new phase of economic and sociopolitical reforms aiming to modernize the state apparatus, to the westernization of the society and to discharge the legislation from religious law.

In order to recover from the economic crisis and the technological underdevelopment, the Empire attempts to implement a range of social and institutional changes based on western standards. "These reforms introduce new perceptions and institutions which, despite their opposition to the old values and traditions of centuries meant for the officials of the government and the bureaucrats of the Ottoman capital progress and modernization. The major urban centres and particularly the capital city take advantage of the beneficial effects of these modernizing reforms in terms of urban but also architectural design”, as demonstrated (Celik Z., 1986).

The primary keystone of reforms is to grant equal rights to all citizens of the Empire, regardless of their religion and nationality, and more specifically, to provide them with the right of ownership and disposal of real property within the borders of the empire.

The equality of national – religious minorities with the Muslim and the fact they were more ready to accept the westernization attempted in terms of the Tanzimat (reforms), places them in an advantageous position. The communities, as providers of European ideas and because of close relationships with communities of the same nationality in Western countries, know how to exploit the new economic conditions and are leaders in introducing new standards in the fields of education, social services, community organization and planning.

Moreover, the introduction of foreign technology and know – how, the establishment of technical high schools and technical military schools, the establishment of the School of Fine Arts and the enactment of new building regulations, permit to emerge the suitable conditions for a range of interventions aimed at modernizing the function of the city and constructing a network of new building types coming to meet new operational and housing needs.

In this way, the institutional changes which began since the declaration of the Tanzimat found immediate application in the urban space and architecture. The result was the transformation of the image of the classical Ottoman – Islamic city to a more cosmopolitan one, with new styles and shapes of buildings with obvious influences from the corresponding western standards.\(^{11}\)

The urban planning first applied in Constantinople. The first planning was carried out in 1836-37 by Von Moltke. In the context of that project the first building issue was published, in 1839, followed by the issue "Ebniye Nizamnamesi"\(^ {12}\) which was replaced in 1855 by the regulation "Sehremaneti" that was being applied by the city administration\(^ {13}\). In 1864 by the "Turuk ve Ebniye" issues there were defined the building terms and in 1870

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\(^{11}\) Celik Z., 1986. Asteriadou Eleni, 2006

\(^{12}\) Dinçer İclal. & Akin O., 1994

\(^{13}\) Tekeli İlhan, 1998
by the Act "Vilayetler Kanunu" a new centre had been designed in Constantinople with the purpose to accommodate the state employees. At that new centre were built the State Headquarters and the buildings of the Municipality, the Railroad Station and the Court House.

In 1887, during the First Constitutional Period with the Acts referred to Municipalities (Belediye Kanunları) the above mentioned project became famous all over the Ottoman Empire and the urban planning was familiar in other cities out of Constantinople. During the application of the above Acts certain improvements had been advanced, which were analogous to political, economical and military progresses. Those specific improvements referred to the widening of roads, to the setting up of districts to accommodate refugees and to the construction of buildings for military purposes of that time.

During the period of capitalist growth and setting up of industrial cities there was not any plan of protection on urban level and important buildings of the urban tissue were not protected. The up-to-date planning of western urban areas influenced the Ottoman Empire only in the field of widening of roads, of forming new districts round the urban centres and of the fire protection. In addition to the above, in 1910 in the context of city elegance there was decided and widespread the opening (breaking) and setting up of the environment of monuments with the purpose to enhance them, changing, thus, the traditional urban tissue and destroying certain monuments, being characterized as of minor importance.

Along with the instauration of Turkish democracy on October, 29, 1923, and after setting Ankara as its capital city, since the first decade of national Turkish state there were forwarded a series of important statutes and administrative regulations for the planning of capital city, which would be the first urban centre of Anatolia. With the town planning of Ankara it was also noted, at the same time, a quick growth of the rest cities of the country, but with an -on-a-reduced-scale- urban planning. In the course of time and after the changes which stemmed from technical and industrial development, the concept of an elegant city was replaced by the concept of practical city.

*Figure.1. Monumental (ekistics, cultural) heritage in modern Turkey*

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14 Dinçer İclal. & Akin O., 1994
15 Dinçer İclal. & Akin O., 1994
The institutional framework for the protection of monuments in Turkey

It is notable that Turkey is the first Islamic country actively involved in the field of cultural heritage and is the first country that initiated the Europeanization of administration system already since the 19th century, when the Ottoman Empire still existed. Within the system of Europeanization was also included the protection of monuments.

In 1884, Osman Hamdi Bey, director of the Imperial Museum, formulated a law on the protection of antiquities. This law was so complete that it was applied until 1972. What’s more, the Ottoman legislation was first to ban the export of antiquities and the Ottoman Empire was the first to accept foreign archaeological missions, a fact which still happens, and the first that created archaeological schools.17

Regarding the institutional framework for the protection of monuments, today’s Turkey is bound by the Hague Convention (1954), Paris Convention (1972) and Granada Convention (1985), having validated the above conventions.18

Turkey applies the law 2863/21.07.1983, revised by the laws 3386/17.06.1987 and 5226 "On Protection of Cultural & Natural Heritage". In accordance with the provisions of this law, the Ministry of Culture & Tourism of Turkish Republic is the responsible governmental service for the registration and protection of cultural monuments located within the borders of the country. The registration of the monuments is carried out in accordance with their nature. Thus the monuments are either attached in the General Directorate of Foundations, Mosques and Mausoleums, or in the General Directorate of Cultural Heritage and Museums. Both General Directorates come under the Ministry of Culture & Tourism of the Republic of Turkey.

The law defines as first and highest priority the protection of monuments. In the beginning, it defines the immovable cultural goods, which are part of cultural heritage, and proceeds to the measures to be taken for their protection. It is notable that as immovable cultural goods, according to the institutional framework of Turkey, are meant tombstones, calligraphic inscriptions, illustrated caves, tombs, historical sights (acropolis, necropolis), castles, bastions, forts, caravanserais, inns, Islamic seminaries, graves, mausoleums, bridges, aqueducts, ruins of a historical road, tanks, wells, altars, shipyards, palaces, mansions, houses and more.

The 1980’s was for Turkey crucial for forming the perception about cultural heritage and its protection. The time coincides with the end of military dictatorship and the major effort towards the modernization of the country at all levels, under the leadership of the reformist Turgut Özal, who remained consecutively Prime Minister (1983 – 1989) and President of the Republic (1989 – 1993).

Part of this context is the explicit provision of article 63 of the Constitution of 1982 according to the content of which the State secures the preservation of historical, cultural and natural resources and wealth, and takes measures to support and promote this purpose. Also, a series of laws and regulations, such as law 2863 of 1983 on protection of cultural and natural heritage and subsequently various amendments and additions made by laws 3386 in 1987 and 5226 in 2004, as well as other legislative regulations.

Turkey of the 80’s, with renewed confidence and exempt from narrow notions, considers

17 Özdogan Mehmet, in Meskell Lynn, 2006
18 Voudouri Daphne and Strati Anastasia, 1999
19 http://www.kultur.gov.tr
that its historical course and geographical position make it somehow heir of the civilizations developed in the regions of Anatolia and Thrace during their long – standing history: According to Sevil Yildiz, it is about the cultures of "… the peoples of Anatolia (Hittites, Lydians, Carians, Phrygians, etc.), the Mediterranean and Aegean Sea (Mycenaean, Greek, Roman Byzantine), Central Asia, Iran, Arabs, Seljuks and Ottomans)."21

The diversity and richness of this cultural environment make Turkey unique global example, but in the same time, theoretically, they put it also on charge to protect its cultural heritage and preserve it for future generations.

It is also to be noted that Turkey participates actively in international organizations, signed the Convention for the Protection of World Cultural and Natural Heritage of UNESCO (1983), and incorporated the European Convention for the Conservation of Architectural Heritage (1985) and the Convention on the Protection of the Mediterranean.

As "World Heritage Sites", in the framework of Unesco, Turkey has defined: 1) Historic areas of Istanbul, 2) Archaeological site of Troy, 3) City of Safranbolu, 4) Capital of the Hittite, Hattusha, 5) Sacred mosque and hospital of Divrigi, 6) Mount Nemrut, 7) National park of Goreme and rocks of Cappadocia, 8) Hierapolis – Pamukkale, 9) Xanthos – Letoon.

Today, apart from the official bodies, there participate on a reduced scale and Non Governmental Organizations also, as the Association of Historic cities, the Environment Volunteers (Çevgön), and many others.

Conclusions or an evaluation of monumental heritage management in Turkey

Turkey entered systematically the field of protection of cultural heritage in the last quarter of 20th century, creating a solid framework of legislative protection. But, as it happens in other areas, also, legislation and announcements encounter problems and difficulties during the implementation phase, due to various reasons, from which the most general are quoted.

All traditional societies – and Turkey is one of them – face problems associated with rapid social and economic change, due to the high urbanization, population growth and industrialization. As a developing country, Turkey is facing a series of environmental problems that result from development and modernization but, of course, natural factors, also, such as rough terrain, high seismic activity and erosion. The main environmental problems are developed at the National Environmental Action Plan of Turkey.23

As noticed, however, environmental problems do not cease to be, interactively, social problems too, which reflect the interaction between the change of resources, the human productive activities and the transformations of human life. This view is verified impressively in the case of GAP (Güneydoğu Anadolu Projesi – Southeastern Anatolia Project) that concerns large-scale interventions (series of dams, hydroelectric works and irrigating reservoirs) in the region of the rivers Tigris and Euphrates bringing about the sinking of entire areas and the forced relocation of thousands of residents. Naturally, the

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20 Özal Turgut, 1986
21 Yildiz Sevil, 2010
22 http://www.unesco.org/culture
23 Özdemir Ibrahim, in Folitz Richard, 2003
24 Morvaridi Behrooz, 1995
25 http://www.gap.gov.tr
cultural heritage will not remain unaffected. As Nathalie Tocci notes, "the GAP threatens the cultural heritage of the area. Several archaeological sites along the Euphrates have flooded. With the construction of the dam on the Tigris river (meaning the dam Ilisu), the magnificent ancient city in Hasankeyf is doomed to perish beneath water".26

The sensitization of the residents, attributed to awareness of the need to protect the natural environment, the activation of numerous non governmental organizations with environmental, ecological and cultural agenda and the increasingly important position occupied by these subjects at all grades of education make residents an appreciable pressure lever in the government, even though often it is about protest reactions with limited, local, interest.

In the context of protection of the cultural heritage, under the strict sense, namely the officially designated Monuments of World Heritage, the problems arising, consicely, are: 1) Lack of adequate and effective planning (Management Plan, Tourist/Visitor Management Plan). 2) Definition of "neutral" zone of protection (Buffer zone). 3) Awareness of the local population. 4) Administrative structures and appropriate staff. 5) Communication and cooperation between among involved bodies. 6) Financial resources.27

Turkey, as a country which has historical bonds with ancient civilizations, has also to face many problems, under the influence of both natural and social factors, as long as it regards the preservation of its historic environment. The loss of cultural heritage is evident mainly in large cities with intense tourist development, such as Istanbul.28

Linking cultural heritage with tourism – under the umbrella of the same Ministry (the same is applied to other countries too) – Turkey is trying to secure the conditions for the sustainable development, promotion and protection of cultural heritage.

Tourism, a phenomenon that showed very strong development during the last decades, is regarded to contribute greatly to the contact of the people with cultural heritage and the awareness of citizens in local but also hyper-local level, combined with the modern informative and communication media. Simultaneously, it also comprises an important source of funding cultural organizations and supporting financially local communities.

There is, however, a serious doubt as regards the impact of tourism, and the subsequent "development" of the environment mainly of the historic cities, as well as the role of tourism in preserving cultural heritage. The touristic industry is accused of having changed the history into a commercial product, sold and reproduced. The historical and urban areas are concerned as resources that can be directly transformed into products for sale to consumers looking for "experiences".29

The richness and polymorphism of Turkish cultural heritage is one of the most important touristic resources. Consequently, the cultural tourism holds a significant place among other kinds of tourism. This fact functions as a determinant for the preservation and promotion of cultural heritage. The worth of cultural tourism becomes a national strategy that centres on the promotion of Turkish cultural values, values which bring considerable profits. The promotion of cultural heritage within the above context is encouraged on all levels by the state, the non governmental organisations, the local self-government, local societies and travel agencies. Messages referred to cultural heritage are sent and

26 Tocci Nathalie, 2001
27 Somuncu Mehmet and Yiğit Turgut, 2010
28 Cengiz M., 1997
transmitted through publications (posters, brochures, articles on magazines and newspapers), through television programmes, documentary films and through internet\textsuperscript{30}.

The cultural heritage as a touristic product is an important part of tourism, in general. Today, special excursions are planned by local societies and travel agencies, directing to target groups of various interests. The tourist centers of attraction are religious points, historic cultural paths (the travel, for instance, in ancient Lycia, the apostolic route of Saint Paul, the Silk Road etc), building constructions from a specific architectural period or a particular architect or buildings of a special style\textsuperscript{31}.

As an epilogue, we mention the following:

In Turkey the legislation about the protection of cultural heritage followed a procedure which started from the protection of an historic object, proceeded as the protection of a building and turned out to become the protection of a whole district/thorp. On that progressive procedure we notice the below:

On 20\textsuperscript{th} century it had been started the formation of institutional and juridical background concerning the protection of monumental wealth and the first step had been made to institutionalize it by establishing the \textit{Supreme Council of Historic Objects and Monuments}. In 1950 the urban planning was being wider and the subject began to be discussed within academic terrain. At 1970’s the notion of protection turned out to mean ‘area under protection’. With the help of the academic sensitiveness it was passed the law about historic monuments, and, their localization, documentation and registration began. At 1980’s, apart of the planning, it had also started the institutionalization of the bodies which would take actual part on that protection subject. On the scientific part of the procedure there was academic participation so to start the harmonization with the respective international protection procedures. For this purpose it was passed the law about cultural and natural wealth protection and it was forwarded the concept of reconstruction, aiming to protection, while it was secured the regular reconstruction with different plan. At the first decade of 2000 it went on the institutionalization of the bodies that would participate actively both on planning and in protection. The participation of scientists of the academic field continued and the Municipalities, after the reassurance of international cooperation, played a dominant role regarding the protection of urban cultural heritage. By the passing of the new law Nr. 5226 the subject of protection of historic monuments and cultural heritage was placed on a more stable basis.

The advantages, however, are the richness of cultural and natural elements, the presence of one single authority for the application and control of preservation issues, the sensitivity of bodies such as universities and non governmental organizations, and also, a course of researching projects run by governmental organizations. It is also noticed, due to political reasons mainly, an organized attempt to the provision of technical and financial support so as to preserve and promote the ottoman monuments out of Turkey.

Counter to the above, there exist the difficulties noticed on choosing and determining the ‘under protection’ areas because of the multitude of candidate places, due to lack of experienced staff and cooperation among the responsible organizations. On that fact comports also the lack of financial resources, of proper information/sensitization of public opinion, of professional training as regards the protection, of reconstruction and maintenance and also of inadequacy of training programs on the particular subject.

\textsuperscript{30} Orbaşlı Aylin, 2003
According to the Council of Europe, Turkey shall have to establish a responsible implementation service or services and to adopt work schedules. On this project would contribute greatly certain international bodies/bureaus, the enhancement of information of the public and the active participation of the public.

Finally, it would be omission not to mention the fact that Turkey during the recent years takes advantage of cultural heritage so as to succeed very specific political goals: the opening of the Monastery of Panagia Soumela on August, 15th, 2010, although it would be characterized as an acknowledgement of Christian minority’s religious rights with positive public impression for Turkey, as a result, it had, nevertheless, not an inconsiderable contribution to the tourist-financial field. It is discussed, for this reason, among local bodies, the chance of the opening of the Monastery during the other Christian feast days, while it is discussed, also, within certain environments the possibility to celebrate Mass in Agia Sofia in Constantinople32. Considering, in parallel the ‘New-ottoman’ orientation of contemporary foreign affairs policy of Turkey, the necessity of reconstruction and promotion of ottoman monuments, mainly in Balkan, is clearly observable.

In conclusion it is noted that modern Turkey is in transitional stage and the attempt to balance tradition and modernization leads to a cultural dualism (Tradition and Modernity). A dualism, evident in all aspects of life and is often associated with westernization and acceptance or rejection of Ottoman and Islamic elements.

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Brief biography

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Wider Benefits of adult participation in Lifelong Learning courses

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Abstract

The present study draws on the wider benefits emanating from adult participation in Lifelong Learning (LLL) courses. Throughout contemporary literature, participants in LLL have been reported to acquire knowledge and skills, develop understanding and enhance self-confidence, parameters that induce changes in their personal lives, while enable them to undertake a more active role in their family, community or work. Moreover, it has been depicted that “disadvantaged” individuals tend to report increased benefits, resulting from their participation in educational courses. Findings entail considerable practical and theoretical significance for LLL and its substantial contribution in economic and social realm, as a means of facilitating social inclusion and enhancing economic growth.

Keywords: Lifelong Learning, European Union, education policy, wider benefits

Introduction

In light of continuous technological advancement, socioeconomic globalisation, and demographic reallocation, widening access and raising adult participation in Lifelong Learning (LLL) has emerged as a major component of sustainable economic growth and social cohesion reinforcement, both globally as well as within the European Union (EU).

The dynamics of LLL have been widely discussed in contemporary literature, contributing both to personal emancipation (Freire, 1970; Mezirow, 1981), as well as economic advancement (Commission of the European Communities, 2005; de la Fuente & Ciccone, 2002; Psacharopoulos & Patrinos, 2002; Schulz, 1963). At the same time, there are references to the estimated effect of LLL in social well-being, assuming that the returns of education are not solely externalised in the economic field, but produce a beneficial effect in the social sphere too, leading to wider public and private benefits.

In this vein, the present study attempts to draw on the wider benefits, personal, social and economic, emanating from adult participation in Lifelong Learning (LLL) courses.

Methodology

Literature review was conducted following a four-stage process, including research of preliminary sources, use of secondary sources, study of primary sources and synthesis of the literature (Gall, Borg & Gall, 1996: 117). Preliminary source research was conducted using bibliographic databases, such as Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC), Hellenic Academic Libraries Link (HEAL LINK), as well as the Europa database for tracing EU policy papers. References within preliminary sources helped draw up a comprehensive list of primary material relevant to the topic, which once assembled and studied through a critical approach, allowed a deeper insight in the subject and a broader understanding.

EU Policies: LLL & estimated benefits

Rhetoric of EU policy papers, in light of Lisbon and ET 2020 strategies, has highlighted the socio-economic value of LLL and benefits of investment in knowledge, stressing its
effect on economic growth and social stability (Commission of the European Communities, 2003, 2005). However, although investment in LLL has long been an explicit or implicit policy goal, non-economic returns are rather vaguely perceived (McMahon, 1998; Schuller et al., 2004).

According to Popkewitz (1980), political “slogans” tend to bring attention to some general and ambiguously defined purposes or goals. Hence, in the case of the “LLL slogan”, political discourse repeatedly accentuates multifarious benefits, such as increased earnings and employability, social cohesion enhancement, health standards improvement, active citizenship, lower crime rates and greater prosperity and fulfillment (Commission of the European Communities, 2005, 2003, 2006).

In this context, it is argued that there is "compelling evidence that education contributes to personal development, social cohesion and productivity, has a measured impact on economic growth and reduces societal costs by preventing social exclusion, health problems and crime" (Commission of European Communities, 2003). More analytically, findings of a study investigating the efficiency of investment in education and training have depicted that a variety of benefits are produced at multiple levels, benefits for individuals, businesses and society at large (Commission of the European Communities, 2005). Private benefits incur through higher earnings and increased employability, while communities benefit directly from investment in LLL through higher productivity and indirectly through a series of additional benefits such as health and social cohesion.

In the same vein, in Commission Communication "Adult Learning: It is never too late to learn" (Commission of European Communities, 2006), it is acknowledged that adult learning increases social returns in terms of improved civic participation, better health, and increased individual well-being and fulfillment. More precisely, it is assumed that education not only "transforms people's lives", but also enables them to cope with stresses of daily life, maintain mental and physical health, increase well-being and self confidence, and combat feelings of social isolation or exclusion. Thus, rising participation in LLL is closely interrelated with: a) increasing overall skill levels and ensuring basic skills acquisition by all citizens, b) helping respond to demographic changes, such as population aging in Europe and problems arising from migration and c) enhancing social integration, as low levels of initial education, unemployment, rural isolation and reduced opportunities may lead to marginalisation of large numbers of people, while new forms of illiteracy, in the form of access to and use of ICT, intensify the phenomena of social exclusion (Commission of European Communities, 2006). Moreover, it is outlined that research on older adults indicates that those engaged in learning tend to be healthier, reducing, consequently, health costs.

It is therefore evident that, throughout EU political discourse, is made extensive and repeated reference to private and social benefits of LLL. However, most references are based on hypotheses, lacking substantial evidence. One could argue, for example, that it is not participation in LLL that contributes in improving health levels of the elderly, but healthy seniors have more chances to participate in LLL. Thus, we deem important that further research is required to control variables that might impact data, so as to avoid simplifications.

**Wider Benefits of Adult Participation in LLL**

The role of non-governmental organisations in shaping education policy in the EU and adding to the “LLL slogan” has been significant. According to OECD studies (OECD,
1982, 2001), investment in human capital can generate a significant number of non-economic benefits. In particular, it is argued that education a) tends to improve health, b) seems to make people happier, c) contributes to improvement of intergenerational educational level, d) is associated with higher civic participation, volunteering and charity and e) minimises the risk of criminal activity. In the same vein, McMahon (1998) considers investment in education able to produce measurable benefits beyond economy and productivity, including improved health, longevity, political stability, respect for human rights, decrease of crime and poverty, and respect for the environment.

Haveman, and Wolfe (2001) assume that the non-economic impact of learning is even likely to exceed the market returns. However, few studies have been conducted in the field due to methodological difficulties entailed. According to Downs (2004), to vaguely understand that there are wider benefits from participating in LLL is a part of the issue, being however able to measure such benefits constitutes an entirely different matter, while there is lack of an institutional framework for their recognition.

Behrman, Crawford and Stacey (1997:3) argue that the schema through which LLL may produce outcomes is tri-fold: a) by augmenting knowledge and information on which individuals’ attitudes and values are based, b) by removing constraints limiting action through competence development and c) by transforming behavior, preferences and goals. Furthermore, subsequent benefits can be realised on multiple levels: individual, social or economic (Schuller et al., 2004), while all outcomes are initially deployable on individual basis and diffused into social and economic spheres (Clemens, Hartley & McRae, 2003).

Dewson et al. (2000) distinguish between soft and hard outcomes, where “soft” stand for not directly and objectively measured outcomes, such as changes associated with interpersonal, personal, organisational and analytic skills. In contrast, "hard outcomes" are clearly and objectively measurable, including professional skills and qualifications. In the same vein, Anderson, Foster and McKibben (2006:60), attempting to investigate the outcomes of informal learning, developed a register, Soft Outcomes Universal Learning (SOUL), comprising 21 self reported statements, according to which "soft" or "intermediate" outcomes are categorised into three domains: attitudes, personal/interpersonal traits and practical skills.

"Soft" outcomes fall under what is often referred to in literature as "identity capital", which is made up of resources deployable on an individual basis, representing how people most effectively define themselves and have others define them in various contexts (Côté & Levine,2002:142). As with human or social capital, identity capital comprises tangible resources, which tend to manifest in behaviours and possessions of individuals, like educational credentials, memberships, and parental social status credentials, as well as intangible resources, including personality attributes, such as ego strength, internal locus of control, self-monitoring, self-esteem, a sense of purpose in life, critical reflection and moral reasoning abilities (Côté & Levine, 2002, p. 144), while it is susceptible to cognitive and psychodynamic transformations, even during adulthood.

In particular, increase of self-confidence, self-esteem and self-efficacy through LLL, mediating to the production of wider outcomes, have been indicated as core benefits among findings of a number of relevant research studies (Downs, 2004; Dymock & Billett, 2008; Preston & Hammond, 2002; Ward and Edwards, 2002). Watters and Turner (2001), based on findings of a study investigating the impact of adult participation in courses not leading to certification, identified increased self-confidence, promoted by successfully attending a course, getting familiarised with technology or accepting risk taking and
change, as central outcome, generating and disseminating wider benefits, positively impacting family life and social relations. In the same vein, Ward and Edwards (2002) used the term “learning journey”, as a metaphor, to describe changes occurring through the enhancement of confidence and self esteem of trainees.

Increased psychological (increased self-confidence and self-esteem) and health benefits have also been reported among findings of a great body of research building on literacy courses (Boggs, Buss & Yarnell, 1979; Cervero, 1983; Darkenwald & Valentine, 1984; Dymock & Billett, 2008; Eldred, 2002; Lance & Bates, 1998; Merrifield et al., 1993; Ward & Edwards, 2002). Other areas in which substantial benefits have been identified fall under improvement of basic skills and educational level, advancement of professional and financial status, increased participation in LLL, as well as enhanced civic participation.

Another issue, which has also been recorded in relevant studies (Brassett-Grundy, 2002; Bynner et al., 2001; Schuller et al., 2002), is the positive impact of parental participation in LLL courses, being related to benefits for parents themselves, as well for their offspring. In particular, it has been noted that cognitive development of parents, along with psycho-emotional changes, such as renewed expectations, new objectives and increased self-confidence, may affect interpersonal relationships between family members, as well as performance of children at school.

Furthermore, the relationship between adult participation in LLL and change in attitudes was investigated by Preston and Feinstein (2004), through data retrieved from The National Child Development Study (NCDS), a longitudinal study collecting evidence from citizens living in Britain, born during the first week of March 1958 (Centre for Longitudinal Studies, http://www.cls.ioe.ac.uk/). Findings indicated that although there is limited data to interpret causal relationships, LLL can have some influence on transforming attitudes, such as adoption of more “democratic” attitudes and values. Therefore, LLL is regarded as an important tool for policy planning to strengthen social cohesion, foster active citizenship and reduce racism.

Data from the NCDS was also used to investigate the impact of LLL in health, social capital and social cohesion (Feinstein et al., 2003). Findings once more indicated that although changes occurring through LLL are relatively small, attending LLL courses is directly related to positive changes in a wide range of health and social life spheres, emphasising, thus, the need to increase investment in LLL.

The interrelationship between LLL and social capital has been widely drawn upon through research in Adult and Community Education (ACE) courses in Australia. According to Falk, Golding and Balatti (2000), having investigated the wider outcomes of learning through semi-structured interviews, LLL plays an important role in generating social and economic benefits. In particular, it is argued that strengthening of social capital through LLL programmes, at mid-level (groups, networks, communities) and micro-level (individuals), is crucial for multiple socioeconomic benefits, under the mediation of acquisition of knowledge and skills, as well as identity capital. On the grounds of another empirical study, Falk and Kilpatrick (2000) developed a model which implies that learning takes place along with social capital building, that is, when interaction in a community mobilises existing cognitive and identity resources and builds on them.

In the same vein, attempting to research the private and social dimensions of LLL benefits, Schuller et al. (2004) came up with a triangular framework, within which twelve categories of learning outcomes were categorised into three forms of capital: human capital (skills developed), social capital (social relations) and identity capital (perceptions of individuals...
about life and themselves). Moreover, the static and the transformative dimensions of learning have been investigated (Schuller et al., 2002), depicting the critical importance of static results, which, although usually underestimated, are assumed of significant importance for maintaining wellbeing levels, as well as social cohesion.

Finally, Green, Preston and Sabates (2003), attempted a critical assessment of the models developed with regard to the triangle of education, social capital and social cohesion. Using quantitative data from fifteen developed countries, they came up with a theoretical model, evidencing that investment in LLL is an important factor in enhancing social cohesion. However, it was outlined that increased provision of LLL courses cannot itself ensure social solidarity in cases of uneven distribution of social skills and income.

Discussion

Research findings (Balatti, Black & Falk, 2007; Dymock & Billett, 2008; Eldred, 2002; Preston & Feinstein, 2004; Preston & Green, 2003; Preston & Hammond, 2002; Schuller et al., 2004) have indicated that the changes brought about on individual level, through participating in LLL courses, are deemed to produce a wider impact on family, friends, social or natural environment, as affected by changes in individual’s actions, attitudes or values. More precisely, participants in LLL courses are provided with the chance to acquire new knowledge and skills, and develop understanding and self-confidence, parameters that induce changes in their personal lives, while enable them to play a more active role in their family, community or work. The increase, therefore, of personal skills and competences, in relation to self-esteem enhancement, as well as social interaction and networking, are key variables, acting as mediators in fostering prosperity, development and social cohesion.

Moreover, for individuals with low education background, women or older people, participation in LLL courses can serve as a catalyst for personal development and overall welfare (Hammond & Feinstein, 2005; Lightfoot & Brady, 2005; Preston & Feinstein, 2004; Swain, 2006). More specifically, successful completion of LLL courses, offering a "second chance", can be proven exceptionally beneficial for the self-esteem of individuals who failed within formal education (Preston & Hammond, 2002; Preston & Feinstein, 2004). Participants, for example, in literacy courses report they have changed in general, renewed hopes and aspirations, as well as increased self-esteem and confidence, which provides them with the chance to control and redefine their lives (Swain, 2006). In the same vein, it is argued that women who participate in education courses go through a cyclical and reciprocal process of increasing self-efficacy, enhancing personal development, improving family and social relationships, as well as their professional status (Hammond & Feinstein, 2005). Especially non-working women experience greater self-satisfaction, getting a chance to undertake new roles and engage in new activities, realising that they can successfully respond to tasks other than those normally engaged in (Lightfoot & Brady, 2005). Equally significant is contribution of LLL in the quality of life of older people, helping them to remain active after retirement and enabling them to establish new social relationships (Preston & Hammond, 2002).

However, it should be pointed out that, in generalising the above findings, there are several limitations to be taken into consideration, such as intrinsic bias, that is, individual differences in personality, attitudes and behaviour, as well as differences arising from family, community or social context which individuals grew up and live in. These characteristics are not only likely to affect the outcomes of participation, but actual participation in educational courses during adulthood. According to Behrman, Crawford & Stacey (1997:3), education is a process in which important factors, such as individual,
family and social attitudes and choices, play an important role, not able to be depicted among data sets analysing educational outcomes. Hence, research in the field tends to simplify complex processes and interrelations. Most importantly yet, a major constraint is subjectivity of data, as research is grounded on individuals’ statements.

Conclusions
The present paper sought to depict wider outcomes arising from adult participation in LLL courses. Existence of wider benefits as a result of participation in LLL courses is widely recognised in literature, while the European rhetoric, in the context of the Lisbon and ET 2020 Strategies, highlights the socio-economic value of LLL and returns of investment in knowledge, stressing its effect on economic and social growth (Commission of the European Communities, 2003, 2005).

Findings, thus, entail political significance, depicting the need to enhance access to LLL for all citizens, so as to acquire, update and develop skills and key competences needed both for employability as well as for active citizenship. Most importantly, however, targeted action should be taken to increase and widen opportunities for participation of vulnerable social groups, so as to provide for inclusion of disadvantaged individuals and bridging of social inequalities. In a contemporary context of deregulation of socioeconomic environments and rise in inequality phenomena among countries, peoples or social groups, promoting LLL and widening participation, especially through targeted action and positive discrimination interventions, could account for prohibiting marginalisation or exclusion of individuals from the economic and social spheres, while it could foster development through exploiting creativity and productivity of all human resources. In this vein, the Commission (Commission of the European Communities, 2004) identifies widening of opportunities for participation in LLL and developing of an integrative framework to approach people with learning deficits or confronted with the risk of poverty, as a major challenge in tackling social exclusion in the EU.

References


**Brief biography**

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Dr Eugenia A. Panitsidou is Scientific Collaborator with the Department of Educational and Social Policy, University of Macedonia, Greece. She holds a Master's Degree in Continuing Education and a Ph.D. in Lifelong Education, while her research interests include European Union education policy, private and social impact of participation in lifelong education and quality provision and assessment of adult education courses.
The effectiveness of a pilot intervention program of Physical Education in Multicultural Preschool Education

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Abstract

Research findings related to contemporary multicultural preschool education in Greece show the disadvantaged position of non-native children of preschool age, who appear to have low social status and acceptance, higher indices of loneliness and social dissatisfaction compared with their native peers, as well as increased disruptive behavior. On the hypothesis that a suitably designed Physical Education [P.E] program with emphasis on a music and kinetic content and dramatization of movements, based on intercultural material, can contribute to the improvement of communication and relations among the children and to the acceptance of cultural diversity, a pilot intervention program was implemented in five multicultural nursery schools in Thessaloniki, Greece, for a month. There were 84 preschoolers participating in the program (Boys=34, Girls=50), 34 of whom were non-native (Boys=14, Girls=20).

To evaluate the intervention, the tools used were: the Teacher Assessment of Social Behavior questionnaire, the Loneliness and Social Dissatisfaction Questionnaire for preschoolers by Cassidy and Asher (1992), as well as systematic observation of the children’s performance. The results confirmed the hypothesis, showing a decrease of aggressive and disruptive behavior and a simultaneous strengthening of cooperative behavior in children participating in the program.

Keywords: preschool education, Physical Education [P.E], music and kinetic education, cultural diversity, social integration, communicative relations

1. Introduction

The coexistence of diverse cultures sharing the same space in a multicultural society as well as multiculturalism as a demographic phenomenon per se are noticeable since the beginnings of history (Kanakidou 1997; Samuda, 1997). During the last few decades in particular it has acquired a new dimension, as mass population movements are taking place all over the world, involving migrant workers, refugees or asylum seekers (Tsokalidou & Paparousti, 2004).

Since the mid 80s Greece has become a host country for migrating populations consisting of foreigners, repatriated diaspora Greeks mostly from the republics of former Soviet Union, and immigrants (Drettakis, 1999; Katsikas & Politou, 1999; Fakiolas, 2003). These new, large communities of migrants coexist with smaller, previously established communities of immigrants of African or Asian origin (Nikolaou, 2000). This coexistence of immigrants and natives has various economic, political, social, cultural, psychological and educational repercussions (Gotovos, 2002; Damanakis, 1987).
As a result of immigration and/or repatriation, there is a number of non-native schoolchildren who attend Greek schools; the main bulk of these can be found in primary education. According to studies by the IPODE (Institute of Education of Greeks Abroad and Intercultural Education, an agency of the Greek Ministry of Education), in a total of 93,071 schoolchildren in preschool education in the academic year 2006-2007, the number of non-native schoolchildren was 8,274, whereas in 2007-2008, in a total of 90,698 schoolchildren in 76% of kindergartens all over the country, 8,111 were non-native and 759 were repatriated Greeks.

1.1 Racial otherness/ diversity in education

Organizing school life in a multicultural classroom is not an easy matter. Immigrant and repatriated children join the host country's educational system carrying severe disadvantages. According to Mousourou (2006), they are unfamiliar with the language and they are also socialised in a different reality that is kept alive at home. They have to deal with their developmental challenges and, at the same time, overcome difficulties related to everyday life in the strange new country (Klimidis et al. 1994; Nagasawa & Wong, 2007). It has also been reported that immigrant students feel insecurity, lack of sociability, need for affection and feeling of loneliness. They are faced with barriers such as cultural and racial isolation, unfamiliarity, and hostility (Nagasawa & Wong, 2007). Adjustment problems are often reported in a greater proportion among culturally and linguistically diverse students than among native students (Frideres, 1995).

Studies carried out in Greece during the last decade showed the difficulties non-native students had to deal with in the classroom compared with their host peers, since they were the ones scoring higher on rejection (Bikos, Tsioumis, & Gregoriadis, 2002; Tsioumis & Katsinaki, 2000) as well as loneliness and social dissatisfaction, even in schools designated as intercultural (Arvanitidou & Chatzigeorgiadiou, 2009; Chatzigeorgiadiou & Arvanitidou, 2009). According to Woodward (1988:4) "loneliness is a feeling of being alone and disconnected or alienated from positive people, places and things”. Children who are disliked by peers report greater loneliness and social dissatisfaction than children who are better accepted (Asher & Wheeler, 1985). In addition, children who experience poor peer relations and social alienation constitute "at risk" populations who may demonstrate both reduced opportunities for social learning and greater adjustment problems during adulthood (Asher et al. 1990).

Research has indicated that the social difficulties manifested by some immigrant children affect their emotional health, educational adjustment and development in a very negative manner (Hatzichristou, Giavrimis, & Lampropoulou, 2005). Thus, issues of loneliness and social dissatisfaction concerning the aforementioned student population into Greek multicultural school contexts are becoming more and more relevant to educational research.

Certain findings indicate that specific behaviors displayed in the peer group account for the relation between early problem behavior and peer status (Keane & Calkins, 2004). Two pathways have been hypothesized to lead to difficulties in peer relationships during childhood; either internalizing (shy-withdrawn) or externalizing (disruptive-aggressive) behavioral problems (Parkhurst & Asher, 1992; Rubin, Chen, & Hymel, 1993; Henricsson, 2006). Peer rejection seems to mediate the association between behavior and loneliness. Loneliness and social dissatisfaction have been found in some research studies to be highest among children exhibiting not only shyness and withdrawal, but also disruptive-
aggressive and less pro-social behavior (Cassidy & Asher, 1992; Galanaki, Polychronopoulou, & Babalis, 2008). Rejected young children (Cassidy & Asher, 1992; Ladd, Kochenderfer, & Coleman, 1996; Sanderson & Siegal, 1995) report intensive feelings of loneliness and social dissatisfaction. In addition, withdrawn-rejected children were found to experience intense loneliness feelings, while aggressive-rejected children were less lonely (Renshaw & Brown, 1993; Asher & Paquette, 2003). Furthermore, loneliness has been found to be highest among young children exhibiting disruptive and less pro-social behavior, as assessed by their teachers (Cassidy & Asher, 1992; Fine et al. 2003).

More recent research findings indicate that the situation has not changed significantly, particularly in preschool education, and that non-native preschoolers perform higher on the loneliness and social frustration scale compared to their host peers, while such emotions are often combined with increased disruptive behavior (Chatzigeorgiadou, Pavlidou, & Arvanitidou, 2011). As a result, social integration of such children is not a given and has yet to be achieved.

School is by nature an institution of intervention, and in its function as the most proactive factor of social integration outside the family it can encourage positive racial attitudes (Mitilis, 1998). A truly multicultural school should intervene to demolish existing prejudices and contribute towards peaceful coexistence of culturally diverse people and groups. Primary education, including preschool education, has the lion’s share in this process, since the largest number of culturally and linguistically diverse children is concentrated there, as it has been mentioned above.

Physical Education [P.E.], a primary field for implementing methods of cooperative learning with the objective to develop motor as well as social skills (Magotsiou & Goudas, 2007), can apparently play an important role in the equal treatment of diverse cultures and in putting the multicultural experience of students in modern preschool education to good use, for the benefit of everyone involved.

1.2 The pedagogical dimension of P.E. in the multicultural school

P.E. as a school subject is an integral part of children’s education involving all those means and methods that influence their physical and motor development (Chatzicharistos, 2003). It is of primary importance in strengthening the social and cooperative skills of students, since its activities are social by nature (Hellison, 1995). The wide use of interaction (physical contact, verbal communication), the lack of formality, the environment which is different from that of a typical classroom, the strong sense of freedom, and the discipline of rules and regulations that restrain antisocial behavior are some of the features in P.E. that contribute to its strong social skills-building character (McHugh, 1995).

Due to its emphasis on personal experience and motor activities, active participation of preschoolers in P.E does not require any special learning abilities, and more importantly it does not demand a sufficient knowledge of the language of the host country. As a result, cultural, linguistic, ethnic or national diversion does not become a reason for rejection or exclusion, and all children can participate equally and actively in the lesson. This is a very significant point, since language, being by nature the chief means of communication as well as a major educational tool and skill, is the main cause for poor school results and academic failure of non-native students. Mitilis (1998) in a paper on the role of the school environment in forming racial attitudes of children in modern Greece, has shown that insufficient knowledge of the Greek language is a problem for non-native students not only
as an obstacle to communication and academic progress in school, but also as a cause of negative attitudes of their host peers towards them.

Given that participation in P.E. programs does not come up against such obstacles, this school subject becomes a useful tool for the educator and it can be pedagogically valuable in a multicultural classroom.

1.3 Physical Education and creative activities in kindergarten

Zachopoulou (2007) describes the six objectives of P.E. in preschool age; of these, the following three refer to its potential in being used as a pedagogical tool in multicultural classes:

- Acquiring positive experiences through physical activity and developing self-expression and social interaction
- Understanding and respect of individual differences and cooperation
- Demonstrating responsible social behavior through participation in motor activities.

According to the Preschool Educator’s Guide, P.E. involves the development of movement related to rhythm, personal expression and dance, as well as the initiation of children into the world of sports. In reference to the first part, the opportunity is offered to expand its scope and engage creatively in music and dramatic play. This broadens the field of communication between children as well as between educators and children, since it allows the latter to externalize, in various creative ways, certain experiences and emotions which it would be difficult for them to express verbally (Dafermou et al. 2006).

Emotional, mental and psychokinetic responses of preschool-age children to a piece of music are indications of their creativity. Preschoolers participate in music and kinetic education wholly and more spontaneously than children of other age groups. According to Edwards, Bayless, & Ramsey (2010:42) “the culturally different child can develop in an environment where music is prevalent and there is no punishment or fear”, the same authors point out that dramatization of various ideas by means of movement is important to children, as it pushes them towards a multitude of kinetic efforts and allows them freedom of personal expression. The playful character of these activities is expected and actively pursued, since play is generally accepted as a major parameter in the physical and mental development of children (Kappas, 2005); within the framework of P.E. in particular, it creates conditions for cooperation and interaction making sound pedagogical use of the Zone of Proximal Development (Vygotsky, 2000).

Based on the above, our research hypothesis was that a suitably designed P.E. program with emphasis on the music and kinetic direction and on movement dramatization based on intercultural material can help to improve relationships among children, to decrease unwanted types of behavior and to increase acceptance of diversity in multicultural nursery schools.

2. Method

To investigate this hypothesis, a research intervention was designed in order to evaluate the suitability of such a program; this was implemented as a pilot project in multicultural kindergarten schools in the area of Thessaloniki.

This intervention is based upon the principles of Education sciences and Psychology and
its point of departure is the Preschool Educator’s Guide, which helps to make the intervention relevant for the educator connecting it to the actual realities of education. Accepting that movement can be useful as a multi-dimensional educational tool, movement activities are attributed with new dimensions, as it will be shown later.

Our objective was to take advantage of the educational role of P.E. programs in the multicultural environment of a present-day Greek kindergarten, and use it to achieve equality, peaceful coexistence and social integration of all students. More specifically, we actively sought modification of behavior in order to improve communication and social skills in preschoolers, native and non-native alike.

We used a wide range of movement activities of playful character and with marked cultural elements, on the basis of the following basic principles correspondingly:

- Contact and familiarization with the diverse.
- Comparison of experiences of the diverse and the familiar
- Common action for the synthesis of new experiences, combining the familiar and the diverse and enriching them with new elements (Arvanitidou, 2007).

Moreover, it has been shown that commonly undertaken activities and cooperation for the achievement of common goals can help to smooth out intergroup relations (Sherif & Sherif, 1969).

To assess the success of the program we evaluated: a) feelings of loneliness and social dissatisfaction, as reported by the children themselves, b) the children’s behavior, as it was reported by the kindergarten teachers in the schools we visited and c) live observation (logs) of the children during the organized implementations.

2.1Participants

A total of 84 kindergarten children participated (M=34, F=50). The sample consisted of five multicultural kindergartens, randomly selected, situated in the east and west areas of Thessaloniki, a city of about a million inhabitants. Fifty of them (M = 20, F = 30) were native and the other thirty-four were immigrant and repatriated (M = 14, F = 20). The implementations lasted for a month and involved two organized activities per week, of 30 to 40 minutes duration each. The countries of origin of participating children were Greece, Albania, Russia, Georgia, the Philippines and Turkey.

The implementations were videotaped with the written permission of the parents / guardians. Live observation and videotaping of the procedure, by watching closely the children's performance, facilitated the collection of data and the improvement of the programs. It was also a way to locate which elements specifically caused positive reactions in isolated children or in larger groups.

2.2 Basic points in the program content

Communication activities using movement and speech were the core of the program and can be classified into the following three types:

1. Movement activities using sound stimuli.

This type of activity includes rhythmic games, whose purpose is to combine movement and speech, so that the contact of native and non-native children with each other’s language becomes a simple, entertaining and meaningful procedure for all
children involved. Some examples of such games include calling out the names of the children, familiar appellations they use among themselves, slogans that unite the team with rhythm and movement. Dance improvisation is also involved, with the purpose of familiarizing the children with new experiences in an entertaining way, helping them to compare their experience to what they already know and expressing their impressions and feelings through movement. Typical traditional music from the place of origin of the children is mostly used, but also music representative of other countries and cultures.

2. Dramatization activities using expressive movements of the whole body.

In this program the children are encouraged to perform dramatizations through mime games – obviously not using the specific technique of mime as a performance art – in order to project their expressiveness of face and movement, with limited and optional use of speech. These dramatizations aim to bring the children into contact with various cultural forms of expression and to help them cooperate in an enjoyable way towards a satisfying creative result. Some themes used are representations of traditional rituals of world cultures (e.g. a wedding); the stimuli are expressive narrative by the educator, suitable music, and in some cases selected visual material and / or the use of simple disguises by the children. Another motive is representations of events in the life cycle (e.g. harvest) with similar stimulation. There are also themes for the physical and mental relaxation of the children accompanied by suitable music.

3. Movement games with simple rules

This type of movement activities aims to help the children in a familiar and entertaining way to recognize the many similarities and few differences that exist in childhood play all over the world, so that acceptance of the other comes naturally. Traditional movement games from the places of origin of the children are mostly used here, but there are other traditional movement games as well, with striking similarities though they come from diverse cultures (e.g. a game which is called ‘little tails’ in Greece, ‘fishes’ in Russia and which is also played with small variations in Nigeria). The program also encourages the children to create new versions of traditional movement games through cooperative activity, under the prompting and guidance of the educator.

2.3 Tasks and procedure

The following evaluation tools were used and both of them were administered twice, before and after the implementation of the program:

1. Loneliness and social dissatisfaction. We administered the Cassidy and Asher (1992) 24-item Loneliness and Social Dissatisfaction Questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of 8 filler items (irrelevant to the testing purpose), which were omitted from scoring, and 16 main items. Children responded to each question by answering "yes," "no," or "sometimes." Questions focused on children's feelings of loneliness, feelings of social adequacy versus inadequacy, subjective estimations of peer status, and appraisals of whether important relationship provisions are being met. Children were interviewed individually outside their classrooms.

2. Teacher assessment of behavior. Teachers provided behavioral information about children using Teacher Assessment of Social Behavior (Cassidy & Asher, 1992). They were asked to rate children on four behavioral dimensions: pro-social, aggressive, shy-
withdrawn, and disruptive. Each dimension was assessed using three items, for a total of 12 items. The measure was based on ratings on 5-point scales. Each teacher received the behavior rating questionnaire after all the children in her class had been interviewed.

3. Results

3.1 Loneliness and Social Disatisfaction.

For the Loneliness and Social Dissatisfaction Questionnaire we assessed the reliability coefficient Cronbach’s alpha which was .75, and very close to the reliability of the American scale (Cassidy & Asher, 1992). This indicated that the instrument had adequate internal consistency.

Mean and standard deviation of loneliness and social dissatisfaction variable before the implementation of the program were $M = 23.3$, $SD = 4.13$, and after the intervention were $M = 24.8$, $SD = 5.51$. One sample t-tests were used to examine whether performance on the Loneliness and Social Dissatisfaction Questionnaire differed after the implementation of the program. Results did not reveal differences between the loneliness and social dissatisfaction scores before and after the implementation of the program.

3.2 Teacher Assessment.

We assessed the internal reliability of each subscale, and found each to have satisfactory reliability. For the aggressive behavior subscale Cronbach’s alpha was $\alpha = .79$, for the disruptive behavior subscale $\alpha = .77$, for the pro-social behavior subscale $\alpha = .76$, and finally for the shy/withdrawn behavior subscale $\alpha = .59$.

Next, we examined the frequencies of the four behavioral types described by the Teacher Assessment of Social Behavior questionnaire. Results indicated that before the implementation of the program disruptive behavior was the most common (N = 80 with rates equal or greater to 5 points), as well as aggressive behavior (N = 53, with rates equal or greater to 5 points). On the other hand, after the program, teachers viewed children as less disruptive (N = 53, with rates equal or greater to 5 points) and less aggressive (N = 43, with rates equal or greater to 5 points). They also reported a positive increase in pro-social behavior between children after the implementation of the program (N = 76, with rates equal or greater to 5 points). Frequencies and percentages of the four behavioral dimensions before and after the implementation of the program are given in Table 1 and Table 2.

### Table 1. Frequencies and percentages of the four behavioral dimensions before the implementation of the program

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rates</th>
<th>Aggressive (f)</th>
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<th>Disruptive (f)</th>
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Eva Pavlidou - Virginia Arvanitidou - Sofia Chatzigeorgiadou: The effectiveness of a pilot intervention program of Physical Education in Multicultural Preschool Education

Table 2. Frequencies and percentages of the four behavioral dimensions after the implementation of the program

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<th>Rates</th>
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<th>Aggressive %</th>
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Note: Highest score = more positive or negative behavior.

One-Sample t-tests revealed differences in teachers’ reports concerning the disruptive behavior of all the participants after the implementation of the program (t(83) = 5.045, p = .006, r = .49). The calculated effect size represents a large effect (Cohen, 1992; Field, 2005), and therefore a statistically significant finding.

Next, we examined the frequencies of the four behavioral types before and after the implementation of the program, for the immigrant and repatriated children. Frequencies and percentages of the four behavioral dimensions before and after the implementation of the program are given in Table 3 and Table 4. Results indicated that before the implementation of the program, disruptive was the most common behavior (N = 34, with
rates equal or greater to 5 points). After the implementation of the program according to the teachers’ reports disruptive behavior reduced (N = 23, with rates equal or greater to 5 points) and the pro-social behavior among children increased (N = 28, with rates equal or greater to 5 points).

**Table 3. Frequencies and percentages of the four behavioral dimensions before the implementation of the program for the immigrant and repatriated children**

<table>
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<th>Rates</th>
<th>Aggressive (f)</th>
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*Note: Highest score = more positive or negative behavior.*

**Table 4. Frequencies and percentages of the four behavioral dimensions after the implementation of the program for the immigrant and repatriated children**

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<th>Rates</th>
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*Note: Highest score = more positive or negative behavior.*

One-Sample t-tests revealed differences in teachers’ reports concerning the disruptive behavior of immigrant and repatriated children after the implementation of the program (t33 = 3.465, p = .001, r = .51). The calculated effect size represents a large effect (Cohen,
1992; Field, 2005), and therefore a statistically significant finding.

4. Conclusion – discussion

Acculturation can be an extremely stressful process (Ward, Bochner, & Furnham, 2001). Recent studies revealed a psychosocial situation for immigrant and repatriated young children that could be characterized less than encouraging. Education should assist in cognitive advancement and psychosocial adjustment, despite students’ diversities. According to previous research it is obvious that immigrant and repatriated young children lack opportunities for self-expression and social adjustment in the host school setting.

The results of the present pilot implementation were encouraging. Data analysis of the findings and logs showed that our hypothesis was verified to a satisfactory degree. Our results indicated that children did not identify a change in their emotional state concerning loneliness and social dissatisfaction. Given that the intervention’s duration was rather short, one should not expect a significant emotional change, concerning such young children’s group. Nevertheless, all the variables set for behavior showed a positive change. It was noteworthy that aggressive and disruptive behavior was reduced, while cooperation was markedly improved. As the decrease of the two negative types of behavior does not necessarily imply that there is an improvement in the positive behavior at the same time, it appears that the project had independent effects on each of the behavioral types. Therefore, it would seem that further educational stimulations would be required for the improvement of positive behavior.

It should be pointed out that the positive change in behavior was manifested in the immigrant and repatriated children’s group as well as in the total of the participants. This specific finding confirms the effectiveness of the particular project on the entire student population, despite their diversities. Aggressive and disruptive behavior is related to peer-rejection that leads to internalized anger in the child: intense movement is useful in defusing this anger. On the other hand, a P.E. program orientated towards music and kinetic education is based on children’s cooperation; therefore the element of competition is abated. The children can release their emotions / relax through movement in a fun context, often using creative dancing and dramatization related to the expression of their emotions and with minimal conflict between them. It stands to reason that such a program can help to minimize tensions and to improve communication and relations among the children, which is exactly what happened at the end of this intervention. This finding confirms those of other studies, in which holistic music education programs, involving movement in relation to emotion, facilitated the development of empathy and therefore of communication in preschool children (Kalliopuska & Ruokonen, 1986; Pavlidou, 1998). Shyness was the only behavioral type that might benefit from a longer implementation of the program, as the result analysis did not show any significant differences there, which means it was not positively affected by the program.

Systematic live observation and feedback from videotaping the program brought to the fore certain points which assert the positive influence of the intercultural music and kinetic content of the program on non-native children: some of them expressed spontaneous feelings of joy and pleasure when they heard familiar children’s songs from their country of origin. Two suggestive cases were two children in different classes which shouted out the following phrases, projecting their bodies at the same time: “This mine!” , “I know this song! This song is from Albania. I’m from Albania too!” The fact that familiar sounds were offered to them during an educational procedure in the official framework of school
Eva Pavlidou - Virginia Arvanitidou - Sofia Chatzigeorgiadou: The effectiveness of a pilot intervention program of Physical Education in Multicultural Preschool Education

seemed to ‘legitimize’ their own culture of origin and consequently their identity and their existence itself. Furthermore, the wholehearted and repeated participation of all the children in dance improvisations and rhythmic games accompanied by such sounds seems to contribute to the unrestrained and spontaneous acceptance of the diverse, a result which is also confirmed by other studies (Kyrkou & Pavlidou, 2003).

The findings of the pilot intervention and the corresponding observations confirm the pedagogical value of P.E. programs with intercultural music and kinetic content. This specific pilot program was implemented in the setting of an average kindergarten in Greece as far as infrastructure is concerned; therefore it is compatible with Greek realities. After its evaluation, it is judged suitable and is proposed for use in the preschool education curriculum. It is proposed that this educational intervention is repeated for a greater length of time in more multicultural kindergartens, so that the effects of the program are studied anew with the same or even with more variables that may concern integration, socialization and natural incorporation of all children in school life.

Video and control group findings were not used in the pilot study, a fact demonstrating the limitations of the study, since these will be important tools in the forthcoming main implementation.

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A comparison of the educational performance of students attending IPS and MPS on abilities crucial for school learning and adaptation

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Abstract
The most important achievement in Intercultural education, in Greece, was the establishment of Intercultural Primary Schools (IPS) for the education of students with special training, social, cultural or educational needs. Nowadays, there are many Intercultural Primary Schools, which have been converted into schools for foreigners, because in most of the cases Greek parents hesitate to send their children to these schools due to the students’ cultural differentiation and linguistic diversity. As a result, Intercultural Primary Schools are largely schools for children of lower social classes and are associated with low performance and school failure of the foreign students.

The goal of the present study was the examination and comparison of students’ performance in an IPS with those of students’ in a Mainstream Primary School (MPS). It emerges that students of Intercultural Primary Schools have lower performance in skills which are related with linguistic ability.

Keywords: Intercultural education, Intercultural Primary School, Mainstream Primary School, School performance

Introduction
The main challenge the multicultural societies are facing in our days is primarily the organization of the relations between natives and foreigners in such a way, so that meeting each other does not lead in conflicts, but in a creative interaction of their cultures. The educational system, the institution of supporting those who are subjected to social inclusion processes and cultural interaction par excellence, must play an important role on the acceptance and recognition of the otherness and pluralism as hallmarks of the social status (Govaris, 2001).

In Greece, many years before migration was exploded, there was a small – but not a negligible – presence of foreign students. They were the children of few foreign workers in Greece, who usually were having a high social, financial and educational level. Those students were attending private or foreign primary schools that were placed in the huge urban centers of Athens and Thessaloniki (Damanakis, 1997; Nikolaou 2000). Since the beginning of the ‘90s, due to the collapse of the Albanian political system and the massive immigration to Greece, the majority of the foreign students attending in the Education are of Albanian origin, since they represent a large proportion of all the foreign students in Primary Education. The remaining percentage allocated among students coming from the former Soviet Union, other Europeans and Asians (Gotovos & Markou, 2003).

The care of the official Greek state for the foreign students’ education starts at 1970, but essential steps have been made since the beginning of the ‘80s until 1996, by passing legislation for the formation of Special Purpose Classes and Tutorial Classes (Greek Ministry of Education N 1404/83). This regulation initially indicated the teaching of language and culture of the origin country for 2 or 3 hours weekly in the Special Purpose
Classes. However, in practice the Special Purpose Classes functioned and still functions at a direction of high adaptation and absorption of different cultural students (Nikolaou, 2000).

In 1996 a new law (2413/96) is passing that establishes schools of Primary and Secondary Education to provide education for young people with special training, social, cultural or educational needs. Based on this law the Intercultural Schools are formed initially having an experimental character. Their goal is to provide pedagogical example to be used throughout the educational system. In practice, however, it works totally different. In some IPS no native students are attending, as it was supposed to be, in order to be considered as Intercultural Schools, while in others, the configuration is truly multicultural but the majority of the native students are coming from low social classes (Nikolaou, 2000). This is because many Greek parents do not feel like sending their children in schools were foreign students are attending and furthermore they believe that these schools provide low quality education (Unicef, 2001).

Data collected from the Directorate of Studies of Greek Ministry of Education claim that a large proportion of foreign students quit school, mostly during the transition from Primary to Secondary Education (Gotovos & Markou, 2003). Previous findings have also indicated an important decrease of the foreign students moving from fourth to fifth and from fifth to sixth class of Primary school (Greek Ministry of Education: Directorate of Studies, 1997). This leakage of students, when it is not due to family prohibition for social or financial purposes, it is almost exclusively caused by educational failure. This is an important issue which concerns not only the groups of students we have already mentioned, but concerns the total number of the students’ population as well.

In Greece educational failure is tied with the Syllabus and the success or not on scheduled exams that are held at regular intervals. The School Curriculum demands linguistic skills of higher level so that a student can face the cognitive and academic demands of the class (Karatzia-Stavlioti & Spinthouraki, 2006). According to Cummins (1984, 2003) the distinction in Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) helps us to explain the relative failure, within the education system, of many children who do not speak the native language.

The linguistic skills of children must be sufficiently developed so that the children can be able to face the demands of the timetable. However, in most cases the children’s native language is different from the language the National Curriculum requires and their cognitive, academic and linguistic skills are not sufficiently developed to allow them to correspond to the challenges encountered. As a result, many of the bilingual students present low performances or even educational failure (Baker, 2001).

Low performances must not be attributed exclusively to ethnic diversity. Many times foreign and native students fail due to the same reasons. According to Bernstein (1971) school uses the language and the culture of the upper social classes to evaluate the performance and thus condemns children from lower social classes to failure.

Bourdieu (1984) developed the theory of “cultural capital” to interpret class differentiated school performance. Cultural capital contains knowledge and skills that children acquire through the procedure that is the daily, imperceptible and subconscious learning by living into their domestic environment, were they come across different cultural occupations and activities. Consequently, the knowledge and the familiarization with the culture the school is teaching, are what kids coming from upper classes acquire
through their families. On the other hand, children from lower classes acquire knowledge and familiarity with the folk culture which, however, is not to be acknowledged by the school. Thus, they perform low or even fail.

Nowadays, in Greece the IPS attend students from lower social classes (Gotovos & Markou, 2003; Nikolaou, 2005). Greek parents are reluctant to let their children attend them as they are afraid that the students’ cultural differentiation and linguistic diversity may negatively affect the quality of education provided. As a result, the IPS become second choice schools as well as schools for students coming from lower classes.

**Research – Methodology**

This study examines students’ performance in an IPS and compares them with the respective performances of students in a MPS. The aim of this study is to examine the performance of IPS students and compare it with that of MPS students, in tasks involving cognitive and linguistic abilities, which are considered to be crucial for school learning and adaptation.

This study also examines the sociological thesis that the educational failure of foreign and minority students is similar as the causes with the educational failure of lower social classes students (Dragona, Skourtou & Fragoudaki, 2001). The study took place in May 2009 in Ioannina, Greece. The sample is composed of 25 students in fourth and fifth grade of an IPS and 25 students of a MPS. The MPS is also placed on the countryside and the majority of students are coming from rural population. The choice of the particular school is based mainly on the students’ social origins (natives and foreigners coming from labor classes).

At this point it is important to make clear that the size of the study’s sample is too small to lead us on reliable results. Therefore, our findings should be taken mostly as a starting point for a more extensive study.

We used “Athena Test – Diagnosis of Learning Disabilities” (Paraskevopoulos, Kalantzi-Azizi & Giannitsas, 1999) to investigate the students’ performances. Athena Test is an interdisciplinary test of internal assessment of individuals that presents the detailed current condition of a child in crucial sections of education. It has been created according to the prototype of diagnostic tests Aston Index and Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities – ITPA and includes 14 scales.

In the current study six scales of the test have been used in order to evaluate memory and linguistic abilities. The scales that have been used as tool to evaluate the students were: Memory of images, Completion of words, Completion of proposals, Distinction of graphs, Distinction of phonemes and Composition of phonemes. The total score that a child succeeds on the tests’ scales is transformed into two developmental indexes: the developmental age, that illustrate the level of a child’s development at the current time and the developmental quotient that indicates the rate of development and is expressed by an integer (single-digit or double-digit), with average price (10) (Paraskevopoulos, Kalantzi-Azizi & Giannitsas, 1999). For the comparison of the students’ performances this study uses the developmental quotient that the students have illustrated in each scale.

The type of the school class (Intercultural and Mainstream Primary School) has been considered as an independent variable. As dependent variables we considered the performances of students on the looking through scales of the Athena Test. The elaboration
of the data has been done by the statistical package SPSS 15.

Findings

Analyzing the results of the study we take the following data: At first, the scale “Memory of images” evaluates the capability of students to reproduce by memory, series of symbols – depictions, without a logical connection. The average of students’ developmental quotients is illustrated in figure 1.

*Figure 1. The graph of the average developmental quotient for the scale Memory of Images for the students of Intercultural and the Mainstream School*

By using the average scores of the above developmental quotients we can determine students’ level of development as well as the diagnostic category, in which students’ performance on the particular scale belongs. So, the students of the IPS with an average of $7.6 \pm 1.7$ have a lower – showing in deficit level of development and are placed among the diagnostic scale of students with marginally low performances. On the other hand, the students of the MPS with an average score of $8.6 \pm 2.5$ present a mean – normal level of development and a mean – lower performance.

The two following scales are referring to the ability of a child to utilize his linguistic experience as well as his surplus of language in completing blanks on linguistic material. This completion is an automatic procedure, which often takes place during the human communications. For instance in the occasions of faulty articulation, unclear telephone conversation, understand exotic pronunciation and so on.

Figure 2 below demonstrates the average of the developmental quotients for the scale “Completion of proposals” where the students must complete deficient linguistic types of proposals.
In this case, the difference of the average scores of the developmental quotient that the students have illustrated is very important. Specifically, the students of the IPS present lower – showing in deficit level of development and according to the average of the developmental quotients $7.6 \pm 2.0$ their performance can be characterized marginally low. On the other hand, the students of the MPS demonstrate an average developmental quotients $9.5 \pm 1.0$ which means that they have mean – normal level of development and their performances can be characterized as mean – mean performance.

Someone could easily claim that this difference was expected as long as this scale too is based on tests that demand a very good semantic and syntactic knowledge of language.

On the second scale “Completion of words” students are once again called to complete deficient linguistic types, but this time at word level. It is obvious for someone to understand from figure 3 that there is no statistically significant difference.
The average of students’ developmental quotients of the IPS reaches the level of 8.4 ± 2.8, while the students of the MPS illustrate an average 9.6 ± 2.4. The average of developmental quotients of students of the MPS on this scale is almost the same with the average that this group has presented on the sub-scale “Completion of sentences”. Students have the same mean –normal level of development, while their performance is again at mean level. However, students of IPS are falling short of students of MPS again. The average 8.4 ± 2.8 that they concentrate place them for another time among the diagnostic category that characterizes their performance marginal low and their level of development as lower – showing in deficit.

The next scale to be examined is the “Read – phonological awareness” scale. This scale concerns the level of awareness children have that speech – oral and written – can be broken down into individual acoustic and optical units: speech sounds – phonemes and graphs – letters. Three sub-scales have been comprehended: Distinction of graphs, Distinction of phonemes and Composition of phonemes.

On the “Distinction of graphs” scale children must observe carefully pairs of fake words and indicate the differences between the two words. They must either find the one or two letters that are different or the two letter that shift positions.

The findings of this scale show changes on the average scores (see figure 4). Students of IPS have an average of developmental quotient 10.4 ± 1.6 and students of MPS 10.7 ± 1.3. Taking in concern the standard deviations it is obvious that the small difference between the two groups is not statically significant.

Figure 4. The graph of the average developmental quotient for the scale Distinction of Graphs for the students of Intercultural and the Mainstream School
Using the average of the developmental quotients we can characterize both groups’ level of development as mean – normal and their performance as mean – higher performance. Students of IPS illustrate rather a mean than a lower performance on this scale.

The next sub-scale “Distinction of phonemes” present similar results. Now the children must not observe but hear different pairs of fake words and state whether the two words are the same or not. The child is facing on different direction so that is impossible to see examiners’ lips, excluding thus the possibility of reading lips.

The average scores of the developmental quotients are $9.6 \pm 1.9$ for the Mainstream and $9.2 \pm 2$ for the Intercultural Primary School and they have no statistically significant differences. Students of both groups belong on the mean performance category and their level of development is mean – normal.

As figure 5 illustrates both groups move one step downwards from mean – mean to mean – lower performance category.

*Figure 5. The graph of the average developmental quotient for the scale Distinction of Phonemes for the students of Intercultural and the Mainstream School*
Figure 6 shows the performances of students of both types of Primary Schools on the last scale “Composition of phonemes”.

**Figure 6. The graph of the average developmental quotient for the scale Composition of Phonemes for the students of Intercultural and the Mainstream School**

On this scale examiner successively pronounces phonemes of a word using natural pronunciation and keeping steady pace of two phonemes per second. Student must combine these phonemes and eventually find and state the seeking word. On the last evaluation scale students of MPS are still having a mean – normal level of development.
and their performance is mean – lower, according to their average of developmental quotients $9.1 \pm 1.8$. On the other hand students of IPS with average of developmental quotients $8.7 \pm 1.8$ have also mean – lower performance.

**Conclusions**

The statistical analyses revealed that the general performance of students of IPS is lower than the performance of students of MPS, in sections that are considered to be crucial for school learning and adaptation. Specifically, the performance of students of IPS varies between marginally low to mean – lower, in contrast with the performance of students of MPS who present mean performance in all the scales of evaluation.

More specific, on the scale “Memory of images”, that measures the ability of children to reproduce, by memory, series of images, the performance of students of Intercultural School is marginally low while students of Mainstream School have mean – lower. Even though the images are the same and make the semantic codification easier (that is they can name them easily) students of IPS could not properly use it on their advantage.

By examining the results of this scale we conclude that students of IPS present low levels of mnemonics development, which are crucial for the learning procedure and thus many questionings are emerged. However, in our days, Analytical Schedules in Greece focus mainly on boosting the critical abilities with the mnemonics development coming second (Voros, 2003; Grollios, 2003). That is a matter that the Greek educational system must take under consideration, regarding its effectiveness.

On the scales that evaluate students’ linguistic experience, IPS students have marginal low performances. In contrast, MPS students illustrate mean performance. Specifically, on both scales, “Completion of proposals” and “Completion of words”, where children must complete deficient linguistic types, proposals or words, the level of development of students of IPS can be characterized as lower – showing in deficit, while students of MPS have a mean – normal level of development. We can connect the low performances of students of Intercultural Primary School with the Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), since these scales are directly connected with various semantics and syntactic abilities, and mostly with the understanding of difficult words.

The phonological / phonemic awareness obtained by children during their development (Chard & Dikson, 1999). It is a complicated procedure and many students have difficulties while trying obtain it. However, on the scale Read – phonological awareness of the Athena Test, the performance of both student groups is of mean level.

On the first scale, “Distinction of graphs”, both groups have mean performance. This can be explained by taking into consideration that the distinction of graphs can be done by using “physiognomic” – external characteristics rather than semantic. This, in connection with the fact that the given words are fake words, that is words without meaning, and so the students point out the differences on letters and phonemes without reading but only by observing and listening the words, may explain the good performance the students have illustrated.

However, a reasonable question has emerged: since this scale is based rather on external characteristics than on semantic elements, the students’ performances should have been over the mean performance. Nonetheless, the small size of the sample suggests more caution about this questioning.
On the last two scales, “Distinction of phonemes” and “Composition of phonemes”, we observe that both groups move down one step from mean – mean to mean – lower performance. The fact that the examiners pronounce the words to the students, in combination to the usage of many phonemes combinations, especially of acoustic related ones, like dental (τ, δ, θ) and palatal (κ, γ, χ) make these scales more difficult than the previous one.

Through the comparative possibilities the Athena Test give us, we find out that there is no difference between the students of the sample, regardless the class they are into, as far as the channel of communication is concerned. They use “acoustic – vocal” channel as well as “visual – kinetic” channel. That means that they can take information both visual and acoustic with the same facility.

We also found out that students of MPS record mean performance on the evaluation scales of the “automatic – holistic” mental level, which is the ability to perform mental operations subconsciously. On the other hand, all students of IPS were not able to organize their experiences on automatic level and thus they illustrate low performance. Both findings can be used to choose the appropriate teaching methods to educate foreign and native students.

The general conclusion that we came up analyzing this study’s findings is that students of IPS illustrated lower performances than the students of MPS. However, students of Mypical School did not manage to succeed higher than mean level performances. What these two groups of students have in common is that they come from families of lower social levels, and as many sociological studies claimed so far, that is a characteristic that connects the folk language and culture with low educational performances.

All findings considered, we argue that the advisability of IPS must be reconsidered, since, according to the present study, they have turned out to be low level schools and have failed to provide educational opportunities to their students. Furthermore, decision makers need to understand that Greek school must be adapted to the continuously shifting demographic and social conditions. More specifically, the school staff must be taught how to teach a type of student that differs from the “general type” of student, who co comes from a middle class knowing one language and one culture, and for whom the educational system has been planed so far.

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From another(‘s) viewpoint – narrative approaches in special educational research

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Abstract
In the current debate about evidence based education comparisons between countries are in focus. Learning and teaching are influenced by a control oriented paradigm at a far distance from the persons concerned, e.g. pupils, students and teachers. In education other perspectives are called for in order to catch the complexity of educational processes. Nomothetic information about learners needs to be complemented by ideographic information.

The aim of the article is to argue for some alternative ways of knowledge contribution based on the voices of the individual in special educational settings in relation to the rights to education for all. Narrative approaches have a methodological potential of openness and participation where the researcher is engaged in a dialectic interaction between two subjects. Making room for the voice of the Other and finding a view different from one’s own is suggested as a powerful knowledge contribution in educational research which only can be provided by the persons concerned.

One conclusion is that the narrative approaches advocated for here have a potential that is seldom given justice in the present era of documentation and measuring.

Keywords: evidence based education, narrative approaches, nomothetic and ideographic information, special educational research, the voice of the other

Introduction
Learning and teaching seem to be increasingly influenced by phenomena at further distances from the individual. Instead of the control of practice from national steering- and goal documents comparisons of results between countries seem to have decisive significance for practice. The aim of the article is to take this influence as a point of departure and argue for some alternative ways of knowledge contribution within the field of special education. On the whole it is a question about how in an era dominated by documentation research can make room for methods based on the voices of individuals.

Background
Taking a point of departure in the themes discussed in the article we prefer to view special
education as a field within general education. Special education is rather viewed as a meeting point for dialogue and knowledge development about complicated or difficult learning situations, a hub in a system of relationships surrounding the learner. The theoretical and methodological perspectives that we want to propose define learning as a relational phenomenon dependent on context and dialogue (Svensson, 2004). Education and special education in particular, as a scientific discipline takes an interest in the right to education for all and processes where strivings for inclusion play a crucial part. To strengthen the rights of individuals with disabilities are pronounced goals in the international work that has been done during several decades. The right to read and write, to create and be creative, to understand one’s own life world, to get access to educational resources and to develop individual and collective skills are expressively formulated (UNESCO 1990, 1994). Referring to the declaration by UNESCO (1990), Jarvis (1997) emphasises that these rights are concerned with learning to be in an existential sense as well as learning to be together with others. Jarvis also points out that education has become an instrumental commodity something which does not always mean progress.

In the present debate about educational research and practice the concept of evidence is often in focus. Evaldsson and Nilholm (2009) are discussing a salient feature in this debate when they are problematizing the relevance of educational research for practice. They see in the field of education a return to positivistic psychological research imitating medical research with an interest in whether a method has larger effect than another. In education other questions than from a strict utility perspective have to be formulated about the nature of knowledge, the tasks of research and who should be the one to decide about school practise.

Concerning the nature of knowledge and contributors of relevant knowledge we want to refer to the approach of this article formulated as viewing education from another(‘s) viewpoint. Who then is the one to give us knowledge and whose perspective do we need as researchers? Biesta emphasises that “through narratives we can imagine the position of the other as a position where we could be” (Biesta, 2000:88, our translation). Referring to Hannah Arendt, Biesta writes (ibid: 88)

Visiting than, is not seeing through the eyes of another but seeing with your own eyes from a position that is not your own – or to be more precise, in a narrative that is not your own (our translation, italics in original).

To understand the complexity that characterises difficult learning situations it is necessary for the researcher to find ways to listen to the person concerned and ensure that ideographic information is provided as a complement to the law bound, nomothetic (Sjödahl, 2001). In nomothetic information on the one hand we include information gathered by methods following strictly standardised manuals and tests. The assumption here is that the one who is diagnosing using measure instruments in a supposed objective perspective and friendly neutral acting will get access to knowledge possible to generalise and of a universal character. Ideographic knowledge on the other hand is understood as knowledge or information that only the person concerned can give such as concrete descriptions of events and developmental processes. Through the narratives by the person concerned about situations and contexts a non-fragmentised and meaningful picture is mediated.

Narratives thus have a potential to broaden and deepen understandings in a number of themes within the educational field (e.g. Malm, 2003; Hagström, 2010; Svensson, 2011). The studies that the present article is built on are searching for knowledge about special
educational phenomena by listening to the seldom heard voice of the person concerned from a life world perspective (Bengtsson, 1999; Dahlberg, Drew & Nyström, 2001). Narratives might be understood as a knowledge contribution in a field of research where context specific circumstances make it difficult for the individual to make her/his voice heard. Such a knowledge contribution could e.g. consist of content in the narratives from pupils and students who are described as being in need of special support or children, young people or adults with disabilities. It could also focus special education teachers’ narratives about learning contexts in education characterised as excluding. It is about voices that in some respect are difficult to assert in contrast to dominating pictures of learning and teaching.

Focus in Narrative Research

In the article we regard narrative approach as a concept where analysis of narratives and narrative analysis may be seen as different directions. Further, we also touch upon how narratives could be used as elements in qualitative research. Recognising narrative approaches and its time related and relational aspects we find it reasonable to assume that narratives make a valuable contribution about life, learning and education in a changeable era when it comes to documentation and rights. The interest of narrative research to study the change of values over time could be linked e.g. to the individual’s experience of his or her own identity development and ideas about the relation to a changeable world. The interest is thus directed towards the narrative of the Other about herself or himself and the experiences of and relations to the surrounding world.

Holistic Points of Departure

We take our starting point from a holistic perspective (Lindholm, 1990; Svensson, 2004) on how knowledge can be achieved about the individual as a learning being. This epistemological base leads to a special focus on context, meaning and interpretation. A holistic approach takes interest in how different events are interconnected, e.g. that a study situation cannot be separated from life as a whole (Lang & Ohlsson, 2009). It also calls for methods that allow a dynamic interplay giving room for complexity and ambiguity in a multidimensional, non-linear and non-causal dimension. From a narrative approach Lang (2008) studied the voices of young people about responsibility and participation in the transition between upper secondary school and higher education. Ohlsson (2008) looked into adult educational encounters in difficult learning situations. Lansheim (2010) in turn has captured the understandings of special education teachers about their assignment from a perspective of working life history. The different studies share a common research interest to take part in people’s narratives and to contribute in educational research by letting different voices be heard.

Time related Points of Departure

Time dimensions have a special position in narratively directed research. The interest for time lines with a beginning, a process and an end could e.g. concern special educational phenomena in relation to studies and working life (Lansheim, 2010) or phenomena presenting itself in the transitions between different educational systems (Lang, 2008). Further, expressions of time related and delimited changes of interaction in educational encounters, so called shifts are of interest (Ohlsson, 2008). Narratives add knowledge
about people’s experiences but also when contextualised, knowledge and understanding about the culture and the contemporary society where they are told.

**Relational Points of Departure**

Searching for knowledge and understanding is a question of openness and participation, a dialectic way to knowledge that arises in encounters where the you involve your own self-understanding in an ever changing process between two subjects, an I and a Thou (Buber, 1994). The principle about openness means that what was before an object observed by us now instead becomes a subject appearing to us. Not individual, situation nor group are reduced to variables but are viewed as a whole. Making room for the voice of the Other about her or his life- and learning history can only take place in an encounter between an I and a Thou. Every encounter is unique and from this follows that the so called ”results” are unique.

In the narrative it is possible for experiences to be reconstructed and new possible ways of telling about reality may be produced by the linguistic focus in the narrator’s experiences of context and meaning (Hedegaard Hansen, 2011). In this respect the narrative expresses a creation of meaning that is not static but rather productively reshaping over time.

The primary aim of a narrative approach is thus to investigate how individuals or groups of people such as professionals or pupils and students understand and create meaning in their lives (Goodson & Sikes, 2001). The narrative approach is founded in openness for what people, individually or sometimes in groups have to tell from their interest for and trust in their stories. It approaches individuals and their experiences from what they themselves can and want to share.

**The relation between researcher and approach**

Parts of the narrative approach are positioned in a social constructive frame of reference, where acting as well as constructive and creative processes are emphasised. Narratives here become a way to acquire knowledge about individual actions and experiences. The narrative is in itself viewed as an act with a purpose presented in what is told. (cf. Pérez Prieto, 2007).

Dahlberg, Drew and Nyström (2001) point out that narrative quality enhances an interview by adding to the substance in it. The researcher can facilitate in situations when the interviewee has difficulties finding words or formulating a thorough and multifaceted narrative.

Discussing the overall value of an Ego caring about the Other Jarvis (1997) is stressing that such a thing can only happen in and through human relationships. We find that although the narrator and the person receiving the narrative both are viewed as constructors, the emphasis is put on how things are experienced by the Other. In the context of this article it means how life, learning and education is conceptualised from another view point than the researcher’s. This puts demands on the researcher to take the message of the Other seriously.

Referring to Dewey, Wahlström (2010) says that the ability of a person to experience has to be viewed as a whole in relation to the development of the individual, where (inter)subjectivity is formed in communication with others in processes of reflective learning. Wahlström is discussing Bildung in relation to the concept of acknowledgement
saying that it has a democratic potential as a challenge to encounter and acknowledge that which is not me, an encounter with the Other and with that which is unknown. Bildung viewed as a rich and complex concept has as its aim to create awareness and an experience that the only way we can live our lives is together with others (Biesta, 2002).

The Attitude of the Researcher

The researcher has to relate to her or his own role during the whole process of research. Representatives for the narrative approach agree in large about the bearing qualities of the dialogue although different methodological concepts are used like interview, interview conversation, etc. What Svensson (2011) names “interview conversations” (our translation from Swedish) are conversations that are more or less open in character and taking place on the narrator’s conditions. The researcher is not the owner of what is told but the narrator is (Hydén, 1997). A narrative is however not a one-way story but is dialogic, taking place in an interplay between the narrator and the listener, in this case the researcher (Hänninen, 2004).

A number of aspects of the conversation are emphasised in relation to how involved and familiar the researcher is with the context of the narratives and how the researcher is positioning herself or himself by the questions asked in the conversation (Goodson & Sikes, 2001). It is, according to Ahlberg (2003), an advantage for the researcher to have knowledge about the field. However, the risk for colonisation of the narrative of the Other and for bias is greater than if the field is not very well known initially. One of the tasks of the researcher is to facilitate a narration with flow by being a supportive and careful listener (Goodson & Sikes, 2001). Further, it is according to Heyman (1998) important that the researcher is true to the narratives that are analysed and to the meaning that they represent. The analytic work starts already in the conversation itself, proceeding during the transcription phase when the voices of the narrators are transformed into text.

Polkinghorne (1995) discerns two analytic paths within narrative approach, analysis of narratives on the one hand and narrative analysis on the other. Analysis of narratives can be compared to a more traditional understanding of analytic work presented as different categories. In the narrative analysis, the narrative construction is given a manifest intrigue where the researcher is arranging the different stories of what is told, now as contextualised and interpreted narratives of what has happened. Through the narrative configuration the researcher in the analysis allows the different parts to relate to the whole and vice versa. Finally, a coherent contextualised and interpreted story is crystallized which the researcher can present as a narrative with a distinct intrigue (ibid.). For instance different close up pictures or portraits may be created (Malm, 2003; Lansheim, 2010; Svensson, 2011). Another example is to restructure the data material into fictive portraits due to strict ethical aspects (Lang, 2008). Analysis within a narrative approach contributes to research by relating main traits in a single narrative to the content in other narratives.

Analysis and presentation of research data may, according to Riessman (1997), be accomplished by focussing on the thematic content, on patterns of communication and how something is told and why. The narratives often contain different thematic threads and among them some appear clearer than others. That, which is told more seldom appears as a chronological story but rather as fragments of memory when the narrator is looking back. To minimise the emphasis on how something is said and instead focus on what is said is another point of departure (Svensson, 2011).
The road to the end result of the research process, i.e. from the initial conversation, the feed-back in the transcription phase, the construction of themes and narrative configurations as well as in the continuous analysis might be accompanied by recurrent experiences of sharing the view point of another; “aha! – this is also a way to view things”. Narrative approaches thus have a potential of making it possible to relate the experience of the individual of herself or himself to the experiences of others, which in itself constitutes a knowledge contribution in research about education.

To summarise, we see the role of the researcher in narrative approaches as a dialectic way of knowing that happens between two subjects. Ethical considerations are present during the whole research process and analytic work should be given account for with enough clarity for the reader to judge its trustworthiness and reliability (Connely & Clandinin, 1990; Randall & Phoenix, 2009).

Final Reflections

The narrative approaches advocated for in the article have a potential that is not always given justice in the era of documentation that is a salient feature in international and national debates about evidence and education focussing measuring and products. In order to gain knowledge about educational processes in special educational contexts we mean that it is of central importance to take the point of departure in the ideographic information that only the persons concerned can give us, e.g. students and pupils who have been or are the objects of special educational measures or pedagogues working in the field.

Education in a perspective of rights is a question about inclusion. Inclusion is the very heart or essence of democracy in the sense that the one concerned has had a possibility to influence the processes (Biesta, 2011). A distanced control oriented paradigm and a close participation oriented paradigm respectively will lead understanding of processes of learning and education in different directions. Within a control oriented paradigm the understanding might lead to a practice and a rhetoric presenting a picture of the accomplishments of the Other based on nomothetic information. In a participation oriented paradigm on the other hand, the rights, participation and activity of the individual are put in the foreground taking the point of departure in ideographic information. We have in this article claimed that a narrative research approach opens possible roads to reach another(‘s) view point than one’s own.

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An attempt to modernise vocabulary teaching through the use of a user-oriented web-based learning management system

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Abstract
According to research in applied linguistics students approach and negotiate language learning through a series of specific activities, both technical and procedural, which are known as learning strategies. It is obvious that these strategies are strongly related to their learning style.
At the same time the prevailing scholarly view places great emphasis on vocabulary, which is now considered to be one of the fundamental areas of language. The recognition of the importance of vocabulary means that improving its teaching methods is essential.
Bearing in mind the fact that the number of words that students must learn is in reverse proportion to the available teaching time, it is necessary to seek more effective methods for teaching vocabulary. The use of Information and Communications Technologies (ICT) now appears to be a promising solution.
This study describes the structure of one such web-based system and proposes ways of using it that respond to individual learner characteristics. Its design enables it to predict the personal preferences, abilities and needs of each learner and to adapt the learning material on offer appropriately. It can evaluate learners’ performance and, finally, guide them with the goal of their continuous improvement; such aims are very difficult to achieve through the grammar-translation method of language teaching.

Keywords: vocabulary teaching, learning style, learning strategies, ICT

1. Introduction
Vocabulary has traditionally been a marginalised branch of language teaching, as in the past its role was seen as being complementary and auxiliary to the teaching of grammar. By contrast, for many centuries grammar was considered to be the main core of language teaching and its learning was the primary and most important aim (Lewis 1993 & 1997, O’Malley & Chamot 1990, Paradia & Mitsis 2011, Schmitt 2000). Vocabulary, as a part of the language system, does not display the strict systematic properties that govern grammar, as a large portion of the relationships created within it are the result of conventions and not general rules. This fact was, perhaps, the basic reason for its marginalisation in traditional language teaching approaches (Lewis, 1997). One only needs to recall the arbitrary relationship between form and meaning, of which Saussure (1916) first spoke, and note that every word is, within the context of the language code, a particular situation in which the speaker is obliged to know the individual characteristics of each word and the special network of relations that it creates with the other words.
The very rapid development of linguistics, however, has posed a series of questions that have gradually led to uncovering the complex structure and vast significance of vocabulary. From this point on, vocabulary gradually started to emerge as a core area of language teaching.

More specifically, the contemporary scientific perspective lays increased emphasis on vocabulary, which is considered, along with grammar, as the foundation of language. It accepts, in other words, that vocabulary is one of the core areas of language and that, along with grammar, it organises lexical structures (Lewis, 1993; Mitsis, 2004).

Words are indeed the means by which we express whatever comes to our attention. It is through words that we characterise, categorise and comprehend objects, actions, activities, ideas and feelings and it is obvious that without them we would not be able to
communicate. In other words, vocabulary is a basic precondition for an effective use of the language code (Mitsis, 1998; 2004).

This is why one of the main goals of modern language curricula and textbooks, in both first and second language teaching, is to produce the necessary preconditions so that students can acquire as broad, functional and useful a vocabulary as possible as the basis for achieving effective communication. It is not necessary to underline here how crucial vocabulary is in the teaching of a second or foreign language since students in this case usually have very limited or insufficient knowledge of it.

2. The present-day approach to vocabulary and the need renewed strategies for vocabulary teaching

Vocabulary teaching, as it takes place today within the context of learning a first or a second/foreign language, does not always fulfill the goals aspired to, and this is attributable to two main causes. Firstly, because it is not compatible with the complex organisation and nature of the personal or internal vocabulary of each speaker, defined by contemporary linguistics as the mental lexicon (Aitchison 1994, Bakakou-Orphanou, 2005). Secondly, and following on from this, given today’s prevailing conditions in the Greek educational system the adoption of a more effective teaching approach is not made easier (Paradia & Mitsis, 2011).

In relation to the first cause, contemporary research has revealed that the mental lexicon is not a list of words, as was believed in the past, but rather a complex web or network within which words are grouped in many ways and among them develop an infinite number of links of various types and degrees (Aitchison, 1994; Mitsis, 2009; Bakakou-Orphanou, 2005; Paradia & Mitsis, 2011).

Given these conditions, lexical knowledge is defined by current research as a complex phenomenon. Such knowledge involves command of a set of characteristics and peculiarities for each word, such as knowledge of its pronunciation and written form, the association between its meaning and its form, an understanding of its meaning on the basis of its linguistic and extralinguistic context, knowledge of synonyms, antonyms and hypernyms, etc. (Nation, 2001). Moreover, knowledge of a particular word is not acquired automatically but passes through various stages and levels, some of which, in order to be acquired, presuppose sufficient knowledge of the corresponding levels and subsystems of the language. This means that:

the various speakers of a language may know the same word without, however, all having assimilated it in the same way and to the same degree

sufficient knowledge of a particular word is not achieved automatically but gradually and each time in combination with the assimilation of other prerequisite or parallel knowledge (Mitsis, 2009).

As such, sufficient knowledge of a word is achieved after multiple and deliberate encounters with it. This means that vocabulary learning must be approached methodically and in accordance with the principles and findings of applied linguistics (Nation, 2001) and not through superficial processes.

Leaving aside the limitations of traditional approaches and methodologies,

the second important reason for the ineffectiveness of vocabulary teaching is the fact that the required number of words that learners must assimilate in order to communicate
effectively is in reverse proportion to the time that the teacher has available for this. As such, teaching must turn to new and more effective ways through which students can learn words, not only within but also outside of the classroom (Paradia & Mitsis, 2011).

The most obvious weakness of the traditional method (of the grammar-translation method), however, is that it cannot be personalised, that is adapted to the individual characteristics of each learner. This weakness significantly limits the quantity of the teaching material and may also be unfair to those learners whose individual characteristics do no respond to the demands of the specific teaching method chosen by the instructor.

The existence of a problem becomes apparent here, a problem that it seems cannot be sufficiently overcome. It is to this purpose that the potentials of ICT can be used within the context of language teaching (Koutsogiannis, 2007; Paradia et al., 2004 and 2005), in particular the use of a vocabulary teaching system. The particular system examined here has been designed and developed so as to be able to assess the particular qualities, abilities and needs of individual learners and, therefore, to adapt the language material offered accordingly, something that is very difficult to achieve with current teaching methods (Kritikou et al., 2008 and 2010).

The use, then, of a modern method of e-teaching forms the core of this study. Both the theoretical framework of this system, as well as its structure and operation will be described below in detail.

3. Theoretical basis

According to Mitsis (1998), Nation (2001), Schmitt & McCarthy (1997) each student approaches the linguistic material through particular ways and techniques, something that necessitates, as noted above, the search for, and use of, personalised teaching methods. These specific approaches to the knowledge offered are clearly related to the basic features of each learner’s personality, amongst which their learning style has a dominant role. The fixed manner in which each student responds to the learning environment and interacts with the material taught, such as the use of senses (e.g. visual and auditory), focusing of attention on the whole or parts of a unit, the use of intuition or a specific reasoning process, etc. define the learning style (Cohen, 2003; Felder & Henriques, 1995; Mitsis, 1998; Oxford, 2003).

The learning style as a characteristic of the individual’s personality and an approach to the teaching material does not appear autonomously during the language learning process, but is negotiated, or, rather, its negotiation is attempted by learners through a series of individual techniques and processes known as learning strategies.

Learning strategies are generally defined as a series of deliberate techniques, actions and special ways of approaching the teaching material (e.g. a combination of the word being taught with a respective picture, imitation, presentation of words with a definition, thematic grouping of words, of synonyms, antonyms and hypernyms, etc.) which aim at a faster and more effective achievement of the teaching goals (Chamot, 2005; Cohen, 2003; Mitsis, 1998; Nation, 2001; Schmitt & McCarthy, 1997). For learning strategies to be effective, however, they must be compatible with the individual characteristics and learning style of each student (Paradia, 2010).

These learning strategies are not realised autonomously in the classroom but rather appear in the form of specific teaching strategies that relate to the content and goals of a particular teaching unit in a given class.
As such, following the classification of Mariani (1996), we would say that the factors involved in the learning process and, specifically, vocabulary teaching of a second or foreign language, are the following (Figure 1):

**Figure 1. The factors involved in the learning process**

It is clear that these factors are not only closely related to each other but they overlap to such a degree that the teaching process, in order to be effective, must correlate them and approach them as a whole (Cohen, 2003; Mariani, 1996). This means that a very simple vocabulary teaching activity must be the product of the materialisation or application of a corresponding strategy, which in turn is compatible with the student’s learning style. One can understand however that a similar form of personalised teaching, which in the classroom would simultaneously cover every form of teaching style, is impossible as the available teaching time is insufficient for learning the required vocabulary. Given that the time is insufficient, then, what is required is for students to exercise systematically using strategies that will enable them on their own to complete and improve the vocabulary that they have already acquired (Nation, 2001; Schmitt & McCarthy, 1997). The fact, however, that each student responds to the vocabulary material in a personalised way means that they should not use just any strategy but only those that respond to and complement their own learning style.

The difficulties, however, of such an effort, which requires almost the complete personalisation of teaching, are clear despite the fact that such a process is today considered essential, both for the mother tongue as well as for a second or foreign language. As already mentioned, this precondition cannot be fully satisfied by vocabulary teaching in the way in which it is carried out in the Greek educational system. Other forms of intervention are therefore required and, as mentioned above, this is where the use of new technologies arises as a potential and pedagogically effective solution (Kritikou et al., 2006). With the development of new multimedia technologies researchers have turned their attention to the question of how these ICTs can be used appropriately so as to support the teaching process in optimal ways and achieve significant in-depth learning (Samara, 2007;
Samaras et al., 2006).

Systematic research efforts by specialists over the past two decades have already led to the creation of suitable electronic environments with the goal of assisting learning through personalised forms of teaching (Alomyan, 2004; Brusilovsky, 2001; Dagger, 2003; Dolog et al., 2004; Juvina & van Oostendorp, 2004; Ong & Hawryszkiewycz, 2003).

Following these developments, a web-based system for vocabulary teaching was designed for language learning, which, when supplied with the appropriate data, is able to adapt the vocabulary being taught to the learning style of each student/user, evaluate his or her performance and, interactively, offer new vocabulary, suggest activities and, in general, guide the student with the goal of his or her continuous improvement, always within the context of their personal characteristics and abilities (Kritikou et al., 2008 and 2010).

In the following section a detailed presentation of the structure and functions of this mechanism is given.

4. Features and operation of the web-based learning management system

Once the vocabulary e-teaching system described above is supplied with the required structure as well as the information from an initial questionnaire and the subsequent evaluation of the user’s behaviour within the system, it places the user within a specific group of individuals/users with a common learning style. The system then guides the members of the group in the learning of the selected vocabulary through corresponding texts, activities and strategies that are fully adapted to their learning style.

More analytically, once the user has entered the system he or she must answer a series of questions which the system will use to create their initial profile and then place them in a group of individuals with a common learning style and knowledge level. The questionnaires, the basic goal of which is to diagnose the learning style and knowledge level, are based on respective classifications that correlate with teaching practice and classroom reality (Felder & Henriques, 1995; Mariani, 1996; Mitsis, 1998; Oxford, 2003).

Once the user has been placed in a specific group (e.g., visual, auditory, kinaesthetic, global, analytic etc learners), he or she comes into contact with the teaching material and follows the teaching course proposed by the system. From this point on, the teaching material begins to be adapted to the user’s individual characteristics and learning pace. The teaching material is thus also graded according to levels of difficulty and the system can suggest, according to level, learning strategies that match each group’s learning style. By monitoring the learning pace, the quantity of material and the specific preferences of each learning style, the system can adapt the demands and the learning process as a whole to the abilities and individual characteristics of each user, providing a form of personalised teaching (Kritikou, 2008 and 2010).

Briefly, the structure of the system comprises four basic components, the operation and interaction of which is what makes the whole learning process effective (Alomyan, 2004; Garzotto & Cristea, 2004; Kritikou, 2008 and 2010; Zakaria, 2003). These components are the following, as presented in Figure 2:

User Profile Model: The User Profile Model stores all data relating to the user. It stores the history of personal information, individual preferences and details relating to the user’s performance. This information allows the system to adapt the teaching material to the data and learning style of each user (or group), thus creating forms of personalised teaching.
adapted to the characteristics of a specific group. As mentioned, a series of simple questions answered by users at the beginning of the first lesson (such as the ones included in the application example of the present study) provides an initial assessment of their learning style and, in particular, how they prefer the material to be structured and offered to them. This also allows evaluation of the conditions that make them feel comfortable and secure during the learning process.

With this data, then, the system creates an initial profile for each user and places them within a particular group. By monitoring their behaviour it can subsequently place users in a different group if the relevant data change. The User Profile Model is of particular importance for the system as it means it is easily adaptable and student-centred, according to users’ individual characteristics, thus providing them with a basic incentive for participating and working creatively.

**Content Model**: The Content Model Component stores data relating to the teaching material to be offered to the users. This is where teaching material and teaching units are stored and, whenever requested, this component provides the appropriate information to the User Interface Component. This component uses the instructions sent to it by the User Profile Model for the preferences of the users in each group.

**User Interface**: The User Interface Component uses the material it receives from the User Profile Model, where user preferences are stored, and from the Content Model Component, where the teaching material units are stored, and adapts this material according to the profile of each user. In short, this component gives the teaching material the final form with which it is to be presented to the user.

The system architecture is rounded off with the **User Monitoring Component**. Through a corresponding mechanism, this component monitors user behaviour as users surf the e-learning system and identifies their interests as well as weaknesses and gaps in their knowledge. The data gathered by the User Monitoring Component are transferred to the User Profile Model, in order to improve the system’s picture of a user’s profile and to adapt the teaching process accordingly.

**Figure 2. The Vocabulary Learning System and its components**
To sum up the above, the system architecture comprises four basis areas which, through a smooth collaboration, make the system easy to use, interesting and attractive for the user and, above all, adaptable to the individual characteristics, preferences and learning style of each user group. This is achieved through the use of cognition mechanisms incorporating the Bayesian Networks concepts, in order to take into consideration users’ past preferences and their current feedback. Two indicative scenarios of the system were examined, in order to showcase its effectiveness (Kritikou et al., 2010).

5. Application example

We have already mentioned that the main feature of the vocabulary e-teaching system is the development of interactive communication with the users, a necessary precondition for providing them with information and supplying the system with all the data that would enable it to adapt the teaching material offered to user needs and preferences.

There follows an example application, wherein the user who desires to be integrated into the system is user X. We will follow user X’s course progress in the learning of Greek as a second language in detail. During his first encounter with the system, user X completes two types of questionnaires: a) a questionnaire/test on his language level, and b) a questionnaire to diagnose his learning style.

To assess the level of language learning we have used the well-known classification tests that have been in use for several years now, based on the principles of applied linguistics (Edge, 1993; Harrison, 1983; Heaton, 1990).

The e-teaching system then introduces a questionnaire to diagnose the user’s learning style. On the basis of this the user will then be placed in a corresponding group of students who obviously all have the same knowledge level of the language. These questionnaires usually follow one of the various categorisations of learning style (Banner & Rayner, 2000; Felder & Henriques, 1995; Gill, 2005; Mariani, 2009; Soloman & Felder, 2009) and usually have the following format:

You learn better:
When you see something
When you hear something
When you get to grips with something

You remember some words better:
When you read them many times
When you write them many times
When you use them many times

When you want to relax you:
Read something
Listen to music or something else
Do something practical (e.g. exercise, gardening)

You usually remember:
Faces but not names
Names but not faces
Facts but not names and faces

You understand a text better:
When it is accompanied by pictures, tables, diagrams, etc.
When someone else reads it out
When you combine it with some form of activity

To remember a word you:
Colour or underline it
Read it out loud many times
Associate it with objects, phenomena, etc.
Associate it with words of the same semantic field, synonyms or antonyms

Once the questionnaire has been completed the system makes an initial assessment and determines that: a) user X has very little knowledge of Greek, and b) he approaches this knowledge primarily visually. As such, it places him at beginners’ level and in a group of visual types.

From this point on, user X begins to communicate with the system, receives related study material and participates in the activities with which it supplies him.

According to current scholarly thinking, visual types have the following general characteristics:

- They learn visually and, as such, they think with images and acquire and store knowledge using images.
- They assimilate the teaching material better when it is accompanied by images, maps, drawings, tables, diagrams, DVDs and films.
- They use colour or underline words to highlight the basic vocabulary in a text.
- They study in quiet places, avoiding sounds and noise.
- They prefer illustrated books and general texts that are combined with visual indicators.
- They have difficulty assimilating information that is given to them only orally. In order to understand it, they take notes or draw up tables, diagrams, lists, etc. (Banner & Rayner, 2000; Felder & Henrique, 1995; Gill, 2005; Oxford, 2003).

Taking the general characteristics of visual types into account, the system provides the group with the set Greek language vocabulary in forms and ways that utilise strategies conforming to this particular learning style. More specifically this vocabulary, as generally happens with the language phenomenon, extends in two directions, the paradigmatic and the syntagmatic axes. Consequently, vocabulary must be taught through activities that creatively produce discourse/text. These provide students with exercises in the various uses and meanings that words have in syntagmatic axis, with the parallel aim of enriching and further systematizing paradigmatic relations (Mitsis, 2004; Paradia & Mitsis, 2011). As such, the teaching material and the strategies proposed by the system aim to reinforce the paradigmatic as well as the syntagmatic dimension of vocabulary, that is, the use of words.

On the paradigmatic dimension of vocabulary we could say that words are not stored nor are they classified in the mental lexicon as isolated elements, but they are correlated and grouped in various ways so that one word is placed in many groups, according to how broad the individual’s vocabulary is. This correlation between words and the creation of similar sets that are known as lexical fields or networks strengthens the processes of association and contributes to their speedier and more effective recollection (Mitsis, 2004).

For the learning of new words and, consequently, their grouping and correlation on a paradigmatic level, the system uses a series of strategies that are compatible with the
learning style of visual types, such as:

- Presentation in written form of words/semantic fields (synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms, etc.).
- Visualisation and schematic presentation of the various relationships that are created within the lexical fields.
- Underlining, colouring and, in general, highlighting in any way of the basic words per lexical field.
- Linking of words wherever this is possible with corresponding images, sketches or objects.
- Presentation in a table of the semantic characteristics of a word or of more than one word in a comparative manner.
- Creation of etymological families of words and their schematic presentation.
- Use of the image of an object with the simultaneous presentation of its parts (e.g. parts of the body or of the tree, areas of the house, etc.).
- Schematic juxtaposition of a series of words, which give a scale of degrees of two opposing meanings (e.g. frozen, cold, refreshing; lukewarm, hot, burning).
- Creation of thematic lexical fields and their schematic presentation (e.g. vocabulary relating to the theatre, school, sports, etc.).

In addition to their participation in various groups with a paradigmatic dimension, words can also create connotations, that is, they can appear along with certain other words in the syntagmatic dimension of language and thus acquire, within this context, a specific meaning (Mitsis, 2004).

The following are just some of the strategies deployed by the system in the learning of syntagmatic lexical relations:

- Examples or texts to be studied are always given in written form accompanied, as far as possible, by related visual material, such as pictures, maps, tables, diagrams, etc.
- During encounters with oral discourse, visual indications are given and the use of written notes is requested.
- Colouring, underlining and highlighting of the basic words or key words in a text.
- Writing new words on screen, in tables, use of flashcards, etc.
- Schematic rendering of the different meanings of words with multiple meanings, giving examples.
- Linking typical phrases or words (e.g. hello, congratulations, sorry, etc.) with corresponding instances of communication and their simultaneous representation with visual indicators.
- Linking idioms with corresponding meanings through the use of appropriate texts that are accompanied, as far as possible, with related visual material.
- Learning common expressions (e.g. close relative, broad smile) and phrasal compounds (e.g. civil engineer, playground) through texts in which they appear.
naturally.

- Presentation of a hypothesis for the possible meaning of a word on the basis of its context as well as other accompanying visual elements.
- Completing language exercises that are always given in written form.
- Provision of visualised information for the study and understanding of a specific subject (e.g. the ecosystem) for the faster and easier learning of the related vocabulary (Gairns & Redman, 1995; Mitsis, 2004; Wright & Haleem, 1992).

The system, as it monitors the development and performance of the students, ascertains after a sufficient period of time that user X has worked systematically, that he has fully covered the demands of his teaching level and, can therefore move directly to the next one.

From this point on, user X will start to receive the material for the next level, again using strategies compatible with his learning style.

From the above, it can be seen that the vocabulary e-teaching system has the following features: a) it is personalised, b) it is adaptable to the individual needs of the user, c) it is interactive, and d) it varies in the upgrading and presentation of the teaching material. It would be very difficult to achieve these features through the usual teaching process without the use and contribution of new technologies (Kritikou et al., 2008 and 2010).

6. Observations and proposals

This study has proposed the use of a vocabulary e-teaching system which, as it has been designed, can be adapted to the individual needs of each user and, above all, to their learning style, providing a strong incentive for the learning of a second language. This development, according to the description given above, contributes decisively to saving on time and effort. Moreover, the entire process appears to respond to the needs of vocabulary teaching as these are established today, as it speeds up the learning process and makes it more dynamic and therefore more effective.

Nonetheless, it should be noted that the use of a teaching environment that utilises modern pedagogical and educational thinking and the potential of educational technology in a constructive way must fulfil certain basic preconditions. These include the further familiarising of students with new technologies (web-based environments, collaborative tools, services, etc.) and, especially, acquiring a more positive perspective on the contribution of these means to the acquisition of language skills (Godwin-Jones, 2008).

Summing up, it can be said that vocabulary learning through an e-teaching system is an innovative teaching proposal that could lead to a more general attempt to revise traditional teaching practices and to shift from word-centred teaching methods to the discovery and assimilation of knowledge with the help of new technologies (Kyriazis & Bakoyiannis, 2003).

The above proposal has as its starting point the fact that recent developments in linguistics have enabled us to have a fuller and more objective knowledge of the formation, operation, and significance of vocabulary. At the same time, however, they have raised a series of questions and issues, primarily in terms of teaching, such as the lack of teaching time and the inability to adapt teaching to students’ individual needs (Mitsis, 2004; Nation, 2001). This proposal aims to provide relevant answers.

It appears that these and many other such issues can be effectively overcome by the
targeted use of ICTs in teaching, not only in terms of quantity but also in terms of quality. This is the direction our own proposal has incorporated based on the concept that using an appropriately designed e-learning system can successfully serve the needs of vocabulary teaching, in particular for a second or foreign language.

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**Brief biography**

Maria Paradia

Maria Paradia is a philologist in the secondary education and has served as Deputy in Office of the Pedagogical Institute on the subject of ‘Teaching Greek language with the use of ICTs’. Her academic interests focus on applied linguistics, teaching methodology and educational technology, areas which she covers in her doctoral dissertation, her research activities and her published articles in academic journals and conference proceedings.
Humor im unterricht: ansichten der lehrer

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Abstract

The studies on humor in the classroom have increased by far in recent years. This shows the importance of humor in teaching but also contributes in the clarification of teachers’ perceptions and practices about humor and the terms and conditions for humor’s presence in the classroom. In this frame we investigated the perceptions of 771 teachers of elementary school in Greece concerning humor in their teaching. More concretely we examined the perceptions of teachers concerning the advantages of humor but also the likely dangers that may come from it, the frequency and the forms of humor that they use in their teaching and finally their more general appreciation for the importance of humor in their school life and in their life in general. The analyses show that teachers are very positive towards humor, they rate it very highly relative to other elements of teaching, recognize the same positive effects that research has highlighted, but they also recognize some negative aspects (aggressive/hostile humor: irony, sarcasm).

Keywords: humor, teaching, teacher’s perceptions

1. Einführung


Die Schlüsselfragen dieser Studie sind die Folgenden: Ob Grundschullehrer die Vorteile sowie Risiken der Anwendung von Humor im Klassenzimmer anerkennen, für wie wichtig sie es halten, und in welchem Ausmaß Sie Humor in den Unterricht einbeziehen. Die Ansichten der Lehrer in Bezug auf die Wichtigkeit und Anwendung von Humor zu untersuchen, kann dazu beitragen, falsche Auffassungen zu klären und traditionelle Denkweisen zu überwinden die der Ansicht sind, Humor sei im Unterricht unangebracht oder beträfe nur diejenige die es “in sich haben”.

2. Forschungsergebnisse

2.1 Die Wichtigkeit von Humor für Lehrer

Untersuchungsergebnisse hinsichtlich der Gründe weshalb Lehrer im Unterricht Humor

2.2 Arten von Humor


2.3 Auswirkungen von Humor im Unterricht

2.4. Häufigkeit von Humor


3. Untersuchung

Das Ziel dieser Studie ist es, die Wahrnehmung der Lehrer bezüglich der Relevanz und der Integration von Humor in der Lehre zu erforschen. In diesem Kontext untersuchen wir, wie wichtig Humor für Lehrer ist, wie oft sie ihn in den Unterricht integrieren, was sie als ihre Vorteile ansehen, welche Risiken beteiligt sind und welche Arten von humorvollem Verhalten ihrer Ansicht nach sich am besten im Klassenzimmer eigneten. Diese Studie ist Teil einer umfassenderen Forschungsarbeit über Humor und konzentriert sich auf quantitative Daten über das betreffende Thema.

3.1. Methode

Teilnehmer

Die Umfrage involvierte 766 freiwillige Lehrer an öffentlichen Grundschulen in den Regionen Thessalien und Kreta von Griechenland. 462 Teilnehmer waren Frauen (60%) und 296 Männer (39%). Die meisten Lehrer (55%) waren 5-20 Jahre im Dienst, 29% zwischen 2-5 Jahre, 14% über 20 Jahre und 2% hatte weniger als ein Jahr Berufserfahrung. Was das Alter betrifft, waren die meisten Lehrer (66%) 30-40 Jahre alt, 23% waren zwischen 40 und 50 Jahre alt, 6% waren unter 30 und 2% waren über 50 Jahre.

3.2 Ergebnisse

Bedeutung von Humor für Lehrer

Den Teilnehmern wurden 12 Attribute des Lehrers gegeben, um sie in eine hierarchische Ordnung zu bringen. Das wichtigste Attribut wurde von den Befragten bis 1 bewertet und die am wenigsten wichtig erscheinenden 12. Somit sind die Attribute mit den niedrigsten Mitteln die begehrtsten für die Befragten und besetzen die höchste Position in der Befehlskette (siehe Tabelle 2).

### Tabelle 1. Demographie der Teilnehmer (N = 766)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Geschlecht</th>
<th>Mann</th>
<th>Frau</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 30</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>462</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 – 40</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>473</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 – 50</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; 50</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Alter</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 30</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 – 40</td>
<td>462</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 – 50</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; 50</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Diennstjahre</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 – 5</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 – 20</td>
<td>418</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; 20</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


### Tabelle 2. Attribute der Lehrer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Teachers’ Attributes</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>Mit den Schülern gerecht umzugehen</td>
<td>2,9</td>
<td>2,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>Den Lernstoff zu beherrschen</td>
<td>4,0</td>
<td>2,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>Eine freundliche Haltung gegenüber Studenten</td>
<td>4,2</td>
<td>2,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>Geduld</td>
<td>4,6</td>
<td>2,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>Ehrlichkeit</td>
<td>4,9</td>
<td>2,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>Klare Regeln fuer den Unterricht</td>
<td>5,7</td>
<td>2,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>Vorbild für die Studenten zu präsentieren</td>
<td>6,4</td>
<td>3,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>Sinn für Humor</td>
<td>6,6</td>
<td>2,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>Witze erzählen im Klassenzimmer</td>
<td>7,6</td>
<td>2,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>Das Aussehen der Lehrer</td>
<td>9,8</td>
<td>2,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>Gute Noten zu geben</td>
<td>10,5</td>
<td>1,8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Arten von Humor

Bei der Frage betrefflich der Formen von humorvollem Verhalten, welche die Lehrer für den Unterricht als geeignet betrachten, lagen die Werte der Antworten von 1 ("Ich dulde/mag es nicht") bis 4 ("Ich mag es/ Ich mag es sehr") (siehe Tabelle 3).

Tabelle 3. Formen von humorvollem Verhalten im Klassenzimmer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Der Lehrer muss…</th>
<th>„Ich mag es/ Ich mag es sehr“</th>
<th>„Ich will es überhaupt nicht/Ich will es ein wenig“</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. die Witze der Schüler akzeptieren</td>
<td>585 64</td>
<td>270 36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Hin und wieder einen Witz in der Klasse erzählen</td>
<td>478 63</td>
<td>274 27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. mit den Schülern spaßen, ohne sie zu beleidigen</td>
<td>442 59</td>
<td>311 41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Schüler anregen, einen Witz oder eine Anekdote zu erzählen</td>
<td>425 55</td>
<td>326 45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Cartoons oder Comics in die Klasse einbringen</td>
<td>323 43</td>
<td>425 57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Ernst im Unterricht sein</td>
<td>267 35</td>
<td>486 65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. hin und wieder über sich selbst lachen</td>
<td>238 32</td>
<td>510 68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. im Unterricht so viele Witze machen wie möglich</td>
<td>205 27</td>
<td>542 73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Humor anwenden, der zu Lasten der Schüler erfolgt</td>
<td>8 1</td>
<td>752 99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Unter den humoristischen Verhaltensformen, welche die Lehrer im Unterricht als angemessen betrachten, fanden wir, dass die Lehrer die Witze der Studierenden zu akzeptieren an erster Stelle platzierten ("Ich will es / sehr": 64%), gefolgt von anderen Formen, wie zum Beispiel hin und wieder einen Witz in der Klasse erzählen (63%), mit den Schülern spaßen, ohne sie zu beleidigen (59%) und Schüler anregen, einen Witz oder eine Anekdote zu erzählen (55%). Die meisten Teilnehmer waren sich einig, dass Lehrer nicht ernst im Unterricht sein sollten (65%). Andererseits, berichteten die meisten, dass Lehrer keine Cartoons oder Comics in die Klasse bringen sollten ("Ich will es nicht bei allen / ich will es ein wenig": 57%) und waren nicht der Meinung hin und wieder über sich...
selbst lachen zu müssen (68%). 73% widersprachen der Frage, ob die Lehrer im Unterricht so viele Witze wie möglich, machen sollten, während fast alle Lehrer die Art von Humor, der zu Lasten der Schüler erfolgt (99%), ablehnten.

Um die Beziehung zwischen den demographischen Merkmalen der Teilnehmer und der verschiedenen Formen von Humor zu untersuchen, verwendeten wir den Chi-Quadrat-test. Auf die Frage, ob der Lehrer "über sich selbst lachen" sollte, fanden wir eine statistisch signifikante Korrelation bezüglich des Alters der Teilnehmer [x2 (9, N = 698) = 18,109, p = 0,034, Cramers V = 0,093]. Die älteren Lehrer erschienen weniger tolerant gegenüber der Möglichkeit, über sich selbst zu lachen, nicht einmal gelegentlich. In der Altersgruppe von 23 bis 30 zum Beispiel, neigten 51% positiv zu Selbstsarkasmus ("ich mag es/sehr"), während wir zwischen 51-60 lediglich 20% zählten. Im Alter von 41-50 waren es 27%.

Die Auswirkungen von Humor im Unterricht

Zu der Frage über den Nutzen von Humor in der Lehre, erschien den Teilnehmern als wichtiger: eine positive Atmosphäre in der Klasse zu schaffen ("viel / sehr viel": 96%), die Lehrer-Schüler-Beziehung zu verbessern (96%), die Angst der Schüler zu mindern (95%) und den Druck während des Unterrichts zu vermindern (93%). Es folgten andere Vorteile für Humor wie, die Aufmerksamkeit der Studenten zu erregen (81%), Verhaltensprobleme mit Humor zu behandeln (78%), die Beziehungen zwischen den Schülern zu verbessern (77%), die Förderung der Kreativität der Studenten (72%) und das Wissen und Auskünfte von Schülern wirkungsvoller zu erlangen (58%). Zu den Vorteilen von Humor und den demographischen Merkmalen der Lehrer wurde keine statistisch signifikante Beziehung gefunden.

In Anbetracht der Risiken durch den Einsatz von Humor in der Lehre, waren die meisten Lehrer nicht der Meinung, dass Humor dazu führen könnte, den Status der Lehrer zu unterschätzen (80%), manche Schüler zu beleidigen (78%) und rassistische oder sexistische Ansichten im Unterricht zum Ausdruck zu bringen (77%). Die Mehrheit argumentierte auch, dass Humor das Tempo des Unterrichts nicht verlangsamt (71%) oder unangebrachtes Verhalten und disziplinarische Probleme provoziert (65%).

Was die Risiken der Schaffung von disziplinarischen Problemen betrifft, gab es statistisch signifikante Unterschiede zwischen den jüngsten im Dienst und den "älteren" Lehrern [X2 (12, N = 753) = 24,349, p = 0,018, Cramers V = 0,104]. Diejenigen, die weniger als fünf Jahre Berufserfahrung als Lehrer hatten glaubten, im Gegensatz zu denen, die mehr Erfahrung (5 Jahre und mehr) haben, dass der Einsatz von Humor im Unterricht Disziplinprobleme bringen kann. Insbesondere berichtet 33% der Lehrer mit einem Jahr im Dienst, es bestehe die Gefahr von disziplinären Schwierigkeiten und nur 4% der Lehrkräfte mit mehr als 20 Jahren berichtet das Risiko von Disziplinlosigkeit (Lehrer mit 2-5 Jahre: 16%, Lehrer mit 5-20 Jahre: 11%)

Was die Gefahr der Schaffung von disziplinarischen Problemen anbelangt, gab es statistisch signifikante Unterschiede zwischen den jüngsten im Dienst und den "älteren" Lehrern [X2 (12, N = 753) = 24,349, p = 0,018, Cramers V = 0,104]. Diejenigen, die weniger als fünf Jahre als Lehrer arbeiteten waren der Meinung, im Gegensatz zu denen, die mehr Erfahrung (5 Jahre und mehr) haben, dass der Einsatz von Humor im Unterricht Disziplinprobleme mit sich bringen kann. Insbesondere berichteten 33% der Lehrer mit einem Jahr in Dienst, es bestehe die Gefahr von disziplinären Schwierigkeiten und nur 4% der Lehrkräfte mit mehr als 20 Jahren berichteten ein Risiko von Disziplinlosigkeit (Lehrer mit 2-5 Jahren: 16%, Lehrer mit 5-20 Jahren: 11%)
In Bezug auf die Möglichkeit, Humor könne den Unterrichtsrhythmus stören, fanden wir statistisch signifikante Unterschiede zwischen den Altersgruppen der Teilnehmer. \(X^2 (12, N = 706) = 34,098, p = 0,001, \text{Cramers} V = 0,127\). Die Mehrheit der älteren Lehrer (> 50 Jahre) glauben nicht, dass eine solche Gefahr besteht, ("überhaupt nicht / ein wenig": 80%), aber die jüngeren Lehrer (<30 Jahre) halten es für sehr wahrscheinlich ("überhaupt nicht / ein wenig": 49%). Statistisch signifikante Korrelation wurde auch zwischen dem Alter der Befragten und der möglichen Unterschätzung des Status der Lehrer durch Humor gefunden \(X^2 (12, N = 708) = 26,610, p = 0,009, \text{Cramers} V = 0,112\). Ältere Lehrer glauben nicht, dass Humor ihren Status untergraben kann (> 40 Jahre: 87% "überhaupt nicht / ein wenig" und <30 Jahre: 62% "überhaupt nicht / ein wenig").

**Häufigkeit von Humor**

Auf die Frage, wie oft Lehrer Humor im Unterricht einsetzen, berichtete die Mehrheit (43%) 1-2 mal pro Unterrichtsstunde, 39% erklärten, dass sie Humor nur gelegentlich und nicht täglich, anwandten. 13% benutzen Humor 3-4 mal in eine Unterrichtsstunde und eine 4% berichteten von mehr als fünf Mal pro Unterrichtsstunde (siehe Tabelle 4).

| 1. | 1-2 mal pro Unterrichtsstunde | 309 | 43 |
| 2. | nur gelegentlich und nicht täglich | 275 | 39 |
| 3. | 3 - 4 mal in eine Unterrichtsstunde | 94 | 13 |
| 4. | mehr als fünf Mal pro Unterrichtsstunde | 33 | 4 |

Auf die Frage, wie häufig Humor im Unterricht eingesetzt wurde, entdeckten wir einen weiteren statistisch signifikanten Unterschied zwischen Männern und Frauen \(X^2 (6, N = 705) = 27,635, p = 0,000, \text{Cramers} V = 0,198\). 46% der Lehrerinnen gaben an, dass sie Humor nur gelegentlich und nicht auf einer täglichen Basis verwendeten, während 28% der männlichen Lehrer das Gegenteil berichteten. Eine weitere statistisch signifikante Korrelation fanden wir zwischen der Häufigkeit von Humor und den Dienstjahren \(X^2 (18, N = 706) = 30,307, p = 0,035, \text{Cramers} V = 0,120\). Die "älteren" Lehrer erscheinen in größeren Raten als die jüngeren zu erklären, dass sie Humor nur gelegentlich verwenden und sicherlich nicht jeden Tag. Genauer gesagt, berichteten 50% der Lehrer mit mehr als 20 Jahren im Dienst Humor "nicht auf einer täglichen Basis" einzusetzen, während es nur 37% der Lehrer mit weniger als 20 Jahren im Dienst waren.

**4. Diskussion**

Wir können, die oben erwähnte Ansicht der Lehrer die an unserer Studie teilnahmen, erklären in dem wir sie mit den potenziellen Risiken von Humor im Unterricht vergleichen (z.B. Disziplinprobleme, Störungen des Unterrichtsrhythmus, Unterschätzung der Rolle des Lehrers, negative Formen von Humor etc.). Außerdem wissen wir aus anderen Untersuchungen (Bergen, D., 1992), dass die Lehrer humorvolle Situationen in ihrer Klasse vermeiden oder entmutigen, weil (a) sie befürchten, dass sie durch Humor die Kontrolle über das Klassenzimmer verlieren könnten, (b) sie nicht glauben, dass Humor positive Auswirkungen auf das Lernen haben kann und (c) weil sie das Unterrichten als eine "ernste Angelegenheit" sehen. Als wir eine ähnliche Frage in unserer Studie stellten, unterschätzten die Teilnehmer die potenziellen Risiken von Humor und bezogen sich auf diese nur in geringen Prozentsätzen. Im Gegenteil, die Mehrheit der Lehrer erkannten die pädagogischen Vorteile von Humor im Unterricht.


**Literatur**


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Brief biography

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The development of pupils' moral behavior through handbooks of “Morality” at the end of the 18th and the beginning of the 19th century in Greece.

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Abstract

Looking into the subject of the development of pupils' moral behavior through handbooks of “Morality” at the end of the 18th and at the beginning of the 19th century in Greece will give answers to basic questions that are related to our understanding of their education. One of the subjects that was under examination were the pedagogic, religious and moral-social perceptions of this period in constructing the identity of a boy or a girl in school. In the first stage, emphasis was placed on issues that concern the significance of virtue (virtuous, good etc.) and whether there were elements of Christian, philosophical or ancient Greek content in the configuration of the moral value scale. For the period of the end of the 18th and the beginning of the 19th century the study based on all handbooks of Ethics as well as by Hristoithia and Hiragogia alongside handbooks written by known scholars and educators which address the subject of our study. The Greek Enlightenment scholars adopt morals free of metaphysical and theological perceptions that can keep pace with the logic and rejection of fanaticism and superstition which they also include in their wider plan for gendered education.

Keywords: Morality, Handbooks of Ethics, Greek Enlightenment, education, virtue

Introduction

During the 19th century the Greek education system established, according to the legislation of 1834 (which is a transfer of the relative Bavarian legislation), free and compulsory primary education for all children, boys and girls. Thus, for many decades an optimistic attitude can be clearly seen. An optimistic attitude, however, that ignores the realities and particularities of a great number of children (boys and especially girls) in the rural areas as well as in the urban centers, who can not make use of this “premature democratic” legislation. Only the implacable statistical data of 1869, brought the first shock by showing the percentages of illiteral people as 69% for men and 93% for women.\(^1\)

Organizations and citizens contributed in order to overcome the state’s economic problems for the foundation and maintenance of schools. The Educational Company undertook, from 1837, the education of girls and the training of women teachers, while rich individuals took care of the education of orphans. The Amalicio Orphanage for girls (founded by the “Philantropical Association of Ladies”) and the Xatzikonsta Foundation are two of the most well known institutions in Athens. From 1872 onwards, the “Association of Ladies for Women’s Education” takes care of women’s professional training. The operation of the “Laboratory of poor women” and of the “Sunday schools for women workers” covers the

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\(^1\) S. Ziougou- Karastergiou, *Education in Thessaloniki during the 19th and 20th centuries*, Historical Centre of Thessaloniki, Thessaloniki 2006, p. 438.
Roula Ziogou-Karastergiou - Efstratios Vacharoglou: The development of pupils’ moral behavior through handbooks of “Morality” at the end of the 18th and the beginning of the 19th century in Greece

Educational needs of girls that work. In parallel, The Philological Association “Parnassos” starts a “School of Poor Children” from 1872 in Athens, which aims at the ethical education and mental development of poor children that work during the day.

Due to the state’s public education system as well as the direct interest of Educational Associations and individuals for the socialization of children (girls and boys), we consider the study of the ethical handbooks particularly interesting because it is directly connected to the ethical development and the way the pupils’ behavior will be shaped. The dimension of gender in the development of children’s ethical thought, is a parameter that greatly interests us. Chronologically, emphasis is placed at the end of the 18th and the beginning of the 19th century because this period was the basis, with the influence of the representatives of the European Enlightenment, for the development of the relative theories which later defined the educational policy of the newly formed Greek state.

During the Enlightenment, the subjects concerning the dignity of the individual, as well as the position of the individual in society, mainly dominate the ethical discussion at the end of the 18th century in Europe: the problems of the survival and self-sustainment of the individual, his freedom and his gradual positive development, are viewed in correspondence to the institutions of society. The acts of the individual acquire an ethical basis, according to the societal code of conduct, which is formed through the combination of ethics and politics. The scholars of the Renaissance adopt ethics free from metaphysical and religious conceptions, which goes together with rational thought and with the rejection of fanaticism and superstition, and they include them in their wider plan for the education of the nation.

Ethics and Politics

At the end of the 18th century we come across, in Greece, politics as a worldly ethic, since for Greek scholars of the time there is no discrimination between private and public ethics. These worldly ethics appear as a guide of good conduct for citizens within society (virtuous citizens within society). The concept of this type of politics corresponded to the need of the neo-hellenic society at the end of the eighteenth century. Greek society is reorganized and reorientated towards a more worldly-political type of ethics than those taught by the church: not the happiness of the Christian for the reign of God is pursued but the “happiness”- the “well-being” of the individual in society. The educational reforms of the 18th century have been interpreted within this framework, that is, as agents of transmission of the new kind of governing, of the transformation of subjects into citizens.

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3 S. Ziogou Karastergiou, Education in Thessaloniki… Ibid., pp. 435-449.
4 This proposal is included in the program Pythogoras I, which is funded by Ministry of Education. See, S. Ziogou Karastergiou “The gender dimension in the formation of teacher’s identity during the 19th and 20th century: ideological and methodological components”, in the Symposium: Greek Education from the 18th to the 20th century - Research Components, University of West Macedonia Pedagogical School Faculty of Elementary Education, Florina 2005, pp. 186-187.
6 “We should not confuse the worldly ethics with the religious ethics”, M. Christaris claims “the first aims at the constant happiness on earth, while the second teaches heavenly blessedness”. See, Paradis de Raymondis, Elemental treatise concerning ethics and wellbeing, translation Mic. Xristaris, Vienna 1816, 1st volume, p. 147.
and of the creation of new connections between the individuals and the state. The schools were to be one of the main means of the national cohesion in the framework of the “creation” of the citizen who values himself/herself in relation to the nation –state and serves the legalization of the political and cultural homogeneity. The teaching of political ethics within the school contributed towards this purpose. The Greek scholars supported the notion of the worldly-political ethics, emphasizing that universal ethics exist in the world, “[ethics] have their throne in the consciousness of the individual, so they manage the people and the states.” Worldly ethics appear as the science of the obligations of the individual, through which the individual learns to juxtapose rational thought with his emotions and passions.

“Ethics is the art of living well, the practical science of the obligations of the individual, through which we learn and juxtapose patience against unhappiness, nature against the customs, and to act in a fair and honest way, believing in the axiom that everything that is not honest and fair is not useful. From all the knowledge of people, ethics is the most necessary part.”

Indeed, its position as a science was supported by axioms, definitions and empirical examples as those that rule the applied sciences. For example the axioms of ethics that were presented were:

“The prudent individual has to respect three things above all: the laws, the great men and the words/discourse of good people.- When something has to do with the salvation of your country, don’t think about it, but take the risk.- The most important lesson is for the individual to learn to forget vice- Of all people only the fair one lives undisturbed and without a troubled consciousness.- Don’t do to other people what you don’t want them to do to you- Know yourself.- Do you want to learn whether any act is good or bad? Think about what will happen if everyone was to apply it. The honest is the beneficial. The beneficial is the fair.- The one who hunts good people, fights the heavens. Things don’t disturb the people, but their beliefs and superstitions about them, do. - Whoever heard the voice of virtue from the morning, may perhaps die that evening, but he does not regret for he has lived. – Prudence does not command the impossible, and because of this it is easy for anyone to obey it.- The purpose of the political society is common wellbeing.”

The conception of politics which is linked to ethics is gradually placed in the theoretical framework of education, which is directly connected and is essentially linked to the appearance and direction of pedagogics. The spreading of ethical thinking in Greece begins mainly from the translation by Iosipos Misiodakas of the ethical philosophy of L. Muratori in 1761. Misiodakas reported:

“I thought that Greece from unhappiness, now suffers lack of nearly all the full educational systems, and primarily of mathematics, and of physics, and of ethics and so on and so forth, and I really didn’t know which to deal with first. Later, I compared the need of one

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8 E. Zioui, (1828)- Ethics applied to politics so they can function as an introduction to the comments about the morals of the French during the 19th century, by E. Zioui, a member of the Society for the perfection of the arts and sciences. Second edition in Paris, First volume, 1822, Translated from French by N. Spiliados, and published during the αωκη΄, p.9.
9 Ibid., p. 13.
10 Ibid. pp. 16-17.
with the needs of the other. I considered the ethical one more important, and regarding this perhaps I did not make a mistake”.\textsuperscript{11}

At the first stage of the formation of ethical thinking in the Modern Greek Enlightenment, during the second half of the 18\textsuperscript{th} century and the beginning of the next century, there was an effort to transfer the European ethical thought unaltered, with translations. In 1816, Michael Christaris translated the: “Traite elementaire de morale et de bonheur” of Jean-Zacharia Paradis de Raymondis with the title: “Elementary writings about Ethics and Happiness”, in which the translator mentioned the phrase: “Whoever ignores ethics, cannot be happy”. Christaris, defines the notion of ethics, which is:

“to show the social bond, to cement the principles of this, to prove that it is in everyone’s best interest to preserve it, and it is in the best interest of the entire political society to secure inviolably, to show what contributes to it as virtue, and what it harms as vice ”.

M. Christaris emphasizes that ethics leads to wellbeing, while the passions, when they are not governed by logic lead not to wellbeing but to unhappiness. He states that passions lead to aversion, hatred and anger, while the advantages he mentions are patience, self-discipline or self-control or self-restraint. An important part of his book is dominated by the general obligations of the individual, those that originate from the Political Society which is Justice, Honorableness, and Beneficence.\textsuperscript{12}

**Christoethics and Ethics Textbooks\textsuperscript{13}**

Antonios Bizantiou’s work entitled “Christoethics. For the advice on the ethics for young people” is the first book of conduct in Modern Greek society. It was printed in 1720, and included in the second volume of the Ioannis Patousas Encyclopedia of Literature in 1780 and 34 editions of this work are recorded until 1820, and another five (5) between 1830 and 1844. The term Christoethics is a familiar, if not strictly defined, concept, which denotes good behavior. Antonios Bizantios’s Christoethics was used as a schoolbook, whose teaching served two goals: the “decoration of the young individual’s ethics”, as its title claims and the teaching of the ancient Greek Language, in which the handbook was written. The aim of politics as social ethics, as they are seen in Anthony Bizantios’s Christoethics, are mainly two: honorableness of ethics and the worldliness in the framework of social life.

In 1770, the “Christoethics” of Ceasarius Daponte appear and from 1791 till 1796 a series of Christoethics are published. In these, worldly ethics are dominant, aiming towards the honorableness and the worldliness of the ethics. In 1791 Dimitrios Darvari’s “Guidance in goodness and virtuousness ” is published, in 1794 “Christoethics, the flower of virtue and knowledge, that is a summary of some rules through which one can live decently and happily, the Art of living, a useful advice. How someone can live in accordance with the wisdom of people” and in 1796 “The true road towards wellbeing” and the two works of D. Darvaris. Dimitrios Darvaris argued, through the handbooks that the virtuous

\textsuperscript{11} L. Muratori, *Ethical Philosophy*, transl. I. Misiodakas, Venice 1761.


\textsuperscript{13} Christoethics were taught basically in Primary Education Schools, Ethics in Secondary and Higher Education.
upbringing must be based upon a healthy ethical perception which dictated by rational thought and the Scriptures.14 This co-existence is found mainly in the perceptions of ethics and wellbeing of the 18th century. The aim of good upbringing is to “enlighten the mind with knowledge, to correct the “heart”, that is to control passions, lastly, to make the young person an honest and useful member of society. In Darvani’s pedagogical thinking we can emphasize that the main aim is the effective preparation of the young individual so he/she can “have a nice and quiet life, and prosper in the world”.15

In 1810 the very important work of Dionisios Pirros is published, titled: “Guidance of the children, that is, Elementary Treatise about the obligations of the individual” which is a translation of the work of Francisco Soave (1743-1806). We have one of its editions in Vienna in 1813, a Karamanlidian one in Constantinople in 1819 and one in Nauplio in 1829, while the editions become eleven (11) until 1855 with Venice as the place of publication. The same work is translated in 1819 and published in Moscow by Georgios Gennadios, titled “Elemental Treatise about the obligations of the individual by Francisco Soave”, which has a notable publication success during the 19th century (in Constantinople 1840, 1841, 1846, 1848, in Athens 1853, in Smirni in 1855, in Ioannina in 1863) and is included as the first volume in the “Pedagogic Lessons” by Stefanos Kommitas, which is published in 1828 in Pesti. These texts include chapters with the subject of “the individual’s natural and ethical” obligations, which he has towards God, towards himself, towards the country”, and “Rules of christoethics” in Dionisios Pirros or “Rules of Civilization” in G. Gennadios. The virtues often appear in the form of obligations I, which are hierarchically organized with respect to the recipient who can be God, the self, the parents etc. Ethics frame Christoethics. Two trends can be mentioned: “virtue of the soul”-ethics of the traditional Christian type and virtue of the citizen.

The first editions of Christoethics was followed by the publication of a great number of other conduct books, which continued throughout the 19th century. Here, we dealt with the school handbooks, because these were the ones which pupils were taught in the 19th century, and upon which they constructed their ethical identity. The Christoethics define two important elements which start to acquire a part of the collective consciousness of the time. The first element concerns the redefinition of people’s relationships, which in traditional Christian ethics are regulated with God as the basic reference point, and only indirectly, the individual, and his/her relationships with God and Christian teachings.

In 1838, I. P. Kokkonis published the series “Children's Library - Christoethic Teachings”. Two of its volumes include the “Concerning obligations” while the third one contains the part of the translation of G. Gennadios, who translated Francisco Soave's “Elemental treatise about the obligations of the individual”. This volume of I. P. Kokkonis’s Children’s Library was republished eight times in Athens, between 1838 and 1858. Soave’s handbook continues to be translated in the 19th century by many Greek educators, since 30 editions are recorded from 1810 till 1860.

Finally, we briefly mention Dimitrios Kalamvakidis's edition, “The character of the christoethical individual” in 1838 in Meleniko.

This wide circulation of “Christoethics”, the status of the writers-translators, the translations of mainly German and French publishing houses and the constant presence of

14 D. Darvaris, “Concerning the upbringing of Children”, Ermis the Scholar 1812, p. 98.
15 Ibid., p. 100.
part of the christoethics in publications that are widely used in Greek schools during this time (Patousas's Literary Encyclopedia, Commitas' Pedagogical Lessons-, and also in spelling books and Pedagogics of the 18th century, as well as the first part of the 19th century), all these help us come to the conclusion that in Greek Education of this time, great emphasis is placed on the teaching of good conduct ("Rules of Christoethics", "Rules of Culture"). An important goal of education was the formation of a system with model conduct which was related to: a) the functions and techniques of the body, b) the restriction of the individuals' impulses, emotional control c) the formation of character, obligations of the individual towards himself/herself, fellow man and society. Furthermore, the relationship between the functions of the body and the formation of character, is emphasized.16

The first “Pedagogies” contain, in their primary level, to an important extent, “admonitions” about the upbringing of children and “rules” concerning their behavior within the family, in school and in society. These appear within the more general framework of the 18th century where the dominance of “Christoethics” is clear.

During the entire 19th century, the rules of social conduct appear in most school handbooks which teach children their rudimentary knowledge (spelling books, pedagogics etc). On the whole, until now we have located about ninety two (91) handbooks of Christoethics and ethics together with their republications, in libraries and bibliographical catalogues. As a first inventory, we defined the categories: Christoethics, handbooks of ethics, Pedagogics-. These categories were defined based on the title of each handbook, which clearly defined the section of ethics it discussed according to the social conditions.

The next graph presents the handbooks of christoethics and ethics which are published each decade from 1800 till 1912. We observe that most of the handbooks of ethics and christoethics (about 34%) are published in the decade between 1830 and 1840. One reason that can be given is the formation of the free Greek state and, consequently, the preparation of young people so they can become virtuous citizens. More generally, in the first half of the 19th century we can observe the publication of most of the handbooks with ethical content, and less in the second half of the 19th century.

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Handbooks of Ethics

In 1818 the work of *Frangiskos Soavios* was translated by Grigorios Ierodiakonos Konstantas from Milies, in four volumes. The fourth volume included the Ethics. In part A’ is titled: “the prudent individual”. The second part deals with passions. In the first chapter the beginning and the nature of passions is investigated, while in the second chapter love and hatred are investigated. The third chapter deals with pride, humiliation and baseness, while the fourth chapter discusses vainglory, modesty and the prudence or the scorn of honors. The fifth chapter refers to pleasure and desire. In the next chapters Soavios lists the passions, which he categorizes into virtues and vice. The passions concern the same individual with respect to himself. According to the above, a categorization that can be made with respect to Soave’s catalogue, is presented in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Virtues</th>
<th>Vices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pride</td>
<td>Humiliation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modesty</td>
<td>Baseness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scorn of honors</td>
<td>Vainglory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Love of learning</td>
<td>Love of honors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decency</td>
<td>Love of money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hope</td>
<td>Ambition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bravery</td>
<td>Lust of power</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowing ones’ self</td>
<td>Voluptuous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheerfulness</td>
<td>Fear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Well being</td>
<td>Audacity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Anger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hatred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Antipathy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Indignation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jealousy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Zeal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Melancholy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The second chapter is titled: “The lenient individual”, and we could say it deals with political ethics. In the first part reference is made to the beginning of Societies, Customs and the Laws of the Administration. In this section the state of societies, the beginning and development of customs as well as their important role in the beginning and development of societies, are discussed. The beginning of Laws and orders about the customs are also mentioned. The second part deals with the obligations of the individual. This part includes...

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the general obligations of people towards people, negative obligations.\textsuperscript{18}

In the second part, the writer also records positive obligations, obligations between friends, choosing friends, obligations of friendship, obligations towards benefactors, common obligations between relatives, obligations between spouses, obligations of parents towards their children, children’s obligations towards their parents, common obligations between siblings, obligations towards the country and society, about the Judge of morality, about immorality of actions and about consciousness. The third part discusses virtue, while emphasis is placed on the social virtues, in part, and benevolence, as well as nobleness with prudence.

The third part is titled: “The pious individual” and we could say it concerns the relationship of man with God. In the first chapter, the pious individual is mentioned on a general basis, while in the second chapter the Christian individual is dealt with. In the other articles, emphasis is placed on the reasons which the Christian individual must be prudent, lenient and pious\textsuperscript{19}.

Frangiskos Soavios defines Ethics as a science and as a part of Philosophy.

“The most remarkable and beneficial part of Philosophy, without which all the other parts help little, is that which teaches us to know ourselves, which shows us our obligations, which opens and smooths the path through which we will reach well being, the eternal aim of our desires, it is the science, which we are going to deal with The individual, around which the above science revolves, can be considered under three situations, with respect to the triple reference he can have towards himself, towards his equals and towards the ultimate creator of himself and his equals.”\textsuperscript{20}

The obligations of the individual flow from the triple mention towards the self, fellow men and towards God. These obligations demand that the individual be prudent towards the government and the administration, lenient towards other people and respectful towards the ultimate Creator.

Dimitrios Katartzis, in his essay, “Know thyself”(1787) sets the boundaries in a descriptive way the content of ethics in the Modern Greek Enlightenment. In this work the diagram of sciences is mentioned. In the diagram the ethical by nature based on the theory of virtue and vice along with the theory of obligations are separated from the partly ethical, in which the theory of laws, of economics and of politics are included\textsuperscript{21}. This diagram can be schematized:

\begin{itemize}
  \item[18] The next table presents the most important negative obligations towards fellow man, which we see in Konstantinos Koumas’s handbook of “Ethics”, which will be dealt with further on (see p.14 below):
  \begin{itemize}
    \item[A] Not to damage anybody as a person
    \item[B] Not to damage anybody’s property
    \item[C] Not to damage anybody’s honor
  \end{itemize}


  \item[20] \textit{Ibid.}, pp. 7-8.

\end{itemize}
This diagram, formed at the end of the 18th century retained its validity during the Greek Enlightenment and can be found up until the second decade of the 19th century, where it is mentioned in the ethical handbooks of Neofitos Vamvas and Konstantinos Koumas.

Veniamin Lesvios, in his own diagram of the sciences, emphasizes with respect to ethics:

“But because man is not only theory, but action as well: which means that because even on earth there are not only bodies and irrational animals, but also rational, that is people, with who everyone of us has connection and contact, on which our wellbeing or unhappiness depends, the science which teaches the individual the path of wellbeing, is called Ethics”.

System of values for the teacher and the pupil.

In this section we present some first conclusions concerning the notions of Christoethics and ethics in the 19th century. One category of adjustments proposed by Christoethics concerns the development of young people’s character. The theoretical frameworks of ethics, which is generally divided by educators into General and Partial Ethics, are given. Virtues and vices, based on respect towards the self, fellow man and society, are defined. Some instructions for teachers concerning the development of their pupils’ ethical character, then follow. For example the handbook of Greek Christomatheia (learning good morals) published in 1805, mentions in its first volume: “The most important of all virtues is respectfulness. - The cornerstone of wisdom is fear of the Lord.- Love education, prudence, sensibility, truth, economy, art, respectfulness.- Education is something to be proud of in happy times and something to resort to in unhappy times”. Flaws such as untidiness, prodigality, lust, hypocrisy, sloth and disrespectfulness are strongly outlined, as are the virtues, led by respectfulness and orderliness, so young people can form their personality by learning to apply the virtues or to avoid actions with negative consequences, or even to be able to perceive these in others and adjust their conduct and associations accordingly. In Soave’s Elements of ethics, the following are recorded: the prudent individual, the lenient individual, the respectful individual.

In the beginning up until the middle of the nineteenth century, according to most teachers,
perceptible is the power of “feeling” and sense is the energy of the senses. Feelings contribute to the physical and ethical upbringing. With respect to children, the ethical sense aims at self respect and self-sufficiency. Children must show respect towards anything that relates to justice, freedom and bravery. The teacher must learn to locate and separate the happy events from unpleasant problems in order to strengthen the children’s ethical character. He must also think about with how he must behave in either case, with the help of ethical philosophy. The teacher must not refute the natural talents; instead he must contribute in such a way as to realize the most perfect ethical education for young people. The innate talent must not be corrupted. The ethical corruption of children can be interpreted through their behavior. The freer young people feel the faster they develop their ethical character. Anthropology and psychology also play an important role in the formation of ethical education. The teachers of this time also mention some rules which one should not ignore with regard to ethical education. These rules are the following: one should not preach morality because this has negative consequences in practice, one should take advantage of the everyday historical events to be led to general theories and not to engage in ethical conversations. A person’s ethics are expressed through the stability of the power of durability and the bravery of one to take great and bold action in the name of truth, virtue and justice. Ethical education contributes to the improvement of all convictions and to the internal harmony of things. According to the educator, it is in this way that the ethical character of the ethical individual is formed. Patriotism is especially emphasized as well as veracity, by saying that God made man so that he could act according to the truth and that patriotism and national spirit are part of ethical training and education which concerns the contribution of the individual towards society. Great emphasis is placed on the important role of the teacher with regard to the main aim of public educations and the responsibilities it assumes in order to educate not just literate, but enlightened and virtuous citizens, even if this means correcting or complementing the upbringing at home. The ethical and religious education, the development of ethical instructions and of divine orders, inspire philanthropically and brave emotions towards others in students.

Virtuousness is included in general obligations. Christoethics propose a conduct system which is constructed in order to provide the potential to access the highest status in the social hierarchy. The next graph presents the partial categories of ethics, as they were analyzed in school handbooks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Christian Ethics</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Christian virtues: respectfulness, philanthropy, mildness, love.</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethics of Values - Regulatory Ethics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Virtuous citizens, workers of progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethicality consists of the more general roles which a specific society implements but also, more specifically of the rules which the school implements for its harmonious function on the students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formation of an ethical framework, in which knowledge functions.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Notion of Ethics and the system of values in Veniamin Lesvios, K. Koumas and N. Vamvas.

In the beginning of the 19th century we can see a neo-Hellenic, radical and liberal movement, which extends the questioning of the French revolutionary ethics and political thought in Greece. We find these influences in the advanced part of Greek intellectuals, in the Greek prefecture, in the works of Rigas Velesinlis, of Adamantios Korais, of Veniamin Lesvios, of Michael Christaris, as well as in Neofitos Vamvas’ works and in Konstantinos Koumas’s. At the first stage we studied the handbooks of V. Lesvios, of N. Vamvas and of K. Koumas because they were taught in schools by the writers-teachers themselves and because they correspond to key periods of time in the education of Greek children.

Veniamin Lesvios wrote the work: “Elements of Ethics” in Kidonies and intended to realize it’s publication, according to his own announcement, in the magazine “Ermis the scholar” in 1819, at which time he was the director of the Hegemonic School of Iasios. This announcement, among other things, states:

“There is no more important lesson given to man, than that of the fulfillment of his obligations towards himself, towards his equals, and towards his creator, God... Thus, the science which teaches man how he should act towards others, that is, his equals, his parents, his children, his spouse, and towards the Divine, so he can become his image, is called Ethics. And it is only this and no other that makes man, man...”

The first two chapters of Elements of Ethics, titled “About the natural rights of man” and “About the natural obligations of man”, respectively, are a list of obligations, which are defined in relation to the notion of the other while no clarification is made on their social or hierarchical position, and for this reason the examination of human rights precedes

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24 R. Argiropoulou, ibid., p. 17.
while the sequence of human rights follows\textsuperscript{25}. This list of obligations is of worldly content, while respect towards God is absent. This is because V. Lesvios emphasizes that ecclesiastical education takes place in the Church and is different from the worldly education that is taught in schools. Self-preservation, the quest for means of self-preservation, the right of property, and the improvement of the individual through the knowledge of truth and by acting virtuously, as well as the right to oppose whomever tries to abolish human rights of others are studied. The axiom “don’t do what you hate” fixes the boundaries in his ethical thought about the practical behavior of the individual. Virtue for V. Lesvios is the “sacrifice of the natural rights of the individual for the preservation of the natural rights of the other”. Pity corresponds to the first natural right, charity to the second, and justice to the third. The first natural obligation is the protection of the others’ life, the second is the protection of the other’s property and the third is not to hinder progress, and fourth not to impede freedom of thought.

The third chapter “Concerning virtue and vice” occupies more that half of the book. V. Lesvios combines the Aristotelian analyses from “Ithika Nikomachia” with contemporary theories. He places honesty between virtue and vice. He uses the distinctions for the magnanimous and the petty. He mentions Locke’s definitions for good and vice and adopts the Aristotelian view that passions are neither good nor evil, nor do they originate from the love of ourselves. V. Lesvios then proceeds to the study of forty virtues and vices. In the fourth chapter he records virtues and vices as passions of man: concerning pity, mercilessness or inhumanity, charity, liberality, prodigality, lack of freedom, justice and injustice, benefaction, gratefulness, ungratefulness, reputation, hypocrisy, glory and ambition, arrogance, pride, jealousy, nemesis, enmity, friendship, favor, vanity, flattery, revenge or defense, mildness και patience, bravery, audacity, cowardice, prudence και dissoluteness, leniency, magnanimousness, wisdom. According to Veniamin Lesvios there is no discrimination between the freedom of will and the freedom to of action, freedom is uniform and fulfills the power of the free individual. The practical conduct of the individual does not refute the sociopolitical conditions (ethics and customs).

In the fifth chapter the notion of the family is discussed and the interpersonal relationships of the individual are defined. The view that family is the base of society, refers to Aristotle. It is claimed that the education of the woman underlines her social role as a mother in the upbringing of the children. As a “progenitor” he deals with the issue of education and mentions pedagogical theories of Rousseau and Locke, with regard to those of Aristotle. Concerning the issue of education, V. Lesvios claims that man was made by God potentially rational and, thus, education is essential for man to become actively rational.

Neofitos Vamvas wrote in 1818 the work “Elements of Ethics” and republished it in Athens in 1853. According to Neofitos Vamvas, with regard to the notion of Ethics:

“Ethics is the science of human morals and obligations, and aims to the rational practice of ethics; because practice without reason, even if it is good, cannot be considered virtue. The aims of this science is wellbeing, as much as possible for man”.\textsuperscript{26} N. Vamvas makes an important distinction of Ethics into general and partial ethics, as is presented in the following graph:

\textsuperscript{25} Ibid., pp. 18-20.

\textsuperscript{26} Neofitos Vamvas, Elements of ethics written for the benefit of young people who love learning by Neofitos Vamvas, professor of philosophy and rhetoric in the Othoneio University, third edition, in Athens, by the printing house of S. K. Vlastou, 1853, p. 31.
In the first and second chapter, N. Vamvas defines God as the authority of ethics, while the second authority is the innate and rational feeling of good and bad in man. True and false ideas, Experience, Upbringing, Education, Examples are defined. In the sixth chapter titled: “Concerning personal virtues”, respectfulness, care of the body, unlimited love for life, caring for the belongings, honor, modesty, tranquility, stability, magnanimousness, bravery, prudence are defined. In the tenth chapter, Neofitos Vamvas lists the obligations of the main classes of society, as well as the obligations of the rulers, the obligations of the subjects, the obligations of the rich, the obligations of the poor. In the eleventh chapter, the educator, continuing the list of obligations, reports the obligations towards fellow human beings: justice, bravery, philanthropy, kindness, indifference, unselfishness, friendship, sociability, patriotism, love of learning.

After the obligations of one person towards another, reference is made to the vices that relate to the neglect of the soul and the body, even hygiene, like: debauchery, dissoluteness, weakness, sloth, stubbornness, arrogance, pride, ambition, inconstancy, coward ness, pettiness, imprudence, sadness.

The fifteenth chapter describes the evils towards others like: hatred, jealousy, deceit, fanaticism, betrayal, revenge, avariciousness, babbling, indecency, desperation.  

The four volume work, Constitution of Philosophy (1818-1820) by K. M. Koumas is a full examination of the philosophical area of that time: history of philosophy, psychology, logic, metaphysics, aesthetics, ethics and pedagogics. Koumas’s Ethics, which is included in the fourth volume of the Constitution of Philosophy (1820) in the beginning, was republished independently two more times, in 1844 in Athens by the daughter of the writer, Eleni Katakouzini, and in 1851 in Thessaloniki. The Constitution of Philosophy is based on works of German Kantian philosophers. Mainly, with regard to ethics, he relied on W. T. Krug and his three volume work: “System der praktischen Philosophie (1817-1819)” and more specifically on the second volume, titled, “Tugendlehre, Aretologie oder philosophische Tugendlehre”.

In the introduction of the work, titled “Prodioikisis”, K. Koumas defines the notion of ethics. Ethics, for Koumas is: “A philosophical science of the initial laws of the acts of the human spirit, relating to the internal harmony of actions; because the fundamental law of practical Reason demands a complete harmony between studies and actions; and because the science of justice only refers to the external harmony of these, another science that

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27 Ibid., pp. 228-246.
teaches the internal laws as well is definitely necessary.”

The first part of the handbook deals with “Pure Ethics”, that is, the theoretical part of ethics, while the second part deals with “Applied Ethics”, the practical part. In the first chapter the authorities of ethics are mentioned, while in the second chapter the definition of the notion of virtue is given, and according to this: “The obligatory action of the individual which comes from either respect or love towards virtue”.

In the third chapter sin and vice are discussed. K. Koumas, in order to define the area of ethics, resorts to three fundamental notions besides virtue: to the notions of natural justice, of practical reason and of obligation. In the fifth chapter virtues and vices are highlighted, as are the obligations with respect to two relative categories: a) obligations of the individual towards the self or towards the “I”, b) Obligations of the individual towards other creatures or towards the “Non-I”. The last category defines creatures as follows: 1) irrational 2) rational, which according to K. Koumas, are divided into: I) People A) either living or B) dead II) “Super Human beings” A) of finite nature (Angels) or B) Infinite (God).

The sixth chapter defines the social obligations of the individual as part of a family, in the upbringing of the children, the obligations between masters and servants, the obligations of the citizen, cosmopolitanism and philanthropy.

The next table presents the definition of ethics according to Veniamin Lesvios, Konstantinos Koumas and Neofitos Vamvas as well as a list of virtues, vices and obligations, as they are presented in the handbooks of the writers that were mentioned.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Veniamin Lesvios (1795-1824)</th>
<th>Konstantinos K. Koumas (1777-1836)</th>
<th>Neofitos Vamvas (1770-1855)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Elements of Ethics</em> (1819)</td>
<td><em>Ethics</em> (Constitution of Philosophy- 1818-1820)</td>
<td><em>Elements of ethics</em> (1853)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Ethics: “The science which teaches the individual how he must act towards those around him: that is to his equals, towards his parents, children, spouse, and towards the divine, so he may become an image of Him, is called Ethics”. | Ethics: “A philosophical science of the initial laws of the acts of the human spirit, which relate to the internal harmony of actions, because the fundamental law of practical Reason also demands absolute harmony between study and actions; and because the science of law only deals with the external harmony of these, there must be another science which also teaches the internal laws”. | Ethics: “Ethics is the science of human morals and obligations, its aim is the rational application of virtue. Because application without reason, even if it is good, is not considered virtue. The ultimate goal of this science is the wellbeing, as far as it can go, of the individual.” |

Concerning passions or the part A. Obligations of the individual Concerning personal virtues

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29 Ibid., p.18.

30 Ibid., pp. 34-41.
| Virtues or vices | Concerning pity | Concerning mercilelessness or inhumanity | Concerning liberality | Concerning debauchery | Concerning lack of liberty | Concerning justice and injustice | Concerning benefaction | Concerning gratefulness | Concerning ungratefulness | Concerning reputation | Concerning glory and ambition | Concerning arrogance | Concerning pride | Concerning jealousy | Concerning nemesis | Concerning hostility | Concerning friendship | Concerning favor | Concerning vanity | Concerning flattery | Concerning revenge or defense | Concerning mildness | Concerning patience | Concerning bravery | Concerning insolence | Concerning coward ness | Concerning prudence and dissoluteness | Concerning leniency | Concerning magnanimousness | Concerning prudence | Concerning society or economy | As a child | As a spouse | As a progenitor |
|-----------------|----------------|----------------------------------------|----------------------|---------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------|------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------|----------------------------|-----------------|----------------|-----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
|Towards the self or towards the “I” | Obligations towards other creatures or towards the “Non-I” | a)Towards those living without fate | 1. Towards irrational | 2. Towards rational | I. Towards people | A. Either living | B. Infinite (God) | Concerning the preservation of the soul and the means towards wellbeing and perfection, and the other obligations of the individual towards the self. | Sloth | Economy-debauchery | Avarice | External freedom | External value = respect | Obligations towards the family | Obligations towards political society | Obligations towards other people | Phi;anthropy | Justice | Obligations of the citizen | Obligations of the classes of society | Obligations of the rulers | Obligations of the subjects | Obligations of the rich | Obligations of the poor | Obligations towards other people |
| Respectfulness | Care of the body | Unlimited love of life | Taking care of the belongings | Honor | Modesty | Calmness | Stability | Magnanimousness | Bravery | Prudence | Concerning the obligations of the classes of society | Obligations of the rulers | Obligations of the subjects | Obligations of the rich | Obligations of the poor | Obligations towards other people |
| Respectfulness | Care of the body | Unlimited love of life | Taking care of the belongings | Honor | Modesty | Calmness | Stability | Magnanimousness | Bravery | Prudence | Concerning the obligations of the classes of society | Obligations of the rulers | Obligations of the subjects | Obligations of the rich | Obligations of the poor | Obligations towards other people |

**Concerning virtues or vices**

**Concerning pity**
- Concerning mercy or unmercy

**Concerning mercilelessness or inhumanity**
- Concerning unmercy or inhumanity

**Concerning liberality**
- Concerning liberty or unliberty

**Concerning debauchery**
- Concerning debauchery or lack of liberty

**Concerning justice and injustice**
- Concerning justice or injustice

**Concerning benefaction**
- Concerning benefaction or lack of benefaction

**Concerning gratefulness**
- Concerning gratefulness or ungratefulness

**Concerning ungratefulness**
- Concerning ungratefulness or lack of ungratefulness

**Concerning reputation**
- Concerning reputation or lack of reputation

**Concerning glory and ambition**
- Concerning glory or ambition

**Concerning arrogance**
- Concerning arrogance or lack of arrogance

**Concerning pride**
- Concerning pride or lack of pride

**Concerning jealousy**
- Concerning jealousy or lack of jealousy

**Concerning nemesis**
- Concerning nemesis or lack of nemesis

**Concerning hostility**
- Concerning hostility or lack of hostility

**Concerning friendship**
- Concerning friendship or lack of friendship

**Concerning favor**
- Concerning favor or lack of favor

**Concerning vanity**
- Concerning vanity or lack of vanity

**Concerning flattery**
- Concerning flattery or lack of flattery

**Concerning revenge or defense**
- Concerning revenge or defense or lack of revenge or defense

**Concerning mildness**
- Concerning mildness or lack of mildness

**Concerning patience**
- Concerning patience or lack of patience

**Concerning bravery**
- Concerning bravery or lack of bravery

**Concerning insolence**
- Concerning insolence or lack of insolence

**Concerning coward ness**
- Concerning coward ness or lack of coward ness

**Concerning prudence and dissoluteness**
- Concerning prudence and dissoluteness or lack of prudence and dissoluteness

**Concerning leniency**
- Concerning leniency or lack of leniency

**Concerning magnanimousness**
- Concerning magnanimousness or lack of magnanimousness

**Concerning prudence**
- Concerning prudence or lack of prudence

**Concerning society or economy**
- Concerning society or economy or lack of society or economy

**As a child**
- Concerning the obligations of the classes of society

**As a spouse**
- Concerning the obligations of the classes of society

**As a progenitor**
- Concerning the obligations of the classes of society

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**Concerning the obligations of the classes of society**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Obligations of the citizen</th>
<th>Obligations of the rich</th>
<th>Obligations of the poor</th>
<th>Obligations towards other people</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Respectfulness</td>
<td>Care of the body</td>
<td>Unlimited love of life</td>
<td>Taking care of the belongings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honor</td>
<td>Modesty</td>
<td>Calmness</td>
<td>Stability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magnanimousness</td>
<td>Bravery</td>
<td>Prudence</td>
<td>Concerning the obligations of the classes of society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obligations of the rulers</td>
<td>Obligations of the subjects</td>
<td>Obligations of the rich</td>
<td>Obligations of the poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obligations towards other people</td>
<td>Justice</td>
<td>Bravery</td>
<td>Phi;anthropy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goodness</td>
<td>Indifference</td>
<td>Unselfishness</td>
<td>Sincerity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faith</td>
<td>Gratefulness</td>
<td>Liberty</td>
<td>Friendship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociable</td>
<td>Patriotism</td>
<td>Love of learning</td>
<td>Vices towards the self</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neglect of the soul and the body</td>
<td>Debauchery</td>
<td>Dissoluteness</td>
<td>Weakness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sloth</td>
<td>Stubbornness</td>
<td>Arrogance</td>
<td>Pride</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pettiness</td>
<td>Imprudence</td>
<td>Sadness</td>
<td>Vices towards others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hatred</td>
<td>Jealousy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Conclusion

K. Koumas’ *Ethics* is not only a work of the ethics of the Enlightenment, which is printed in the second half of the nineteenth century. The *Elements of the philosophical ethics* of N. Vamvas compete, with respect to editions, with the *Ethics* of K. Koumas and the V. Lesvios’s Elements of Ethics. We can say that the cultural process of the Enlightenment didn’t stop influencing even this era.

While N. Vamvas’s definition of ethics is identical to V. Lesvios’ “Ethics is the science of human morals, which aims at the rational acting of virtue”, N. Vamvas, however, begins from two ethical authorities, that is God and the rational, while Veniamin accepts that the two authorities that govern practical philosophy are logic and perception through the senses. The notion of God plays a primary role in the ethical thought of N. Vamvas while for V. Lesvios God manages the ethical matters. N. Vamvas describes the obligations of man towards God and his worship, before he deals with the obligations of the individual as a member of a social group.  

K. Koumas firstly divides ethics into Pure and Applied and while in the first ideas and theories concerning ethics are included, the second introduces the practical aspect of ethics as it is presented through actions and relations of the individual in the perceivable world. He also interprets the problem of obligations in the framework of the individuals’ sociability, which is mainly characterized by philanthropy, the obligation is: “everything we should or shouldn’t do, respecting the value of the individual *in ourselves*”. The individual’s dignity, which also defines the obligations, depends on logic and freedom. In K. Koumas we find a correspondence between obligations and rights, as we do in V. Lesvios’ work. The obligations towards other people are identified as obligations towards society: the protection of the other’s life, financial help, participation in the propagation of education, in the propagation of faith. He also separates the obligations of friendship and the social obligations, which are separated into obligations of “domestic” society and obligations of political society, in which patriotism and cosmopolitanism are included. Koumas’ definition of the obligation of the individual towards the self is interesting: “To always safeguard his humanity, in all his relationships in his life, that is not to refuse his own value as a rational and free being”.  

A common characteristic of the way obligations are dealt with by Veniamin, as well as by N. Vamvas and K. Koumas is the mutuality between the individuality and the sociability of the individual. At this point we can perhaps see two parts of ethics with respect to the consequences of an action, good or bad, or of intention, good or bad. The educators debate.

in a developmental manner on the “reason of applied ethics”, we could say that they support the definition of ethics based on the teleological ethics, mainly in the middle of the 19th century and in deontological ethics at the end of the 18th and the beginning of the 19th century. Teleological ethics concern the judging of actions based on their result, that is the good or bad result, while deontological ethics concern the judging of an action based on its good or bad intention (mood)33, examples of which we can find in Veniamin Lesvios’s work.

We will, perhaps, come to the conclusion that the result of teaching these handbooks was the limitation of the intense emotional expressions of the individual with a simultaneous inclusion in the social whole, forming the identity of the citizen, firstly through individuality and then through sociability.

With regard to the dimension of gender, we can observe the following: The style of the texts clearly shows us that the recipients of the ethical theories are the boys who are students, though no explicit mention is made for girl students. The term that is used in all the texts is the word “individual” [“ἄνθρωπος”] which is identified with man. When reference is made about women, it is identified with the role of women within the family. More specifically, in V. Lesvios’s work, emphasis is placed on the role of the mother as the social role of women. This can be confirmed by the following:

a) In a later edition of “Applied Ethics” which was published in Athens in 1862, titles: “Stories of applied ethics”, in the examples, reference is made to female “models” only in specific categories [six from the total of 24]: chapter 3 Concerning virtuousness and leniency “Catherine de Medici’s”, chapter 13 Concerning patriotism “ Spartan Women”, chapter 16 Concerning love between spouses “Xeilonis”-“Duchess”, chapter 21 Concerning prudence “Women Fokionos», chapter 23 Concerning bad language “Roman someone”, chapter 24 Concerning bad manners “Semiramis the Assyrian”. Furthermore, the fact that there is a chapter titles “Concerning sons’ love” is underlined.

b) In 1880 a handbook titled “Obligations of the wife, for the use of Girl’s Schools (Parthenagogia)” is published. This clearly defines the social role of girl students, which is mainly restricted to the family and the home.

Conclusively, from the handbooks of ethics that were published at the end of the 18th century and in the beginning of the 19th century, it becomes clear that for the representatives of the Enlightenment, Ethics is directly connected to the attribute of the citizen and, for this reason, is identified with the male gender. The social role of women is defined at first and is then clarified with details only with respect to the family and the upbringing of children.

**Brief biographies**

Professor Dr. Sidiroula Ziogou – Karastergiou

She has taught at the Faculty of Philosophy (at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels), in Interdisciplinary undergraduate and postgraduate programs of Gender Studies at AUTH and at the Aegean University, in Schools of training for teachers and elsewhere in

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the following areas: History of Educational Ideas, Approaches to the Study of Local Educational History, Gender and Education, Approaches to the History of Women's Education, The Gender Dimension in Further Education and Lifetime Learning, Making Teachers Aware of Gender Issues. She has supervised a lot of postgraduate and doctorate theses.

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He is a Post doc. Researcher in the Faculty of Philosophy at Aristotle University of Thessaloniki and Professor in secondary education. His specialization and research interests touch the History of Education in relation to the Church and Ecumenical Patriarchate in Thessaloniki, Macedonia and in the entire Hellenism during the ottoman domination. His study also concerns the organization of the Education, the problems that arose and the way these problems were surmounted. His interests touch also Ethics and especially handbooks of Morality in Greek education at the 18th and 19th centuries.
The contribution of School Principal of Secondary Education in the induction of novice teachers in Greece

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Abstract
This study attempts to investigate the contribution of school Principals in the induction of novice teachers in the Region of Thessaly, Greece. Data were obtained from a questionnaire administrated to 246 school Principals of Secondary Education in autumn 2010. Based on the 173 filled questionnaires of school Principals and the review of extant literature, the following findings were established: a) There is a discrepancy between the personal opinion of the Principals and the daily practice at schools. So, although there is availability and willingness from principal’s side to support the induction of novice teachers, in daily practice obstacles occur preventing them from making their desire come true. b) Women Principals compared with men Principals exhibit smaller discrepancy between theoretical point of view and what they actually do.

Keywords: principal, induction, new teachers, professional development

1. Introduction
1.1 New Teacher's Induction and Challenges
Flores & Day, 2006). As academic studies prove to be insufficient for a new teacher to enter in educational field without any other support and pre-service training doesn’t mean automatically successful teaching in the classroom, it is important for the novice to be supported in many ways in his earlier career (Korthagen et al., 2006). Teacher’s professional identity is created mostly by experiences at the beginning of the career while influenced by already formed personality (Rots et al., 2007). Good experiences can give a newly qualified teacher a sense of confidence in his abilities, encourage him in creative and productive way and build up resilience when encountering difficult situations or facing complex dilemmas (Wang et al., 2008). Recent studies focus their interest on the impact of school principals on induction process of beginning teachers and pinpoint how critical principals’ contribution is in their professional development (Wood, 2005; Tilman, 2005). The purpose of this study was to investigate the contribution of school principal of Secondary Education in the induction of novice teachers in Greece.

New teachers’ induction intends to facilitate their integration in school, helps them to know the school environment and people working in this, and gives information on educational issues, such as curriculum, lesson plans, resources etc. (Anthopoulos, 1999; Katsoulakis, 1999). Induction is the transition from pre-service training to the practice of the profession, from student status to teacher status (Fanti & McDougall, 2009); a socialization process, which helps novices to understand better educational praxis, to realize deepen teacher’s role, to practice their craft and improve teaching (Cherian & Daniel, 2008). Induction

1 This study was conducted during the master program "Management and Administration in Education" by THE DEPARTMENT OF PRIMARY EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF THESSALY.
programs are supportive investigations and well-planned events for new teachers, that’s why many principals provide a structured program to promote their sustainable, based on school life, professional development (Breux & Wong, 2003). In many countries there is a lack in induction programs (Johnson & Kardos, 2005); as result new teachers often have difficulty in managing the behavior of students or their diverse needs, difficulty in working with colleagues or dealing with conflicts with parents, stress, burnout and isolation, as well as retention problems. Recent studies have pointed that 30-50% of new teachers are leaving the profession during the first five years (Smith & Ingersoll 2004). Without adequate professional support many teachers appear to be frustrated by unsuccessful attempts to understand formal and informal school culture, to build relationships with school leaders and colleagues or to manage student behavior, what often leads to disengagement and work retirement (Fantilli & McDougall, 2009; Ulvik et al., 2009).

Induction programs can give the impression the teacher has the ability to pursue successfully; can serve as a sign of acceptance and recognition; can cultivate the belief he belongs to the school community or even afford the possibility for further instructional growth (Angelle, 2006). According to Perez et al. (1997), interactive practices such as holding portfolios, making discussions, mentoring or networking, lead to effective support of new teacher’s induction. Such a program should last at least one year in order for the novice to get in contact with all aspects of school life during the year (Hoy & Spero, 2005). Successful induction requires collective responsibility with the principal to keep the lead (Wood, 2005).

Hoy and Spero (2005) describe first year in teaching as critical for teachers’ efficacy. Positive experiences in this year make new teachers more dedicated to teaching and committed to work while teachers who haven’t a successful first period put less effort and leave more easily the profession; certified teachers feel better prepared than the others (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007).

1.2 The Principal’s Contribution in Induction and Professional Development of Novice Teachers

A school leader has to cultivate a supportive learning environment, to provide resources, to evaluate teachers with a sense of certainty, to retain and develop high qualified teachers (Pashiardis, 2004). If a school principal is oriented to people’s needs and the staff has the feeling he is standing next to it, he listens to it, praises or appreciates it, and shows this in practice all these can be integral to successful induction of novice teachers. Furthermore the principal is the critical agent who emphasizes activities for new teachers’ professional development such us participation in decision making, exchange of good practices, visits to other schools, action research, working groups etc. (Gale & Densmore, 2003).

Principals should encourage new teachers to develop their own professional identity while maintaining a balance between autonomy and participation in the educational community. If the balance leans towards total autonomy, it may soon become a routine, rigid adherence to practice and lead to privatization of the classroom or even to isolation (Sergiovanni, 1996, ref. in Watkins, 2005). School principals arrange for maintaining this balance by promoting young educators’ participation in a professional community of colleagues working toward common goals and make decisions based on shared experiences. This professional community has a powerful effect on teachers’ ability to function effectively in the classroom and adopt teaching strategies that best meet students’ needs; most important, this community must be willing to accept values and ideas expressed by new teachers and
foster an equal relationship between experienced and non-experienced teachers (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1996; Feiman-Nemser, 2003). Recent studies focus their interest on the impact of school principals on induction process of beginning teachers and pinpoint how critical principals’ contribution is in their professional development (Wood, 2005; Tilman, 2005). School leaders are diligent for training and developing a supportive learning environment and responsible for facilitating the transition of young educators from academic studies or other jobs into the educational setting. Throughout this process, principals are expected to identify positive instructional skills of new teachers and support them dealing with their daily problems (Gimbert & Fultz, 2009). Principals should rather involve new teachers in the decision-making process in order not to become disconnected from school goals or isolated from pedagogical discussion. They have to prevent novices from relegating to a role of passive observer, support them to take place to collegial discussion and learning among experienced staff and extend innovative practice (Watkins, 2005). If principals cultivate an authentic sense of caring among teachers, they are expected to show professional care for their students in the same way (Cherian & Daniel, 2008).

Gimbert & Fultz’s (2009) study has revealed four themes related to specific actions of principals, which positively influence the induction and retention of novice teachers: relationships, expectations, perceptions and professional development.

Regarding relations, principals must be actively present in the school, available to assist in any needs or concerns novices have, and build relations of trust. New teachers should be encouraged to submit questions, considering that additional questions are not a sign of weakness but rather a tool for professional development, so principals have to reinforce in every way what increases teachers’ competence (Kardos et al., 2001). They can provide support directly to teachers by visiting classrooms, reviewing lesson plans, providing feedback of effective teaching strategies or helping novices set reasonable goals (Angelle, 2006). Effective leaders are responsible for promoting and maintaining a positive school culture, help young teachers to adapt to and participate actively in this. If novices understand the dynamic of school culture, they can integrate in it and function as members of it, fulfilling the wish to belong to the school staff (Wood, 2005).

Regarding expectations, principals have to assist information and express clear articulated instructions to young educators. If new teachers understand their roles and responsibilities, know exactly what is expected of them and work in an environment that constantly repeats these expectations, they are more likely to increase commitment to their duties and effectiveness at work (Angelle, 2006).

Highlighting principals’ perceptions about novices, literature emphasizes that they must have realistic requirements about new teachers’ employment performance. Furthermore, principals with positive attitudes assist new teachers’ professional development and empower their classroom instructions. According to Cheng & Cheung (2004) new teachers feel more successful if their self-perception aligns with the perception of their principals; they also feel more accepted by their colleagues when it is obvious that the principal accepts them initially and recognizes them (Jackson, 2008, ref. in Gimbert & Fultz, 2009).

Finally, centers professional development, at those already have been reported, such as supporting collegial work, facilitating young teachers to participate in training seminars or cultivating a learning community, we can add principal’s implementation of meaningful mentoring programs and their ability in pairing new teachers with experienced mentors (Johnson & Kardos, 2005).
Novice educators often notice pure quality of support from principal’s side, as key factor on building up problems or leaving the profession (Roberston et al., 2006; Richards, 2004). Other sides it is important to note that principals face unprecedented pressures to promote quality and improvement of the school; if they want to achieve this goal they must primarily rely on professional expertise of veteran teachers and not in the inexperience of novices. Among the two edges principals should keep a balance. Furthermore, educational districts have to encourage and support principal’s participation in developing inductions programs through regulations and statutes (Carver, 2003).

Principals, as educational leaders are responsible for ensuring that a culture of induction and support is integrated within their schools! They have the responsibility to reduce all these elements of school structure that present impediments to new teacher’s successful induction (Cherian & Daniel, 2008).

Finally, we have to mention Carver’s (2003:2) major core tasks for principals to support new teachers’ induction which are: “a. providing site orientation and reviewing key policies and procedures of the school, b. managing the school environment, c. building relationships between principals and teachers, d. fostering professional development and e. facilitating a supportive school environment”.

In conclusion, principals should not assume new teachers’ support as an additional aspect of their work but rather they should incorporate various combinations of abovementioned strategies willingly and naturally into their daily routines; new teachers’ support should be just part of their work!

1.3 The Greek Context

In the Greek education the mechanism of new teachers’ induction doesn’t actually exist. According to the law, a new teacher takes up his duties the first day he/she goes to school; he begins teaching in the classroom without any support, disappointed by the large number of students, learning difficulties students have or the lack of guidance (Anthopoulou, 1999). Two years later, the novice teacher becomes a permanent employee based on evaluation reports by the school principal and the school counselor; he is centrally hired by the Ministry of Education, Lifelong Learning and Religion (Presidential Decree 140/98). During the first two years the novice teacher is required to attend a 100 hour induction training program (Presidential Decree 145/97). Mentorship is also established by Law 3848/2010. The school principal and school counselor should define an appropriate mentor to support the novice in his duties; however this has not been introduced yet.

In the Greek educational system, school principal is responsible to ensure the smooth overall operation of the school; he is administrator as well as educational leader (Decision Φ353/1/324/105657/Δ1/8-10-2002). Pursuant to Article 27, the school principal guides and assists teachers in their work, especially novices, undertaking educational initiatives and being a good example himself.

Despite the institutionalization of non-specific framework for novice teachers "nothing prevents the school principal to ensure that new teachers receive the support they deserve" (Anthopoulou, 1999:52). In Thanou’s study (2009) novice teachers of Secondary Education express a difference of opinions regarding principal’s ability to support them in their job, to help them develop their own professional identity or to function effectively in the classroom. On the other hand, studies of Mavridou (2009) and Lazarou (2005), that

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2On Carver’s core tasks was based the questionnaire of this research tailored to the Greek educational reality.
investigated school principals of Primary Education, report that principals try to be friendly to new teachers and cooperative with them. They, also, try to develop a relationship of trust and have an open door in order novice ones to find support for any problem that arises. They help young teachers to participate actively in the school environment and school culture and reinforce their professional development.

2. The study

2.1. Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to investigate the contribution of school principal of Secondary Education in induction of novice teachers. More precisely, an attempt was made to investigate the intent (attitudes) and the practical support of principals in new teachers’ induction in the categories of a. providing side orientation and reviewing key policies and procedures of the school; b. managing the school environment; c. building relationships between principals and teachers; d. fostering professional development of new teachers and e. facilitating a supportive school environment.

The underlying research questions for this study were as follows:

A. Which are the attitudes of school principals in induction of new teachers in the categories of providing side orientation, managing the school environment, building relationships, fostering professional development of new teachers and facilitating a supportive school environment?

B. Which are the practices of school principals in induction of new teachers in the relevant categories?

C. Are there any differences in the relevant categories between attitudes and practices?

D. Is any correlation of demographic and professional characteristics of principals with their attitudes, practices and the difference between attitudes and practices?

E. Is any correlation of school characteristics (type of school, number of students, region) with the attitudes and practices of school principals?

2.2. Methodology, Research Design and Sample

In this study a quantitative analysis was selected as the method of approach. Quantitative analysis gives the opportunity to have a representative sample from a geographically extensive population, looks forward to find relationships between considerate factors and categories, and affords the generalization of results.

As research instrument it was used a questionnaire based on the core tasks Carver has set in her own research. These core tasks are the major for principals to support new teacher’s induction. The questionnaire of our study was constructed on Carver’s core tasks tailored to the Greek educational reality. This questionnaire consists of 9-items on demographic characteristics and 37-items with closed questions, which represent the five major categories of principals’ support on new teacher’s induction. The intention of this questionnaire was to measure attitudes (personal view) of school principals in the perception and induction of new teachers in the categories:

- providing site orientation and reviewing key policies and procedures of the school
- managing the school environment
building relationships between principals and teachers
fostering professional development
facilitating a supportive school environment
as well as practices (daily practice) in the above categories.

Answers were given twice: two five-point Likert type scales were set side by side; one for attitudes (5=absolutely agree, 4=agree, 3=ambivalent, 2=disagree, 1=absolutely disagree) and one for practice (it happens: 5=very, 4=enough, 3=moderately, 2=little, 1=any).

In order to ensure the credibility of the research instrument a pilot study of 20 school principals has taken place (reliability was tested).

The sample comprised 246 principals in public schools of the Secondary Education in the educational district of the Prefecture of Thessaly. The questionnaires were sent via school e-mail to each principal after telephone contact and agreement from the principal’s side. Principals were asked to answer all the questions honestly according to their personal beliefs and practices, since there was no right or wrong answer. They were also assured that their anonymity would be protected.

Data were collected from 2 November 2010 until 3 December 2010. The response rate was 70% (173 completed Questionnaires have been send back via e-mail or post-office).

Descriptive statistics was performed at the beginning for analyzing data. Normality was checked with the Smirnov-Kolmogorov test. Next derived variables per category of questions were created, based on the average scores of questions in each section. Responses were assessed on a five-point Likert type scale. For demographic job characteristics of the participants the median was taken as a measure of central tendency for qualitative variables. Inferential statistics (hypothesis testing) was carried out by applying parametric methods. The level of statistical significance was set at p = 0.05. Paired t-test, t-test for independent samples and ANOVA were applied, depending on indication. To further analyze differences between subgroups Scheffe’s post-hoc test was used. Correlation of basic variables with Pearson’s test was performed. All tests were two-tailed.

2.3. Findings

77.5% of school principals were men. This reflects the gender demographics of secondary education school principals in the Prefecture of Thessalia-Greece. Most of the principals had a working experience over 25 years. The average number in school administration was 5.1 years. Principals’ average age was 53.85±4.34 years for men and 53.1±4.25 years for women. The majority of principals were university graduates (99.4%). 9.8% of them had two bachelor’s degrees, 13.9% had a master’s degree and only two persons (1.2%) had a doctoral. Regarding the characteristics of the school, favorite type was the secondary high school of small towns (under 100,000 citizens), with an average potential of 100 to 250 students.

Major finding of this study was that statistically significant differences between attitudes and practices were observed in every question of the five categories, with attitudes to have higher scores than practices. Score in "attitudes" superior score to "practice" to all questions. This confirms the hypothesis that there is a discord between what school

3 In Greece there is three years secondary high school and three years senior high school or technical school.
principals believe and what they actually do in perception and induction of novice teachers. The categories of “building relationships between principals and teachers” and “facilitating a supportive school environment” attracted the highest average scores on the scale of attitudes (median 4.37 and 4.31 respectively) while the category “providing site orientation and reviewing key policies and procedures of the school” the lowest one (median 4.02).

The highest average score in the Likert scale regarding practice of school principals was obtained in the category “Building relationships between principals and new teachers” (3.32). The lowest score obtained by the category of “fostering professional development” (graphs 1 & 2). The two consecutive high average scores were found in 1.1 question “Welcome to the new workplace and facilitate the new teachers’ induction” (4.76±0.47 for attitudes and 3.98±0.85 for practice) and 3.4 question “Growing relationships of trust” (4.69±0.55 for attitudes and 3.97 ±0.79 for practice). The lowest scores were observed in 1.7 question “Assignment only limited extra duties and responsibilities” (2.85±1.21 for attitudes and 2.20±1.09 for practice) and 4.7 question “Visit new teachers’ classroom and feedback them” (3.06±1.31 for attitudes and 1.69±1.008 for practice).

Graph 1. Personal attitude scale performance

Graph 2. Everyday practice scale performance
A strong statistical correlation was observed between the variable “Providing Site Orientation” (attitudes) and other variables. Principals, who had more than 4 years in school administration believed to have better relationship with new teachers, us the others. Another important finding was that by women principals, there was less difference between attitudes and practice, compared to men. Apart from the category “Providing Site Orientation”, a statistically significant difference between men and women was observed in the rest categories of practice. Women’s score in the Likert scale was higher than men’s score in every question. The difference in mean value ranged from 0.4 the highest ["Managing the school environment” (practice)] to 0.32 the lowest ["Facilitating a supportive school environment” (practice)]. The differences between men and women on the scale of daily practice are illustrated in Graph 3.

**Graph 3. Statistically significant differences between men and women in the categories of everyday practice questions**
The number of school students was correlated significantly with the categories of “Fostering Professional Development” (attitudes) and “Facilitating a supportive school environment” (attitudes) with principals of small schools to have more negative terms than those of larger schools. These two categories were also associated significantly with the school district. In addition, principals of urban schools show more positive attitudes by fostering professional development and facilitating a supportive school context than the others. Thus, we can say that small and distant from the city schools are not so conductive to professional development of new teachers.

Regarding the “Fostering of professional Development” scale, a statistic significant difference was observed between Senior High Schools and Technical Schools. Principals in Technical schools had a lower attitude-practice difference in comparison with their counterparts in Senior High Schools.

In summary, statistically significant results were found as follows:

1. A difference between attitudes and practices by school principals was found in every category, as well as in every question.
2. Attitudes and practices performed by women principals were in higher agreement than those performed by men principals.
3. Principals of multipurpose schools located in large urban centers had more positive attitudes in promoting the professional development of new teachers.
4. The attitudes-practice difference appeared lower by principals in Technical Schools than by those in Senior High Schools, although in both cases principals had a positive view of what should happen.

3. Discussion

The results of this research confirm the hypotheses originally set, namely the impact of certain factors in the perception and induction of new teachers, as well as the difference
between attitudes and practices by school principals. This discord demonstrates how difficult for principals is to realize their intentions and desires. A number of adverse circumstances prevent them from achieving completely the educational goal, namely the new teacher’s induction, which in turn contributes school improvement and effectiveness.

Principal’s perceptions (attitudes) on supporting new teacher’s induction are quite high on the Likert scale in every category. Principals consider that the initial induction is a very important period for teachers, which influences their instructional development, determines their effectiveness and shapes their professional identity (Flores & Day, 2006; Fantilli & McDougall, 2009). They underline the importance of their role in this induction (Gimbert & Fultz, 2009), focusing on clearly articulated expectations for teachers, a supportive school environment and school culture, an existing learning community, and a shared language around a common mission (Wood, 2005; McCann et al., 2005). Recognizing the lack of experience of novices, principals are willing to offer support, cooperation and a professional relationship with them, in order to promote their development in the profession (Wang et al., 2008; Kardos et al., 2001). They encourage novices to work together or with colleagues in a collaborative environment, which will support new teachers’ induction and retention in their early career and give them the opportunity to exchange experiences, to develop instructional skills, to participate in decision-making process (Meyers et al., 2001), to adopt teaching strategies, which more effectively meet student needs, to grow up relations of trust, and to feedback them (Watkins, 2005).

Effective principals support the cultivation of a school environment that encourages novices to take control of teaching and set high expectations for performance and students achievement as well as for their mental health (Sergiovanni, 1996, ref. in Watkins, 2005; Wong, 2004). They believe that the induction process contributes new educators’ professional development, so they try to support teachers collaboration and facilitate opportunities for instructional training (Gimbert & Fultz, 2009; Wood, 2005), while trying to create a collaborative learning environment and foster a collegial culture among staff (Feiman-Nemser, 2001). Based on the findings of this study, principals of multipurpose schools in large urban centers promote new teacher’s professional development more than the others.

The abovementioned principals’ desire to support new teachers’ induction is being implemented only partially in practice. The average score in practice in Likert scale was lower than this in attitudes in all categories. The lower score, however, doesn’t mean a lack of actions from the principals’ aspect but rather a non-systematic execution of the duties and operations that principals have to complete.

The highest average score in the Likert scale regarding practice of school principals was obtained in the category “Building relationships between principals and new teachers”, maybe because principals consider developing a good working relationship depends entirely on their own actions and behavior, so they do their best to implement what profess. They try to build confidence by using communication skills that promote an open dialogue, in which questions or concerns can freely express (Kardos et al., 2001). Realizing the inexperience of young educators they try to have realistic expectations, to recognize them and reward new teachers’ performances (Gimbert & Fultz, 2009).

The attitudes – practice difference is in line with the findings of the study of the Greek National Centre for Educational Research (Koutouzis, 2008)⁴. This research has also

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⁴ This research has been presented in an article in the newspaper "Kathimerini" (24-6-2007), entitled "School principals without vision" on the website...
showed that only few principals implement in practice the educational goals of the school. The reasons are said to be time spent on bureaucratic procedures and operational problems on daily revolver issues. 87.5% of school principals in the mentioned study report their main concern is to fulfill all the vacant posts of teachers and ensure educational specificities in all modules at the beginning of the school year and during the school period. In addition, in many schools there is a lack of secretarial services that makes operations such as keeping a record in the school, extremely time-consuming for principals.

Therefore, processing of school routine and bureaucracy abstract principal’s valuable time, that could be devoted to the productive communication and collaboration between them and new teachers and their adequately prepare to teach in the classroom (Fantilli & McDougall, 2009).

Despite these dysfunctional circumstances, principals are required to mobilize instructional development, provide opportunities to establish a collaborative school climate and achieve teachers’ induction as possible. In this attempt they have to undertake initiatives, set educational goals, build on experiences from different schools and educational systems, exploit on extra knowledge of languages, and new technology and implement skills gained in graduate or postgraduate level (Watkins, 2005). However, the results of this study demonstrate that only a small percentage of principals had an additional degree or postgraduate diploma. A noteworthy and maybe not independent finding of the Greek National Centre for Educational Research, is that only few principals set educational goals in school, such as limiting the release of school students, integrating students with diverse needs (special needs, different ethnicity or religion) or implementing innovative programs and activities (Koutouzis, 2008). However, effective schools need principals, who will take the personal responsibility to make sure targets will succeed, use ingenuity to overcome difficulties, and develop problem-solving skills through everyday life and experience. As an indicative finding of this study older principals have more positive terms in the category of “managing the school environment,” while principals with more than four years in administration believe to have better relationship with novice teachers than the others. Additional qualifications, also, seem to help principals to understand better the nature of school problems or difficulties in organizational management and to form a more realistic view of things (principals with additional studies showed less enthusiastic in the categories of “managing the school environment” and “building relationships between principals and new teachers”).

In this study attitudes and practices performed by women principals were in higher agreement than those performed by men principals. This may be related to the way men and women organize their life and build relationships. As Gilligan (1990, referred in Noba-Kaltsoni, 1995) says, “connect with others” seems to be the most important value-orientation in the socialization process of women while “distance and social achievement” plays a more significant role in men’s value-orientation. Women tend to identify moral with responsibility and obligations towards others, with altruism as a key component of their moral code (Gilligan 1990, as above). According to the survey of Normore and Jean

http://news.kathimerini.gr/4dcgi/_w_articles_ell_1_24/06/2007_231729.

5 In addition, research findings of Kouloumparits (no date) and Christodoulou (2007) demonstrate, that principals declare they spent much and valuable time on bureaucratic procedures as well as in resolving operational problems of the school such as deficiencies in supplies or damage repair in buildings.

6 This finding agrees with the equivalent of Kouloumparits’ study: a total of 97 principals of Primary, Secondary and Technical - Vocational Education, only 7 held a master's degree, of which 3 had a doctoral.
Marie (2008), women principals adopt practices aimed at reduction of differences and respect for diversity; they connect theory with practice and implement participatory processes. Women are socialized to show their feelings and emotions; to care for others; to judge outcomes based on their impact on relationships. Women principals are more participative and collaborative and value close relationships with colleagues, students, parents and other school members (Marshall & Wand, 2004). According to the results of our study we cannot say that women are better principals than men—only that they seem to realize their desires to a greater extent compared to men.

The attitudes-practice difference appeared lower by principals in Technical Schools than by those in Senior High Schools, although in both cases principals had a positive view of what should happen. Maybe in Senior High Schools the academic guidance of students raises greater expectations by principals, which can not correspond to the final result (in Technical Schools there isn’t such a pressure for high academic performance of students).

4. Conclusion

Concluding, new teachers’ induction meets multiple problems focusing on objective factors, incorrect actions of principals or lack of “administration training” and “management of human resources”. The fact that the dimension between attitudes and practice occurs in all categories leads us to the hypothesis that a very important role plays, if the principal considers himself as an “educational leader” or just manager and if he, also, looks the school as a unit, which not only applies the above settings educational reforms and tries to function properly, but furthermore is responsible and willing to make changes; an educational leader should have a vision to transfer to his colleagues (Bourandias, 2010; Bush, 2009).

Indicative, however, is the conclusion of Christodoulou’s research (2007), that principal’s profile hasn’t change the last 10 years in Greece, although the general legal framework governing principals until 2002 gives an added bonus for science instructions and qualifications of school principals.

Regarding new teachers’ induction findings in practice field show much remains to be done. Principals’ answers in practice field should be placed within the economic and social situation of Greece the time it surveyed, with many changes in school administration and teachers’ status to take place (for example unit of small schools, reduction of recruitment, reduce salaries or further changes in the structure of Secondary Education’s school). In this perspective, principals’ responses may partly reflect low expectations or general the social situation and not a lack of support in the induction of new teachers. In all cases, however, the discord between attitudes and practice points that principals have realized there is a problem by novices’ induction.

The findings of this study reflect attitudes and practices of school principals in Secondary Education in Prefecture of Thessaly and not in whole Greece. In urban centers or in schools with better working conditions and better resources results may differ, so it would be risky to make any generalization. This research, however, is a first try to record trends, beliefs and practices of school principals in Greece according to new teacher’s induction. This research could be an opportunity for a new study which will further investigate the causes of discord between attitudes and practices of school principals in perception and induction of novice teachers.
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Brief biographies

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