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A contrastive insight into some English problematic sounds for the Albanian students of EFL

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to identify the difficult sounds and phonemes, the EFL Albanian students encounter during their language learning. By presenting the physiology of the sounds pronunciation and articulation, the Albanian students become aware of the non-compliant features for some problematic English sounds, which either differ in their articulation or do not exist at all in the sound system of their native language. Based on the long experience of English phonetics and Phonology teaching to EFL students at the Faculty of Education and Philology, we undertook this comparative study to describe the theoretical background of these sounds articulation in order to minimize students’ difficulties in learning pronunciation and to help them acquire good command of English language. Despite being a descriptive paper, we strongly believe that it will serve as a reference material not only for Albanian students, but also for teachers of EFL in other countries to build similar patterns of contrastive insight between English sounds and the respective native language of their students.

Keywords: sound articulation, teaching pronunciation, organs of speech, comparative study, phonological incompatibility.

1. Introduction

Teaching pronunciation is one of the most complicated, and at the same time a vital aspect of a foreign language acquisition. This seems to justify the reason why, due to the lack of attention in teaching pronunciation, it is called the “Cinderella” of language teaching”. (Thanasoulas, 2003)

Teachers feel comfortable when they teach their students how to read, write and listen properly. Actually, their target, teaching the above main skills, lacks pronunciation which, due to the often low level of emphasis placed on this very important skill, makes them limit themselves to just some insufficient advice and a mere explanation of the kind “It sounds like this…..”.

There is also another negative tendency to correct sound pronunciation. The judging attitude teachers have in matters of speech, deprives them of understanding the fact that if a student is to learn how to pronounce correctly segments or supra-segments, he or she should previously be provided with a correct model. If the patterned pronunciation is not clearly heard or received, so if there is no correct reception, the student tends to
convert it into the closest sound in his mother tongue. This constitutes a source of wrong “maternalized” pronunciations. (Dalton, 1997)

Nowadays teachers should focus on the fact that sounds and prosodic pronunciation play a crucial role in the process of communication, since they lay the bases of a successful communication. (Celce – Murcia, Brinton & Goodwin, 1996)

Actually, everyday communication may witness misunderstanding situations rising up from mispronunciation. As a result, there is inhibited comprehension by the speaker, or disorientation on the listener’s behalf.

In matters of terminology, it is to be accepted that, for a student, in our case an Albanian learner of EFL, the term “correctness”, is not the same with the norms of native English speakers or the rules stated by the Received Pronunciation. For the former it would imply “a commonly acceptable way of speaking a word”. (American Heritage Dictionary, 3rd, 1992) It implies that most Albanian learners of English as a foreign language tend to pronounce their utterances in English not to acquire a native like accent, but to be intelligible in their communication with other speakers of English (natives or not). They feel confident on the quality of their pronunciation of the English sounds, as long as this helps them communicate properly (even when the English sounds they articulate involve a lot of patterns, qualities and pronunciation features of the Albanian sound system).

Preliminary knowledge on some important elements of English phonetics and phonology would help Albanian teachers avoid most of the problems they might come across in their teaching pronunciation. This can be best provided by a comparative analysis of both languages phonology and examples of specific difficulties, Albanian students encounter in learning English pronunciation. Once recognizing the confusing issues, teachers can select useful information on how to make pronunciation classes effective and enjoyable at the same time. Though this study precisely deals with some difficulties the Albanian students encounter while learning English, we think that it could be widely implemented as a teaching model by teachers of English as a Foreign Language in different countries.

2. A comparative study of English and Albanian sounds

Teaching sound pronunciation in a foreign language involves some steps. According to Cecle-Murcia, the teacher should first identify the problematic sounds or wrong sound articulations. He/she should, afterwards, provide students with an assimilating and meaningful context of their usage and encourage practice by involving them in communication tasks. Thirdly, he/she should extend the range of practicing contexts for sounds that are not easily acquired by students. (Celce-Murcia, 1987)

This article aims at helping Albanian teachers overpass the first step that of finding the root of the articulation problem and then understand the range of differences that the sounds offer in both languages. Once having recognized these, they can easily provide suitable contexts of difficult articulations in both languages.

- Long vowels

Long English vowels [iː, aː, ɔː, uː], constitute an acquisition difficulty for Albanian students. Even though they are clearly identifiable in comparison with short vowels, due to their articulating peculiarities (when articulated on their own) their articulation in normal speech lacks obvious length. This is because the length of sounds in English language, including consonants, varies according to the context of occurrence (the
sounds following or preceding it), as well as the presence or absence of stress. (Roach 1983, 17)

If phonetic rules were stated as a whole, Albanian students learning EFL would lack the will, either to remember, or provide practical use of that theory. This is why, traditionally, teachers have either preferred to provide models of sounds by themselves and then ask students to repeat, or made facial diagrams, by drawing attention on peculiar positions of certain organs of speech involved in their pronunciation. An example of the first one would be providing distinguishing patterns of the kind:

to leave [li:v] versus to live [liv]

Substituting a long sound for a short one, or vice-versa, in the above examples would result in misunderstanding speech messages.

This peculiarity is encountered even in Albanian language. Albanian sounds as their English counterparts, can be short, middle or long, based on the muscle tension of the speech organs. However, these physiological factors do not constitute important features of the standard speech sounds. Except for some dialects, the length of Albanian vowels and consonants, has no functional value, therefore, it would not distinguish words as it does in English. (Memushaj, 2006)

Furthermore, the fact that English vowel length depends much on their position in a word, followed by voiced or voiceless consonants, or being final, (Fromkin, & Rodman, 1974) complicates the understanding of the sound articulation for an Albanian student. Since he/she is not used to, he/she does not recognize any difference in the length between the vowel sounds in the English words bet [bet] and bed [bed]. The vowel [e] in bed is longer than the one in bet. (Dobos, 2001, 47) If the following sound is voiced, the vowel that proceeds tends to be longer in English. In everyday speech, this peculiarity is not grasped due to the presence of the following consonant. This is why not only students, but even most teachers neglect the correct pronunciation.

- The vowel sound [æ]

The main difficulty with this sound is its being transcribed by a completely unknown symbol for the Albanian student. Therefore, while explaining the sound, the teacher should also make students understand its particular articulation. According to the position, the form and the section of the tongue taking part in its articulation, this sound is classified in English as a short, frontal and open vowel. (Roach, 1983, 15)

Such an explanation would not satisfy the need an Albanian student has to articulate it as it should. The teacher should demonstrate by making the student understand that the English [æ] is a weird combination of organs of speech involved in the articulation of two well-known sounds [a] and [e]. Actually, the lips are kept in the position of [a] and the back of the tongue in that of [e]. If shown the chart of English vowel classification, the students may understand why the vowel [æ] is between [a] and [e]. And if they are given a number of words in which it occurs, like man [mæn], lamb [læm], gas [gæz], chat [tʃæt], ect, they will remember that the sound never occupies a final position in English, which is not the case in the case of the Albanian ones.

- The vowel sound [ə] (schwa) ("The New Collins Concise Dictionary of the English Language")
The vowel sound [ə] is frequently used in English due to the reinforcing function it has. It accompanies weak or unstressed vowels. Phoneticians recognize it as a middle and central vowel due to the resting position organs of speech take in its articulation. (Roach, 1990, 64). It does not require much articulating energy.

The inconvenience an Albanian student faces with this sound is not the difficulty of pronunciation. Even though the phonetic symbol of the sound [ə] is a completely new one for native Albanians, the articulation of the sound is recognizable, due to resemblance it has with the sound [ë]. It is classified as a half-close, middle vowel, since the tongue slightly draws back in a central position, lowering its front, by occupying all of the space beyond the lower teeth. (Memushaj, 2009, 34) The main phoneme of this sound occurs in open stressed syllables, like vë [vë] - to place, zë [zë]- voice, etc.

The main problem consists in adding it to words which reflect difficult pronunciation due to consonant groups (not commonly encountered in Albanian). For example, the word little, which is normally pronounced [litl], is undoubtedly pronounced [litəl] by an Albanian student. He would not hesitate to do almost the same even in the following words: prism [prizəm], bottom [botəm], lesson [lesən] and cattle [kætəl].

- The Albanian sounds [c], [x]

There is no phonetic symbol for the letter "c" in English. However, there is one in Albanian. It is an alveolar fricative consonant, since the tip of the tongue touches the alveolar ridge. The organs of speech get almost the same position as that of [t]. However, in the 2nd and 3rd step of the articulation, the tongue moves toward the position it takes in [s], but it is not a mechanical juxtaposition of [t] +[s]. (Memushaj, 2006, 18)

Since the sound group [ts] is not a very frequent one in English, the arguments of classifying it as a proper sound are not many. (Jones, 1939) Therefore, an Albanian student would not hesitate to read words like "pizza" [ˈpitsə]=>[pica], "tsar" [tsa:ɔ]=>[ca:r], "tsunami" [tsuˈnami]=>[cuna:mi].

However, it is worth emphasizing the fact that, despite similarities, the English [ts] and the Albanian [c] do not possess the same phonetic qualities. Like English aspirated sounds [p, t, k], the Albanian [c] has a quality of breath in its articulation, as in “ngeci” [nɡe(:)h] (to get stuck), “i cili” [ɨ(ː)li] (that), ect.

The voiced consonant, respective to [c] in Albanian is [x], classified as a fricative one. It involves almost the same above-mentioned articulation, except for the fact that the consonants involved are [d] and [z].

- The sound [l]

The position of the tongue in the articulation of this sound is the same in both languages; the center of the tongue fully blocks the teeth ridge and the air escapes laterally on its sides. Phoneticians of both languages classify it as a liquid.

The reason it is recognized as a difficult sound for Albanian students of EFL, is that in English there are two variants of articulation, which are set by the context the sound occurs in. So [l] in “lea” [liː], is not the same with the one in “eel” [iː]; the former being a clear l and the later a dark l.

In the pronunciation of the Albanian consonant /l/, the tip of the tongue slightly touches the alveolar ridge. Their contact surface is relatively small. Like consonant /l/, /ll/ is pronounced with the tip of the tongue but it touches the upper teeth exactly in the area between the upper teeth and the alveolar ridge. Thus the intensity of /ll/ is perceived to
be stronger making it a “thick” sound while /l/ is known as “thin”. On the other hand, in the articulation of /ll/, it is the back part of the tongue which is mostly involved. It is pulled back and raised towards the hard palate creating so a valorized version of it. Thus, the sounds /l/ and /ll/ are different in their pronunciation, valorization and acoustically. (Memushaj, 2009, p. 118-119)

Most Albanian teachers either neglect the difference, or ignore the position of different parts of the tongue and hard palate involved in both variants. In the articulation of the clear l the given resonance is that of [i]. It never occurs in front of a consonant, or of a pause, but always in front of a vowel. While in the pronunciation of the dark l the tip of the tongue comes between the teeth and its back withdraws opposite the soft palate. The given resonance is that of [u]. (Jones, 1939, 162) So, both are allophones of the same phoneme [l] and even though most English native speakers might not know the theory of articulation, they would recognize something unnatural in the speech of a foreigner failing to follow the rule. (Roach, 1990, 47-48)

What Albanian teachers should try hard on is to convince their students that the dark l in English is not the same sound as the consonant [ll] (in its articulation the front of the tongue touches the teeth ridge) in Albanian, which is an easy substitute for the former. Avoiding the use of the clear l in front of vowels or [i], like in “leave” [li:v] or “left” [left], is a mistake as grave as substituting [l] for [ll] in the following Albanian words “plakë” [’plakë] (an old woman) and “ pllakë” [’pllakë] (tile).

- The sound [r]

This sound presents articulation peculiarities that are worth being mentioned. Even though the organs of speech come close to each other, the passage created is not narrow enough so as to constitute a proper consonant. The tip of the tongue rises opposite the alveolar ridge without touching it. (Roach, 1990, 49)

It is this lack of contact which makes it different from the Albanian [r].

Further more, Albanian teachers of EFL should not forget that the roundness of the lips in the English [r] should not be exaggerated, otherwise it would produce a [w]. Substituting these two variants of [r] would give different phonetic connotations to speakers of both languages, resulting in a version sounding like Albanian or vice versa.

Most Albanian students learning EFL may not remember the rule that the sound [r] is only articulated before vowels, like in “red” [red], arrive [ə’raiv], hearing [’hiarin], but it is not pronounced after it or in a final position, like in car [ka:], ever [’eva], here [hia], star [sta:], near [nia], roar [ro:]. (Roach, 1990, 50) They should be taught that neglecting this, would be like substituting the Albanian [r] with [rr], bringing into light unnatural speech. ([rr] is a liquid in Albanian. It is articulated with the tongue and lips in the same position with that of the sound [r], but it involves stronger friction and a closer rising of the back of the tongue opposite the soft palate.)

- The sound [t]

The articulation of this consonant does not constitute any hardship for students of both languages. If an Albanian student fails to recognize the difference between both variants in the same phonetic context, on words “time” [taim] and “tani” [tani] (now) said in succession, they can be taught that the Albanian [t] is less dental than the English one. The main inconvenience, however, seems to be the articulation of the London [t]. Being more rounded and needing exercising force, this sound carries similar qualities with the
Albanian [ç] = [tʃ]. As such, it is conveniently replaced so as to make the speech more native (more English). Versions of [tʃu:] instead of [tu:] for the numeral “two”, are common among Albanian speakers of English in their first stages of study.

- The sound [w]

It is hard to explain to an Albanian student the formation and the phonetic function of this sound, since it is not a sound of the Albanian phonetic system. Saying that phonetically it is like a vowel, and phonologically it is like a consonant, would impede their understanding. Actually, they would hesitate to classify it as a consonant due to the vowel resonance of [u] it conveys. (The articulation of [w] involves the same parts of the tongue and hard palate involved in that [u], except that the lips are not rounded but half spread)

The acquisition would be easier if the teacher asks them to use the articles a/an or the[ðə]/[ði], in front of a noun whose initial letter is w. Normally they would say a woman due to the oral speech experience they might have had or heard so far.

- The sound [ŋ]

The sound [ŋ] is one of the three English nasal consonants [m/n/ŋ]. It is a problematic sound for Albanian people studying English as a foreign language, due to its phonetic qualities. It is not part of the Albanian sound system, but it can be acquired due to similarities with the sound group [ŋg], which is very frequent in the initial position of a considerable number of Albanian words like “ngarkoj” [ngarkoj](to load), ngre [ngre] (to raise). (It cannot occur initially in English) This sound group is considered to be a sum of [n] + [g], but in everyday speech most speakers unconsciously pronounce it [ŋ].

In teaching phonology, however, it is not enough to say that it is a velar nasal consonant. Such phonological rules would require further explanation for the Albanian student, who would remain astonished in front of transcriptions of this kind:

- finger [fiŋɡə] but singer [siŋɡə]
- anger [æŋɡə] but hanger [hæŋɡə] (Roach, 1990, 46)

“Why is there a [g] sound introduced in the first but not in the second column?” The analogy would lead them into introducing one even in the second, [siŋɡə] and [hæŋɡə], or into omitting [ŋ] altogether and substituting it with the Albanian [g]. The teacher’s task in here is to explain that the pronunciation of the words in these cases depends on a morphological analysis: sing + er and hang + er are composed of two morphemes, while the other words can not be further subdivided, finger and anger. Therefore, in a final position [ŋ] is never followed by [g], “sing” [siŋ], “bang” [bæŋ].

3. Conclusive thoughts

Phonological incompatibility, which is commonly accepted between languages, is of course a problem that hinders acquisition and somehow discourages students while learning a foreign language. Since pronunciation is not just an individual problem but it involves linguistic and social characteristics, the aim of this article was to reveal the main difficulties Albanian students would or can come across while learning EFL. Such knowledge would not only prevent learners from being confused (as the above mentioned sounds are commonly exchanged in the process of acquisition), but it may
also provide teachers with knowledge on how to make pronunciation an integrated part of their teaching process.

Phonemes are not acquired in a list. They would not be remembered for long, unless they were explained in a phonetic, linguistic and social context. The task of teachers is to unburden pronunciation from the imitating pattern of presenting a model and making students follow it. They have to make pronunciation an active element of EFL acquisition. By doing this they can not only help their students perform, but encourage them to avoid the influence of the mother tongue pronunciation.

This comparative study aims to perform the role of a connecting bridge between two different kinds of linguistic performances that both intend to be as natural as possible. Native speech, or at least Received Pronunciation, is the target of every one learning a foreign language. Failure to recognize mistakes does not help. On the contrary it deepens the gap of the above mentioned linguistic incompatibility, both teachers and students should be aware of. Knowledge in matters of phonological studies would help them not encounter speaking hardship that now can be overcome.

References


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A critical approach to the translation of Swift’s “Gulliver’s Travels” into Albanian language

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Abstract
Stylistic devices have always been writers’ best ‘tools’ not only for the degree of expressiveness they enable, but also for their effectiveness in transmitting implied messages to the reader. Jonathan Swift is one of those writers whose ‘simple and clear style’, the combination of puns, parody and irony are artfully used to imply messages, with the view of enhancing self-consciousness. This paper presents the conveyance of the stylistic elements and devices employed by Jonathan Swift in his “Gulliver’s Travels”, into the target language by the translator, Halit Selfo. Likewise, the study will focus on the techniques utilized by the translator during the process of translation with the view of creating impressive and relevant effects on and target language readership. The contrasting will be carried out by analyzing genuine instances where relevant techniques have been used with a view of transmitting the intended message from the source language to the target language readership. In the end, it will be pointed out that transposition, adaption and contextualization are some of the main devices the translator has employed conveying, in general, a message very similar to the one in the source language.

Keywords: translation process, devices, content, form

1. Introduction
Nowadays, translation and interpretation are gaining a lot of importance in every field of study. It is important to be mentioned the fact that even though we tend to transmit the content much more than the form, practice has revealed that the later, often plays an important role in acquiring the former one. Messages differ primarily in the degree to which content or form is the dominant consideration. Of course, the content of a message can never be completely abstracted from the form, and form is nothing apart from content; but in some cases the importance of the message far exceeds considerations of form. (Nida, 2000) Jonathan Swift is often criticized for being mentally insane by his contemporaries, for the issues he wrote about and the ambiguous language he used. Anyway, as it is later revealed by German researchers (Christopher Fox, 2003), almost all his writings were satires. Being a satirist, Swift’s favorite stylistic devices were parody, satire, puns, strange word order, etc which he artfully employed in raising the self-consciousness and critical thinking of his reader. Accepting a translator’s main purpose to be the conveyance of both: the direct message and the intended one, and taking into consideration the author’s style, it is undisputable the fact that all the former mentioned devices should be taken into consideration during the translation process. In this context, we are going to evaluate the extent possible Halit Selfo, the translator of the book has conveyed contextual equivalence and to what extend he has achieved to adopt the cultural differences of the two countries and those of two different epochs, during the translation process. It is important to be mentioned that the process of analysis is based on the relationship between translation theory and practice, which are bind by the
level of grammatical and lexical naturalness, and is a touchstone at every level of a text, from paragraph to word, from title to punctuation.

2. Two different approaches to translation

With reference to different theories about the process of translation there can be noted two different approaches. The first has the tendency to overestimate the role of linguistic structures in the translation process, meanwhile the communicative one is based on attempting to read the exact contextual meaning of the original, in such a way that both content and language are readily acceptable and comprehensible for him. (Newmark, 1988) Meanwhile, in his book “A Linguistic Theory of Translation” published in 1965, Catford distinguishes between ‘literal’ and ‘free’ translation. Despite these different points of view, they agree on the fact that the effect created by the translated text should be as close as possible to that in the original one, identifying the origins of the principle of equivalent effect (Newmark, 1988) or the principle of functional equivalence. Nida establishes four priorities as guiding principles in translating and bases for judgment, namely contextual consistency; dynamic equivalence over formal correspondence; the aural form of language over the written form; forms that are used by and are acceptable to the audience for which a translation is intended over forms that may be traditionally more prestigious. (Nida and Taber, 1969). Besides, the question of equivalence, as agreed by many translation theorists, is a decisive factor in disclosing the nature of translation and a criterion by which the quality of translation is judged. (Inga Arffman, 2007) Basically, the diversity of translation theories is attributed to the varied views on equivalence. Translation theorists like Nida and Newmark have paid much attention to this issue in the literature of translation theory and practice. On the one hand, according to Nida, translation strategies and devices differ when applied to terms of technical nature from those of structural and comparative nature, in relation to the accuracy and effect in the target language. A dynamic equivalence, as defined by Nida, is to reproduce "in the receptor language the closest natural equivalence of the source-language message..."(Nida and Taber, 1969). Newmark, on the other hand, is of the opinion that the translator should alternate the semantic method, which differs from 'faithful translation' only in the fact that it takes less account of the aesthetic value of the text in the source language, with the communicative one, which attempts to render the exact contextual meaning of the original in such a way that both content and language are readily acceptable and comprehensible to the readership in the target language and should combine functional faithfulness with accuracy. (Newmark, 1988) Likewise, he distinguishes between two different methods of translation: communicative, which is generally used while translating informative texts, and semantic method, which attempts at conveying the exact situational-contextual meaning. Nowadays, researchers agree on the fact that a combination of both strategies is the best method of translation.

3. Strategies and devices used during the translation of “Gulliver’s Travels” into Albanian

At its simplest level, Gulliver’s Travels is the story of Lemuel Gulliver and his voyages around the world. Prefaced by two letters attesting to the truth of the tales, the adventures are told by Gulliver after his return home from his final journey. Gulliver’s
Travels is divided into four Parts, each about a different place and strange characters. It is a satire on humankind and society during the 18th century, in England. In analyzing the strategies and devices used by the translator Halit Selfo in translating “Gulliver’s Travels” into Albanian language, the procedures presented by Vinay and Darbelnet will be taken into consideration. (Vinay and Darbelnet, 1958) They introduce seven main strategies:

- A calque is a loan translation of a particular kind: a complete syntactic unit is borrowed, but its individual elements are translated literally. The result may be a calque, which preserves the syntactic structure of the source language, while introducing a new mode of expression. Ex: ‘money laundry’ which is used as ‘larje parash’ in Albanian
- Borrowing is usually used to translate unknown concepts. It is considered to be the simplest translation procedure of all. Ex: the borrowing of the term ‘tequila’ from Mexico
- Literal translation, otherwise known as word-for-word translation is used when the translator does not need to make any changes other than those that are obviously required by the grammar of the target language itself. Ex: ‘Who are you?’ in Albanian is ‘Kush jeni ju?’
- Transposition is the strategy in which the translator replaces one word-class by another, without changing the meaning of the message. Ex: She announced her arrival. or She announced the she had arrived.
- Modulation means a variation in the message due to a change in the point of view. It is justified when a literal or transposed translation results in a form which is grammatically correct but not quite natural, going against the feeling of the target language.
- Equivalence is a strategy used when two texts may account for the same situation by means of very different stylistic and structural devices. Ex: If an Albanian bangs hits his finger by mistake: he will say O!, but if an English does it, he will say Ouch!
- Adaptation is used in cases where the situation to which the message refers does not exist at all in the target language and must thus be created by reference to a new situation, which is judged to be equivalent. For example the way Albanian people greet each other is very different to that of English people so the translator has to adapt the situations in order to make it understandable for the reader in the target language.

### 3.1 Combinations of transposition and adaptation

Being very useful and expressive, the translator very often combines transposition and adaption while transmitting the intended message from the source language into the target one. If observed carefully, in the following example, it will be noticed that Halit Selfo, the translator, uses transposition, combined with adaptation in order to intensify the transmission of the message intended for the word group “Applied myself close to my Studies: But the Charge of maintaining ...” (Gulliver’s Travels, p.15) with the respective one "... dhe mesova me zell. Po pas ca kohe, familja ime, qe ishte holle nga gjendja, nuk i përballoi dot harxhet ...” (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p.15) thus, creating equivalent effects in
the target language readership. In this context, we note that at the end of the preceding passage, the translator has made graphical changes, by ending the sentence in a period instead of the colon used by the writer in the source language. This change, realized in accordance with the rules and punctuation of Albanian language, is mainly employed in order not to lose the attention of the reader with long phrases, the general meaning of which is difficult to remember. However, this creates an alternation in conveying the semantic integrity of the translated text. With the aim of transmitting contextual equivalence, the translator structures almost the entire phrase, making changes not only to the word order, but also to the order of the subordinate clauses themselves. Also, to establish the continuity of the message expressed by the author and interrupted by the translator by the period, he felt obliged to add the group of words "after some time" and shortly thereafter the phrase 'name + pronoun' "familjen time" (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p.15). Furthermore, in this context, the translator has seen as appropriate adding the word group "issued by the College." (Gulliver’s Travels, p.15) The phrase "Being too great for a Narrow Fortune"(Gulliver’s Travels, p.15) is transposed and adapted to "nuk i perballoi dot harxhet"(Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p.15) thus, creating the effect of a simplicity, which even though helps to clarify the meaning of the paragraph, in a way, makes the translated text resemble to a tedious, repeated speech.

3.2 Equivalence

Based on contextual synonymy, the translator alternates the word group “krijesa të vockëla” (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p.17) with that “insekte ne trajtë njeriu” (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p.17) and furthermore, with the single words “kocomicë” (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p.18) and “spurdhiqë” (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p.18), while translating the noun “Lilliputians” Likewise, he not only maintains untouched the semantic equivalence, but also conveys the real tone of the writer, making present the existence of continuous parodic and ironic elements. It is worth mentioning that, on behalf of transmitting linguistic equivalence, adaption and speech actualization, the translator expands and concretizes the personal pronoun ‘they’ (Gulliver’s Travels, p.18) with the phrase “insekte në trajtë njeriu” (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p.18) and continues with the adaption and actualization of the word “people” with the respective “kocomicë”, (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p.18) which carries a greater expressiveness. Moreover, making use of adaption and contextualization, he conveys the following group of words “adverb + noun + noun”, “about two inches” (Gulliver’s Travels, p.18), with the respective “një çikë kokën” (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p.18), composed of “adverb + noun”. Po në këtë kuadër, it is important to notice the syntactical changes like that on the following line: “it seems that upon the first moment I was discovered sleeping ...” which has been transformed from the passive voice into the respective, less formal, active one: “siç duket sapo më panë ata spurdhiqë tek po flija ...” aiming at transmitting a more natural version, on accordance with the Albainan linguistic rules and peculiarities.

Equivalence is still evident in the case when the translator alternates the indefinite pronoun "one" (Gulliver’s Travels, p.77) with another nominative, synonymous with the first one "filania" (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p. 71) and then with that “akcila” (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p. 71). Also, in the same confrontation of contextual and situational actualization, it is important to emphasize the fact that the translator, feeling the expressive values of the elements of the expression "too large a nose" (Gulliver’s Travels,
Alma Karasaliu: A critical approach to the translation of Swift’s “Gulliver’s Travels” into Albanian language

p.77) detached from each other, analyzes and restructures them, by employing emotional values expressed through comparative degree “e kishte hundën si patër vxhan” (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p. 71). This way, the expression is conveyed more natural, always in accordance with the connotative meaning of such expressions in Albanian. Another device the translator, Halit Selfo, employs is the transmission of the superlative degree of the adjective “very much tired” (Gulliver’s Travels, p.77) with two other adjectives “i lodhur e i këputur” (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p. 71) which bear a synonymic semantic value.

### 3.3 Devices employed in translating phrases and clauses

Another artfully employed device by the translator, Halit Selfo, is the transmission of the clause “These people are most excellent Matematicians” (Gulliver’s Travels, p.21) with the phraseological unit “ai popull e ndan qimen më katërsh në matematikë” (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p. 21). On the other hand, with the view of conveying semantic equivalence the phrase “arrived to a great perfection in Mechanics” (Gulliver’s Travels, p.21) is conveyed in a plain and simplier form with the noun phrase “preposition + noun” “në mekanikë” (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p. 21). Anyway, it is clearly noticed that the former expressions lack connotations. In this context, the following phraseological unit “I was heartly ashamed” (Gulliver’s Travels, p.49) is adopted and transmitted really naturally and intensively with the following group “përbrenda më hante turpi” (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p. 46). Not only does the translator conserve the original tone of the phrase, but the former expression is very expressive in the target language readership. In the same context, the clause “I had little to say in return, farther than the common Answer…” (Gulliver’s Travels, p.21) is conveyed adapted, by syntactically restructuring all the constituent elements of the sentence and with the expression “Dhe unë i thashë vetëm këto fjalë bajate” (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p. 46). Despite including negative emotional connotations, the introduction of the word group "fjalë bajate", does not convey the intended effect, due to the fact that the aim of the writer is not expressing his disappointment with the kind of the words he selected to use, but identifying the inability of the protagonist to oppose ‘His Majesty’.

As already stressed, the translator almost always combines various devices in order to achieve the highest level of conveyance. Likewise, the word group “the fairest in the World” is adapted, transposed and actualized with the active clause, which incorporates the exquisite use of comparison, “u vetëtinte lëkura si farfuri”. Also, by employing adaption and contextual transposition, the translator conveys the phrase “noun + preposition + noun + adverb” “a Person of Learning there” (Gulliver’s Travels, p.77) with an simple phrase "noun + adverb” “një dijetari vendas” (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p. 71)The maturity and the ability on the translator in terms of adaptation, concretization and contextualization can be seen in his translation of the phrase "Who Was a Friend of Mine" (Gulliver’s Travels, p.77) with a phraseological unit into Albanian language “me të cilin e kisha mjalt’ e qumësht” (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p. 71) Even though, the former is not a figurative expression, the later affects the reader in the target language, through its artistic expressiveness.
3.4 Additions and deviation

The following paragraph has been revised too: Relying on the analysis, adaptation, thorough restructuring of the clauses and their elements, the translator omits a part of the material present in the original text “..., and my Complexion made up of several Colours altogether disagreeable. Although I must beg leave to say for myself, that I am as fair as most of my Sex and Country, and very little Sunburnt by all my Travels.” (Gulliver’s Travels, p.77) and introduces us to a shorter text, which bears the same emotional exponents “..., dhe sado që jam leshverdhë, ndonëse më kanë thënë se e kam cipën qelibar, atij i dukej me plot njolla të shplara, dhe e vështirë.” (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p. 71) A case in point is even the adaptation and actualization of the collective word “complexities” (Gulliver’s Travels, p.77) with the metonymical word “leshverdhe” (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p. 71). A part of the text in question, more precisely, "that I am as fair as the most of my Sex and Country" is avoided from the process of translation.

In addition to analysis and translation criticism of the examples taken from the satire of Jonathan Swift, it should be noted, from the linguistic point of view, that in conveying the tense situations used while describing the qualities of the human race by ‘His Majesty’, the author uses the spectrum of determinants with negative emotional overtones and intentionally allocates them. According to the writer, irrationality, greed, and the evil nature of human beings is ‘the disorder’. The purpose of such manipulation is the artfully avoidance of the peak point, as part of Swift’s most favorite stylistic device, which is achieved by using determinants with negative emotional overtones and by intentionally allocating them. Being aware of the importance the elements in the following extract posses and in compliance with the constant norm requirements in the language of translation, the translator literally transmits “a Heap of conspiracies, Rebellion, Murders, Massacres, ... or Ambition' (Gulliver’s Travels, p.110) as ‘plot përbetime, kryengritje, therjje, revolucione, ... nuk u ngopet syri kurrë’ (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p. 100) What is also evident is the adjustment and transposition of the nouns "Murders" and "Massacres" with a single word, synonymous to them "slaughter", which despite reaching the equivalence within the context, reduces the force of expressiveness intended by the author. Their separate conveyance would have been another way of transmission i.e. "murder" and "massacre".

In this context, we see that the king’s surprise and the reaction is conveyed, by means of linguistic equivalence, from the phrase "He Was perfectly Astonished with the historical Account I gave him of our Affairs during the last Century, ..." (Gulliver’s Travels, p.110) through contextual transposition into the sentence “Sa u habit katallani me ato pak fjalë që i thashë për historinë e shekullit të fundit!” (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p. 100) We note that as regarding the original version, the part in question is a subordinated noun clause while the message in the target langue is transformed, by making use of syntactic devices, into an exclamatory sentence. The presence of such very important punctuation mark as exclamation is a means of providing the meaning of the sentence further intensity, on the context of speech actualization. In the second sentence, we want to point out a deviation from the original version, expressed by the personal pronoun of the third person singular "it", which is conveyed in the phrase "pronoun + noun" "that time". Taking into consideration the fact that the personal pronoun “it” implies much more “the speech”, there is a discrepancy in the message of the sentence conveyed. This is very misleading for the target language readership, who, in stead of something related to “the
speech”, expects something related to “the time”. Also, if we compare the grammatical structure of the expressions in question, it is worth mentioning the equivalence achieved through linguistic actualization and contextualization while replacing linguistic aspects i.e. active voice is replaced by passive voice, in order to achieve naturalness and simplicity for the conveyed message.

### 3.5 The use of modulation as a translation device

The translator varies and further more alternates the personal pronoun "it" (Gulliver’s Travels, p.113) with respective analog word group "një shkencë e këtillë" (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p. 103) while, by making use of modulation, employing antonymic translation, the phrase in the source language "would be little esteemed" (Gulliver’s Travels, p.113) is conveyed as "there would be no more honor". So, the adjective "esteemed" is adapted, simplified, actualized and converted into the name "nder". The translator also, avoids the conveyance of the conjunctive phrase "as to", which slightly fads the close relationship between 'Gulliver' and the reader. What is more, in order to create a semantic pyramid with hierarchical relationships whose climax would be lead, always according to the translator, by the other metaphysical entities, restructures the order of the concepts, “And as to Ideas, Entities, Abstractions and Transcendentals, …” (Gulliver’s Travels, p.113) and transmits it “Po nuk ua futa dot në kokë abstrakcionet, idetë, kategoritë dhe entitetet e tjera metafizike.” (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p. 103) interfering thus, in Swift’s favourite stylistic device which, as already mentioned, is the creation of the impact on the reader through randomness. In this context, we wish to reiterate the phenomenon of persistent deviations of phrases or words, on behalf of the process of concretization and actualization, such as avoidance of the word group "adjective + noun" and simplifying it, from the semantic point of view, by adding the particle "po" in the phrase "Po nuk ua futa dot në kokë..." (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p. 103) as a variant of the original expression "I could never drive ... Into Their Heads." (Gulliver’s Travels, p.113)

In the example above, it is worth stressing that the goal of the translator to ensure fluidity of thought, actualization and concretization within the discourse has led to an escort not the equivalent of the expression "Të lumtë o vogëlushi im, o Grildrig i shkretë; ..." (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p. 103) compared to the original version "my little Friend Grildrig; ... " (Gulliver’s Travels, p.113) A possible variant which would incorporate not only the equivalent situations from a linguistic and semantic point of view but also the contextual naturalness would be "Miku im i vogël Grildrig; ..." Also note the presence of the use of the name "Grildrig" by the translator, which has been used as a means of reaching the right level of emphasis.

### 3.6 Changes in punctuation

Taking into consideration the stylistic effect punctuation has in Swift’s writings for the implied messages it enables and for the degree of emphasis it conveys, (Fox, 2003) the analysis is further focused on prominent examples. During the process of translation, the translator uses a wide range of punctuation marks, respectively a period, as a sign of closure of the thought present in the analyzed samples in the following, previously mentioned, analysis "... dhe mësova me zell. " (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p.15) instead of the colon used by the author in the original work" ... and Applied myself close to my.
Studies: ... "(Gulliver’s Travels, p.18), but also in many other cases throughout the work where the use of punctuation marks varies depending on the content. In the following example, "... they discharged no more Arrows: ..." (Gulliver’s Travels, p.18), the colon used by the author has been transformed into a comma "..., i merr té shtënat që:..." (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p. 15), in the version given by the translator. The translator, in general, keeps intact the semi colon and uses it in almost all cases used by the author. However, within the text in the target language, we find cases in which a semicolon used by the author is substituted with a period by the translator, this in full compliance with the rules and norms about punctuation in Albanian language. The following phrase "... with whom I Continued four years; ...")(Gulliver’s Travels, p.15) is conveyed by the phrase “te i cili punova katër vjet si praktikant.” (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p. 15) In the following case, the semi colon used by the author, is replaced with a period by the translator depending on the consistency of thinking reflected in the text. Furthermore, the word group “… Quality and Condition of Life, …" (Gulliver’s Travels p. 49) is conveyed “… sipas oxhakut e jetës që kalon; ...” (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p. 46) The exclamation is a punctuation mark which the author has used in a sentence to express emphasis and to give importance to what is expressed. For example, the sentence in the source language “He was perfectly astonished with the historical Account … could produce.” (Gulliver’s Travels p. 110) is ended in a period but the translator has ended it in an exclamation mark "... the history of the last century!" (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p. 100), in order to emphasize the oncoming content. Emphasis is also used by the translator during the conveyance of the following expressions of ‘foreign’ origin as “lusus nature” (Gulliver’s Travels p. 82), which in Albanian are presented as "lodër e natyrës" (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p. 80). It is noticed with the names of two of England’s most powerful parties “uig apo tori” (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p. 82) and while conveying the identifier "splacknuck-ët" (Udhëtimet e Guliverit, p. 79). In the first case, the translator, in our opinion, uses the emphasis to make evident the irony intended by Swift, whereas in the second case it is used to highlight even more the despise the king felt towards Gulliver, who looked very little before them.

A very important aspect that should be taken into consideration during the assessment and opinions about how the text in the target language is transmitted or to what extend has the translator achieved to convey the semantic equivalence and actualization in translating the satire is the fact that the book has been translated before the implementation of spelling rules in Albanian language, which has influenced a lot on the presentation of words, in terms of punctuation and spelling.

4. Conclusion

Jonathan Swift is a famous satirist whose favourite stylistic devices are parody, irony and puns. Swift’s simple style is often tricky for translators because he, almost always implies much more compared to what he writes. Translation itself, on the other hand, is a complicated process. Despite various discrepancies, different theories agree on the fact that in order to achieve a translation of the highest level possible, attention should be paid to the semantic equivalence. The analysis on the strategies used by the translator of the book, in Albanian is carried out being based on the translation procedures presented by Vinay and Darbelnet. During the conveyance of "Gulliver's Travels" from the source language into the target language, the translator has employed various devices, as well
as their combination, in order to create an atmosphere and impact similar to that of the original one. As mentioned above, transposition, adjustment, adapting, linguistic and cultural equivalence are the main devices employed. Also, Halit Selfo has significantly made use of the punctuation marks, for their effectiveness in emphasizing.

References


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Contextualization of intercultural aspects displayed in English textbooks in the Albanian classes, Korca city

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Abstract
The aim of this study is to identify intercultural aspects that appear in the English textbooks in the Albanian context. It emphasises the lifelong learning aspect of education, and the need of expanding capacities and facilitating relations among learners belonging to different cultures. It is seen how some of the defining principles, pedagogical methods, subject specific skills and intercultural activities treated in the English textbooks, relate to the realities of classroom practice in Albanian educational system syllabuses. It is an investigation of the background knowledge and learning experience of Albanian learners engaged in the study of English through English textbooks applied in different school levels in Korca city, elementary schools, Albania. I have done experimental research in the form of a questionnaire survey, and a survey on some intercultural activities organised in classrooms. I am focused on Albanian learners’ perceptions of how the cultural diversity between Albanian and English intersects with the pedagogical aim of promoting learner awareness of cultural differences, when the context of study is an Albanian area of study. The results of the questionnaire for the intercultural activities, held in different school levels support for the efficacy for fostering cross-cultural and intercultural perspectives.

Keywords: contextualization, intercultural aspects, learners, foreign language acquisition, English textbooks, cultural awareness, questionnaires.

1. English language and the cultural identity.
Languages are part of the cultural wealth of our society and the world in which we live and work. Learning a foreign language facilitates and elicits a common understanding and raises the civil responsibilities. Learners learn how to appreciate different countries, different cultures, communities and societies. By making comparisons, they get acquainted to the culture and society, part of which is the language they learn. In a globalised, postmodern world a rather different model of education has emerged. An individual, to participate fully in the new economy – as worker, consumer and responsible citizen – needs to be even better informed and needs higher-order and more flexible skills, so learning English language is a good mean for creating future citizens with knowledge, creativity and critical thinking skills, able to face life. (Graddol, 2006; 71)

The communicative skill, in another language, is inseparable to the individual desire for being educated and to establish one’s own personality. The foreign language teachers have this privilege to work with this vital and special phenomenon. Culture is necessary because it is an integral part of the interaction between language and thought. Cultural patterns, customs and ways of life expressed in language specific world views are reflected in language. (McKay Lee Sandra 2002; 85)

Possessing knowledge in a foreign language has to do with the formation of the identity. As Christina Sargsyan (www.teachingenglish.org.uk; 2008) points out, “knowledge of a
foreign language provides you with a new “modus operandi”, through which to discover yourself. I think the role of the teacher is crucial here, because this discovery, this identity formation, sometimes is quite thorny and asks for considerable effort. It creates uncertainty which so many of us hate”! Teachers help learners to deal with this uncertainty.

Teaching a foreign language, such as English language creates a critical and analytical perspective, which helps learners to win a self-confidence. Non-native teachers have often had the same experience of learning English as their students are now having, and this gives them an instant (even if not subconscious) understanding of what their students are going through (Harmer 2007; 119). They try to promote a culture-bound approach to learning the language. In doing so, learners can integrate English culture into Albanian culture. However it is better that learner can work with native speakers, because they can create cultural continuity (Holliday, 2005). But this is not possible in Albania. “The ideology of nativespeakerism is based on the assumption that ‘native speakers’ of English have a special claim to the language itself” (Holliday 2005; 8). Native speakers often bring “discoursal baggage” (Holliday 2001; 124) with them from their home country that tends to rationalise other learners’ behaviours by reducing them to “culturist national or regional cultural stereotypes” (Holliday 2001; 88). This culture is presented in the foreign authors’ English textbooks that Albanian learners work with. The learners may have stereotypes to explain a native speaker’s behaviour. Therefore teachers are encouraged to plan lessons to help learners and to look beyond generalisations and see similarities and differences between each other. Non-native speakers, in our case, Albanian learners, should be able to identify that the characteristics of the other person, the generalised ‘other’, are a doctrine of their own characteristics, the ‘self’, rather than a truth about the other culture.

Hall compared culture with iceberg (Figure 1). He reasoned that there are some visible aspects, above the water, but there is a larger portion hidden beneath the surface. This means that the external, or conscious, part of culture is what we can see and is the tip of the iceberg and includes behaviours and some of our beliefs. The internal, or subconscious, part of culture is below the surface of a society and includes some beliefs, values and thought patterns that underlie behaviour. There are major differences between the conscious and unconscious culture. Internal implicitly learned unconsciously is difficult to change subjective knowledge versus external explicitly learned consciously, which is easily to change objective knowledge (Hall 1989, 197)
Hall suggests that the only way to learn the internal culture of others is to actively participate in their culture. What this model teaches learners is that they cannot judge a new culture based only on what they see when they first get presented to it. They must take the time to get to know individuals from that culture and interact with them. (Hall 1976).

Quite simply, the function and place of the foreign language in the curriculum is no longer that of ‘foreign language’ and this is bringing about profound changes in who is learning English, their motives for learning it and their needs as learners (Graddol 2006; 72). One feature of education in the postmodern world is the fragmented nature, not just of knowledge, but also the community of learners in the classroom. In relation to language learning, the expectation that all learners in a class will be at the same level of proficiency or even be studying the same foreign language – is giving way to approaches which allow more personalized learning. Such trends stress further the need for learner autonomy and diversity of learning materials (Graddol 2006; 72).

2. Teaching English language and its culture in the Albanian context.

Nowadays Albanian English language teachers are facing a great challenge of encouraging learners to learn English. This is a complex process, as English like every language presents and transmits ideas and patterns that belong to a specific culture mostly quite different from learners’ native culture.

English textbooks written by English authors may not be easily assimilated by Albanian learners in the fact that they contain texts, activities, dialogues, listening materials, based on foreign experiences, which are far from the native culture. English is explained based on known factors by the learners’ familiar situations and cultural comparisons, where Albanian learners see the useful sense of the language for real communicative aims. This
contextualization helps learners in reinforcing historical and cultural knowledge and in inciting the identity growth, self-evaluation and respect for ethnic diversity.

The English classes are adapted to Albanian learners' interests, needs and make them be identified to the classroom context. In this way they may feel the practical sense of the foreign language.

Contextualization may be applied in other classroom elements such as the classroom setting which should be well-organized, by creating a good environment to be adapted not only to the learners' native culture, but even to the foreign culture. It should be used a different pace for different cultural activities. Learners should be given different roles and different tasks, by following the norms, ways and customs of different cultures (Harmer 2007; 128). Other classroom elements are teaching aids: The textbooks illustrations, dialogues, materials etc., may be processed by learners according to their needs and interests and their way of thinking, planning and focusing. In other words, it is necessary that teachers assume themselves that their teaching has to be pluricultural. Textbooks should be challenged; they are never neutral, a “simple” grammar exercise can reinforce prejudice and stereotypes by means, for instance, of the vocabulary used or the pronouns chosen. Critical discourse analysis, which studies the way text and talk may reproduce or resist racism, abuse of social power, dominance and inequality. Once the textbook has been challenged, it is the teacher’s turn to act as a mediator: parts of the book can be adapted, new material can be supplemented, the account of a personal experience can be presented, and ethnocentric approaches or images can in fact be turned around and used as a pretext for intercultural activities (Soler, Jorda (ed.) 2007; 71)

In the textbooks there are fundamental patterns of cultural differences; in our case between Albanian speakers and English speakers: There are different communication styles, different attitudes towards conflict, different approaches to completing tasks, different decision-making styles, different attitudes towards disclosure, and different approaches to knowing. Thus teaching the intercultural and the involvement of intercultural activities in the teaching and acquisition process of English language in Albanian schools, creates opportunities to learners toward the possibility of dialogue with a foreign culture, the possibility of learning something new, developing friendship, and understanding different points of view.

Claire Kramsch points out: “If...language is seen as social practice, culture becomes the very core of language teaching. Cultural awareness must then be viewed as enabling language proficiency ... Culture in language teaching is not an expendable fifth skill, tacked on, so to speak, to the teaching of speaking, listening, reading and writing”. Language itself is defined by a culture. We cannot be competent in the language if we do not also understand the culture that has shaped and informed it. We cannot learn a second language if we do not have an awareness of that culture, and how that culture relates to our own first language. (Kramsch, 1998)

An English language class should serve as a formation for Albanian learners, for exploring and discussing their culture, history and traditions. It is true that the perspective of a world rarely meets another. The confrontation of two cultures doesn’t mean that one is superior and the other is inferior. No doubt that cultures should be respected .The cultural elements presentation is the right way through which learners become aware with the fact that the world is made of a diversity of cultures. Cultural competence refers
to ability to interact effectively with people of different cultures (Mercedes et al. 2007; 31-36).

Culture is within the language. Different members of communities have different attitudes, different behaviours, expressed or not expressed by opinions or observed verbal or non verbal practices in the community communications. (Boyer 1999; 5-14). Cultural teaching affects positively in Albanian learners’ foreign language linguistic success. Others are of the opinion that culture can be used as an instrument in the communicative process, when certain conventions of behaviours are explained. The English language awareness attracts learners’ attention toward the differences and similarities in their native language, so in Albanian language. Cultural awareness teaching shares a double aim in the language awareness; so it supports language acquisition and it broadens the general understanding of the culture. (Byram (Ed.). 1994; 141)

Foreign language teaching takes place in a context with at least two cultures. Language and culture are inseparable from each other in acquiring the foreign language, in the way that the learner receive cultural information and different new ways of behaviour (Haloci et al. 2008; 226). The main context is the study of learners ‘classroom interactions, the examination of the cultural interactive modalities in sociolinguistic contexts.

3. Intercultural learners’ awareness through the English language textbooks in Albania

In the ideal foreign language class the teaching of culture is an integral organized component. Fundamental aspects of the culture are incorporated into the classroom activities. The learners anticipate that they will “learn a people” as well as a language. (Chastain 1988; 298)

Language is used to convey meaning, but meaning is determined by the culture. Understanding cultural differences among the various subcultures within a pluralistic society is equally important. (Chastain 1988; 299). Second language study can be one of the core educational components for fostering these widely recognised objectives of intercultural understanding.

The syllabus in English textbooks should enable learners to acknowledge the cultural diversity. When developing the intercultural dimension in language teaching, as Byram points out, teachers should try to achieve several aims:

- to give learners intercultural competence as well as linguistic competence; learners need not just knowledge and skill in the grammar of a language but also the ability to use the language in socially and culturally appropriate ways.
- to prepare them for interaction with people of other cultures and enable them to understand and accept people from other cultures as individuals with other distinctive perspectives, values and behaviours.
- to develop learners as intercultural speakers or mediators who are able to engage with complexity and multiple identities and to avoid the stereotyping which accompanies perceiving someone through a single identity.
- to help them to see that such interaction is an enriching experience; learners see relationships between their own and other cultures, and this help them acquire interest and curiosity about others. (Byram et Al. 2002)

Teaching materials utilization for exploring “the second” culture in the foreign language classes are a crucial element. Recently in the Albanian curriculum the programs are compiled in the way that language and culture are found incorporated with one another.
For example, for developing intercultural skills, teachers may explore different subjects related to different topics, and they may encourage learners to compare cultures and challenge stereotypes. The basic principle is that learners may compare the topic in a familiar context with examples in the text in an unfamiliar context (Byram et al. 2002; p21). Teachers should encourage learners to comment on different statements, discuss, share ideas and challenge them. Most of the cultural information that learners receive at school, come from textbooks which communicate directly or indirectly aspects of cultural values.

A real representation of the society and an account of some historical and cultural aspects of the countries where the foreign language is spoken originally can help learners to understand better language structures, predominant vocabulary, idioms or the status of that language in the world. At the same time, rather than reflecting a specific culture, textbooks help to develop discovery skills that will allow learners to get the necessary information in each situation, not only during the learning period but also in future. The combination of all these elements should be the development of critical cultural awareness. (Soler, Jorda (ed.) 2007; 73) The attitude of the teacher is a crucial factor in determining the extent to which cultural objectives are attained. The teacher’s task is to make learners aware of cultural differences, not pass value judgements on those differences. (Chastain 1988; 301).

I am of the opinion to consider the textbooks in schools more as source books than teaching ones, and their role should be the facilitation of the learning process.

4. The study

The research question – How do intercultural activities help in a better English language acquisition of Albanian learners in various levels of Elementary school in Korca city? It is observed the learning experience of Albanian learners through intercultural activities, presented in English textbooks. It is an overview on the contact of the cultural issues by developing an understanding of the learner’s own culture on one side and the sensitivity and awareness toward understanding the other culture on the other.

4.1 The aim

The overall aim of this research is to see teaching English language and its culture in the Albanian context and how intercultural activities of the foreign authors’ English textbooks are adapted and used by Albanian learners, in order to simplify and to make more enjoyable English language acquisition.

Teachers need to teach for communication, and a lot of users of English as a lingua franca are communicating perfectly effectively with limited grammar and without standard grammatical usages. (Jenkins, 2006) This is what we want to point out through intercultural activities- communication and interaction- which are a good mean for helping learners to communicate through cultures.

It was aimed that the questionnaire and the survey during the activities could provide more detailed and richer data about a better understanding of English by Albanian learners.
4.2 The subjects in the study and the research instruments.

This research is focused on a survey of some intercultural activities held in elementary English classes. The participants involved in this study were 100 learners from VIIth, VIIIth and IXth grades during the academic year 2011-2012 in 2 Elementary schools of Korca city. The questionnaire survey is organised with learners of the Elementary school, belonging to VIIth, VIIIth and IXth grades, in Korça city, Albania, during the academic year 2011-2012. The number of the interviewed learners is 100, 33 of which belonged to VIIth grades, 35 belonged to VIIIth grades and 32 students of the IXth grades. The data derived from the checklist were analyzed by using descriptive statistical methods. Percentages for all items were obtained.


With this number of learners is held a questionnaire after the activities, in order to see the impact that these intercultural activities had on the language acquisition. In this way, there are investigated Albanian learners’ perceptions of how the cultural diversity between Albanian and English language intersects with the pedagogical aim of promoting their awareness of cultural differences, when the context of study is an Albanian area of study.

4.3 Methodology

The methodology used is based on a qualitative and quantitative analysis. The first one involved an examination of learners in the acquisition of the intercultural activities and how intercultural activities help in the overall language acquisition of the learners in the classes where the survey is held. Loew advocates that culture is the most important aspect of second language courses because knowledge of the culture is necessary for communication, essential for interpersonal interaction, and an important factor in personal and international cultural understanding. (Helene Loew; 1981)

The quantitative analysis is conducted with a questionnaire hand out to learners, and this quantitative approach to second language classroom observation, takes the form to be filled or completed. This instrument is designed to examine teacher behaviour, learner behaviour, the interaction between the teacher and learners or among learners. (Richards, Nunan; 2002, 47; 48)

5. Results

5.1 Data Analysis of the intercultural activities.

The cultural dimension of English language in the Albanian classes is analysed based on: learners’ attitudes toward teaching about specific cultures (native and non-native), and the impact of intercultural activities on learners’ attitudes toward native and non-native culture in English classes.
By making use of these intercultural activities, learners are not only informed, but they are created opportunities to disclose their knowledge through projects, learn English culture, accept it, its values and to combine cultures in various topics of social, political, historical, life.

Language awareness has been the traditional term for this type of understanding; knowing about a language, for a teacher is more important than knowing a language. It has been noted that non-native speakers of English have an advantage over native speakers. (Jenkins; 2006)

The learners were provided with a variety of intercultural activities, taken from “Express publishing” textbooks, applied during the English classes in different class levels. These activities helped learners to win awareness for avoiding conflicts and getting socialised with the foreign cultures. They acquired knowledge by learning from the ways of behaving in foreign countries. Learners become aware of different problems all over the world, learn a new language and compare other cultures with their own. Learners in this way not only were informed but also found the possibility to express their knowledge through projects and intercultural activities, to learn from English culture, to accept it, its values and to combine it with Albanian culture and with different topics from social, political, historical, musical life etc.

English language teachers should focus their teaching in intercultural activities. The topics in Express publishing texts are creative, true, and convey cultural and linguistic identity and socio-cultural values that are universal; such as tolerance, courage, hope. The social, linguistic and cultural aspects are inseparable from each other: The topics treated in these textbooks, bring a linguistic communicative method, stories, role plays, games, information gaps, questionnaires and surveys.

The application of intercultural activities, in the English classes, resulted in an obvious change in the learners in these aspects: Knowledge, Attitudes, and Skills.

Learners gained knowledge of the essential norms and customs of the other culture, behaviours in social and professional spheres. They might compare important aspects of the behaviours belonging to cultures (social interaction, routine), techniques that help in the foreign language acquisition, historical and socio-political factors of different cultures.

Given the appropriate cultural information, Albanian learners acquired a certain degree of comprehension of the people and their culture. In this way the activities held in classes gave them such a knowledge which developed in them a higher degree of sensitivity and tolerance for cultural differences than they had prior to language study. These activities built in them a sense of self confidence to interact with peers belonging to other cultures, learn from them, face new emotions, take various roles, depending on the situation, and show interest in new cultural aspects. They understood changes in behaviour, values and attitudes.

From the observation it is seen that there is demonstrated an elasticity, when they interact with each – other or when they face real life situations from foreign cultures in different cultural activities. It is seen that learners are able to solve socio cultural conflicts and misunderstandings; they are able to use the right strategies for adapting their culture with the foreign one in different situations. As a result:

- Learners’ cooperation in the classroom is increased at 100%.
• There is an increase of 66% in the motivation to expand knowledge, compared to 33% of the learners who answered sometimes.
• There is an increase of 100% in the individual involvement in class, when intercultural activities are organized.
• It is observed that there is an easy acquisition of knowledge with a percentage of 66%.
• Communicated aspect is improved in a mass of 89%.

As it results from the survey, the results after the organization of intercultural activities are satisfactory. Learners are interested and highly motivated, with the topics diversity that these textbooks offer. The table below shows learners’ changes after intercultural activities held in the class, with the diversity of topics displayed in Express Publishing textbooks. (figure 2)

**Figure 2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Communicative aspect:</th>
<th>Students Cooperation: Increased 100%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Easy acquisition of knowledge:</td>
<td>Increased 66% Answering sometimes 33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation to expand knowledge:</td>
<td>Increased 66% Answering sometimes 33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual involvement in class:</td>
<td>Increased 100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 5.2 Data analysis of the questionnaire

The learners’ answers are explained depending on how close they were to viewing the cultural aspects of learning English as intrinsically oriented toward native community. The overall percentages of the learners, based on the addressed questions are as below:

- From the 3 grades (VII\textsuperscript{th}, VIII\textsuperscript{th} and IX\textsuperscript{th}), 77.2% have heard for the “intercultural term” in the texts of Express Publishing, in the rubrics at the end of each module and also they have heard about it from the teachers, compared to 22.8% of others who have heard about this term in the Internet sites.

- Regarding the question about the cultural exchange in the foreign language acquisition, from 33 learners of the VII\textsuperscript{th} grades, 54, 5% of them believe that these activities influence in an amount of 80% the English language acquisition, 24% of the learners belonging to this grade, believe that these activities influence in an amount of 60% and the rest believe that these activities influence in a mass of 40%. From 35 learners belonging to the VIII\textsuperscript{th}, 57, 1% believe that interculturality influence 80% the English language acquisition, 43% say that the intercultural activities help 100% in the English language acquisition. This is observed even in the IX\textsuperscript{th} grade, where 75% of 32 learners are of the opinion of a great influence of these activities in the English language better acquisition.
• From 100 interviewed learners, 69% of them believe that the intercultural activities increase significantly their interest and motivation toward the English culture; 25% are motivated a lot and 6% are slightly motivated.
• As it was observed from the learners ‘reactions during the English classes in different levels, 85% of the learners express their satisfaction and wish to learn foreign language through intercultural activities. 66, 6% of the learners from the VIIth grade, find the intercultural activities of highest importance during the foreign language classes, 21, 2% find them very important and the rest find them of a little importance. Concerning the VIIIth and IXth grades, 79, 1% of them like and consider these activities of a highest importance, because they offer to the learners an essential help in the cultural exchanges with their peers, and also help them in the understanding of the English culture communication.
• For the question of how exactly help these kinds of activities, all the learners answers were nearly the same related to the 30% of those who believe that these activities helped them in the speaking skills, 30% believe that these intercultural activities help them demonstrate vocabularil skills; 22.5% learners express the opinion that they are a great help for them in reinforcing grammar and 17,5% believe that these activities help them more in improving listening skills.
• Referring to the question that which activities seem to them more important in the acquisition process of the English language, they reported that they had preferences for all of them and the different ways of receiving culture. Internet and cultural exchanges with other schools abroad take a wider percentage, so 50%. A considerable place for the learners take the organization of school events, plays, information in the books, so 30% and 20% think that movies and periodical magazines are of a great importance in the English language acquisition. All of these are interesting ways of transmitting culture.
• Students are of the opinion that Express publishing textbooks , and their rubrics, where is widely treated the intercultural dimension and intercultural aspects, help learners a lot in the intercultural communication acquisition, together with the standard expressions, functions, and linguistic structures accompanied with realistic situations. Also the projects included at the end of each module, help learners in the language acquisition through different sources in receiving and exchanging cultural knowledge. From 100 interviewed, 66, 5% are of the opinion that textbooks help them a lot in the intercultural communication and 33, 5% believe that textbooks help them sufficiently in the intercultural communication acquisition.

6. Overall discussion and Conclusions
This study aimed at identifying learners’ attitudes toward the cultural dimensions of English language based on data analyzed from questionnaire and intercultural activities survey which considered the following features: learners’ attitudes toward teaching about specific cultures (native and non-native), and the impact of intercultural activities on learners’ attitudes toward native and non-native culture in English classes. This study revealed that in Albanian classrooms there is a social interaction when it is learned a foreign language. The transmission of culture is an important aspect. Not only foreign language educators, but also educational institutions should identify widening
opportunities for developing an intercultural dimension in the English textbooks, to approach learners with learning culture, confronting changes through cultures and challenging them.

Based on the quantitative data, in summary in 75% and 80% of different age groups the cultural activities help them in English learning. They raise the interest toward the foreign culture. The statistics show they believe that not only the language is necessary, but also its incorporation with the culture, in order that learners can be adapted and can value others that have a different culture from their own. Learners are of the opinion that the educational system should deal with the changes that are happening nowadays; changes having to do with the language, and culture. It is because of this that the cultural activities in the English classes are so important.

Moreover, in Express Publishing textbooks is widely treated the intercultural dimension and the socio cultural aspects, which help learners a lot to gain a full and clear understanding of the language with the help of the standard expressions, linguistic structures accompanied by everyday real situations. The projects included at the end of the rubrics of each module, create to the learners the possibility of a better language acquisition through exploring a wide range of sources by receiving and exchanging cultural knowledge.

From the questionnaire statistics, there seem that the highest percentage of the great influence of intercultural activities in the English language better acquisition, are in the VIIIth and IXth grades. There is a great percentage in the 3 levels that the intercultural activities of the foreign textbooks of Express Publishing affect a lot in the increase of interest and motivation in the English acquisition.

The effectiveness of these intercultural activities among Albanian learners is obvious, in the fact that the highest percentages of the interviewers feel better in English when doing these activities rather than other activities. They also help them in assimilating better speaking and vocabularial skills. On reflection, learners viewed learning culture in English language classes very positively.

The results of the questionnaire for the intercultural activities, held in different school levels support for the efficacy for fostering cross-cultural and intercultural perspectives. Language and culture are two elements that presume each – other. Teaching a foreign language means to deal with a specific culture and if we refer to this, not all the English textbooks that English teachers use are the right ones for meeting the learners’ cultural needs and interests. Everything depends on the fact how the teacher treats the content and focus in the classroom. Teaching should be lead in that way to make learners feel that English does not belong to another culture, but it belongs to their own. It is very challenging for non-native learners to adjust their academic and social lives in the present context because they have to cope with linguistic and cultural ‘nonaccommodation’. The future of the English language does not depend only on what happens in the native countries, but in non-native as well.

The organisation of different cultural activities raises the learners’ awareness and develops their curiosity toward the foreign culture and helps them to make comparisons between cultures. This enriches the learners’ experience and makes them aware that in spite of the existence of the globalized cultural elements, there still exists diversity among cultures, diversity that should be understood and respected by them. An intercultural speaker also needs awareness that there is more to be known and
understood from the other person’s perspective, that there are skills, attitudes and values involved, which are crucial to understanding intercultural human relationships. (Byram M.et. Al. 2002; 6). These topics should be considers as crucial, and the intercultural dimension should be promoted and should be adapted with the curriculum or program set by the Albanian institutions.

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DEFINITIONS ET SIGNIFICATIONS DU QUOTIDIEN EN HISTORIOGRAPHIE

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Nous, nous pouvons donner notre vie lors
D'une manifestation
vous, de quoi en êtes vous capables?
N. Karouzos «Tombe antisismique»

Résumé

L'objet de la recherche concerne “l’histoire du quotidien” ainsi qu’il est décrit dans la bibliographie marxiste. Nous prenons comme point de départ pour cette analyse le discours de Braudel dans les Annales. C’est la raison pour laquelle nous nous efforçons de mettre en évidence des indices que l’on puise dans les œuvres des marxistes et des metamarxistes de l’école allemande, anglaise et française (19ème-20ème siècle) concernant la définition du quotidien: nous composons d’une façon critique les variantes et les constantes qui définissent le quotidien dans la science de l’histoire. Le but de cette étude est de localiser les définitions ainsi que les significations du quotidien.

Mots-clés: l’histoire du quotidien, marxistes, metamarxistes

Jean Désiré Gustave Courbet (1819-1877)
http://www.gustavecourbet.org/

1 La peinture de Gustave Courbet se veut objective. Elle désire présenter la pesanteur et la monotonie du travail manuel, le divorce de l’homme moderne et de la nature, le besoin de loisirs, l’isolement de l’individu dans la collectivité, le rituel mécanique qui règle les actes de la vie collective. Courbet n’a sûrement pas lu Karl Marx, dont le Manifeste du parti communiste date de 1848, mais l’Enterrement, les Pompiers, l’Atelier imposent la notion de classe sociale : le labeur brutal des “lutteurs” de 1853, leur musculature offerte à la consommation du public sont l’image même de l’aliénation théorisée par le philosophe allemand. http://www.19e.org/biographies/C/courbet.htm
1. CADRE THÉORIQUE

1.1 Le travail au quotidien

Marx écrit (1852) au début de la première partie du *18 Brumaire de Louis Bonaparte* que «...les hommes font leur propre histoire». C'est là le premier principe de la lecture marxiste de l'histoire. Ce qui est en cause dans l'histoire, ce n'est pas un moteur extérieur qui la guiderait, qu'il s'appelle Dieu ou le Destin, ou même la Raison, c'est l'homme lui-même qui, par son travail transforme la nature, transforme la société, et se transforme lui-même. «Le travail est de prime abord un acte qui se passe entre l'homme et la nature. [...] L'homme y joue vis-à-vis de lui-même et vis-à-vis de la nature le rôle d'une puissance naturelle. Les forces dont son corps est doué promenant de ses bras et ses jambes, de sa tête et de ses mains, les met en mouvement afin de s'approprier des matières en leur donnant une forme utile à sa vie. En même temps qu'il agit par ce mouvement sur la nature extérieure et la modifie, il modifie sa propre nature et développe les facultés qui y sommeillent» (Le Capital - Livre I 1867).

1.2 Vie quotidienne et société

La distinction entre *le chaque jour et le quotidien* dans le contexte marxiste, revêt une importance capitale. Léon Trotski (1973) a développé cette problématique dès le tout jeune âge de l'ère soviétique. Rédigeant une série d’articles réunis plus tard dans la «Pravda» sous le titre «Problems of every day life», définissait le «chaque jour» comme étant *le lieu où la Révolution doit être défendue ainsi qu’approfondie*. C'est dans ce même esprit que se sont dirigées les analyses d’Alexandra Kolondai (1984) «concernant la sexualité, le mariage, et la vie quotidienne.»

Par la suite, la problématique qui se développe concernant le sens de «vie quotidienne» se trouve encore plus poussée chez les marxistes, tels Walter Benjamin, Henri Lefebvre, Antonio Gramsci. Chez Benjamin (Benjamin, 1936) le «chaque jour» contient quelque chose d’intime qui s’épuise au stéréotype, à la répétition, mais contient aussi un «reste inépuisable», l’imprévu, le lieu de l’utopie.

Pour Henri Lefebvre (1968) le «chaque jour» revêt différentes formes au fur et à mesure que le sujet manifeste de plusieurs façons sa résistance, en tant que partie prenante d’un collectivisme qui se dessine à plusieurs niveaux, au sein d’alliances tissées autour de la notion du contre-pouvoir (Lefebvre, 1968.)

Le mouvement des situationnistes érigent le quotidien en objet d’analyse et de critique. Pour Vainegem (1967) ça représente un lieu de conflits culturels à travers desquelles

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une nouvelle réalité culturelle peut voir le jour, stipulant l’émancipation et la dignité de l’homme.
La vraie exigence de tous les mouvements insurrectionnels est la transformation du monde et la réinvention de la vie. Ce n’est pas une exigence formulée par des théoriciens : mieux, c’est la base pour la création poétique. Révolution se fait tous les jours, en dépit et au contraire des spécialistes de la révolution. Cette révolution-ci n’a pas de nom, comme c’est le cas pour toute chose qui émerge de l’expérience vécue. Sa cohérence explosive se forge constamment dans une clandestinité permanente d’actes et de rêves.
D’où l’on déduit que le quotidien se définit suivant le schéma suivant:

| Quotidien et de l’aliénation? | Quotidien et du temps de la vie? |

Dans ce même champ et suivant l’analyse pour les mots et les notions, on arrive à comprendre la notion du quotidien en fonction avec la révolution, l’aliénation et le temps.
C’est ainsi que l’on arrive à localiser dans l’histoire des civilisations des bipolarités complémentaires, aussi bien que des schémas conflictuels et oppositionnels.

2. MATÉRIEL DE RECHERCHE

Notre choix porte sur l’École des Annales parce que dans l’après guerre, non seulement elle a été confrontée avec les sociologues, mais elle a en plus subi le défi que les anthropologues lui lancèrent en la personne surtout de Claude Lévi-Strauss qui s’efforça à contester l’Histoire, mettant comme priorité la découverte du fonctionnement de l’intelligence humaine - faculté caractéristique tout aussi permanente que stable - et ceci indépendamment de lieu ou de temps.
Le plus grand apport c’est à Braudel qu’on le doit. Braudel répondra en faisant tourner l’histoire vers d’autres sciences, comme la géographie, la sociologie, l’étude de la civilisation, l’ethnologie, et d’autres encore, s’efforçant d’expliquer et de prévaloir les structures qui se tissent dans la «longue durée».

3. LE CHANGEMENT DE L’HISTORIOGRAPHIE

La tradition historique classique se voit refusée et avec elle l’histoire politique, diplomatique, et militaire. L’état en tant qu’institution fondamentale de l’histoire des
peuples, ainsi que les personnalités importantes (des monarques, des rois, des politiciens, des généraux etc.) qu’ils façonnent le devenir historique, passent en deuxième position.
Par exemple, dans la société féodale de Bloch (1982), les rois restent dans la marge, alors que le féodalisme est conçu du point de vue anthropologique comme un ensemble d’institutions impersonnelles.
Finalement les annales focalisent leur intérêt sur des gens simples, des paysans, des ouvriers, des hommes de l’Église du bas de la hiérarchie, ainsi que sur des structures tant économiques que sociales qui les font évoluer, en relation avec la «structure» de leur environnement naturel. Les changements de ces structures si ils surviennent, suivent un rythme très lent.
C’est ainsi que le quotidien devient partie intégrante des historiens.

4. LE QUOTIDIEN ALORS C’EST CETTE HISTOIRE - LE TEMPS

Le temps dans l’historiographie des Annales change de forme et se relativise. Trois niveaux de temps historique se dessinent. Le temps structural de la longue durée, il s’agit d’un temps lent qui s’étale sur des siècles, voire même sur des périodes encore plus longues. Le temps périodique, qui se termine au bout d’une ou de quelques dizaines d’années. Le temps des événements et des faits, qui reflètent instantanément les activités humaines – Le quotidien (Braudel, 1958).

L’école des Annales réussit par le moyen de nouvelles méthodes et de sources

- d’exploiter et étendre le champ de l’Histoire,
- de coopérer avec d’autres branches scientifiques,
- et faire tourner la recherche historique vers d’autres champs comme l’histoire économique et sociale, l’histoire comparée, la psychologie historique, la généalologie.

5. FERNAND BRAUDEL - L’ÉCONOMIE


Braudel décrit l’institution de l’économie comme la construction d’un édifice à trois étages. Elle naît au rez-de-chaussée avec ce qu’il appelle l’économie de subsistance: l’humanité y a été quasi - confinée durant un million d’années; une bonne part s’y trouve encore, et ses progrès très lents ne lui ont que récemment permis de surmonter techniquement les famines répétitives.

Au premier étage (l’étage central), s’est progressivement développée l’économie du marché au niveau local: dans cet échange «à mesure humaine», que fut d’abord celui de la cité et de sa campagne, se sont justement cultivées les règles de l’économie de marché. Au second étage (l’étage supérieur), l’échange qu’entreprirent les caravanes puis les navires, les chemins de fer, l’aviation et les télécommunications, a tissé des économies-mondes, aujourd’hui ne formant plus qu’une seule: Aujourd’hui c’est le règne
de la macro-économie et de ses poids lourds (multinationales, institutions financières, principaux États).

L’occultation du rôle fondateur des étages inférieurs a eu de nombreuses et néfastes conséquences: on néglige ou on méprise non seulement leurs richesses ainsi que leur potentiels propre, mais aussi leurs rôle de contrepoids ou de contre-pouvoirs. On évacue de la pensée éducative leurs apports spécifiques (apprendre à survivre et à vivre, avant de «naviguer»), et toute une problématique qui permet l’accès à une perception des apprentissages sociaux, en excluant ainsi une part croissante de la population; on s’interdit de penser les articulations et les passages entre les niveaux que le jargon désigne par «micro» et «macro», et que la théorie réduit à des abstractions quantitatives.

L’antithèse soviétique, cette contre-économie-monde mimétique, a voulu éradiquer le germe capitaliste jusqu’aux étages inférieurs (où il n’existait pas vraiment): elle a ainsi ôté tout lien et toute attache avec l’étage supérieur, qui a fini par devenir une nomenclature hypertrophiée.

L’exploitation coloniale a de même relégué et folklorisé le rez-de-chaussée et l’étage intermédiaire de la production, de l’échange, et du pouvoir: lors des "indépendances", elle largua des États ou des secteurs dits modernes dans une sorte de stratosphère, sans oxygène, sans embrayage sur la créativité et la régulation sociales autochtones.

Retrouvant a travers son propre cheminement l’univers thématique complexe que Marx avait défini comme « le système des besoins et des capacités humaines », Braudel s’introduit dans l’analyse de ce champ de la vie quotidienne constitué par ces réalités économiques ou infra économiques, mais néanmoins toujours essentielles pour comprendre l’économie, que sont les formes de l’alimentation, des sources d’énergie, du vêtement, des espaces ruraux et urbains, des boissons, de l’habitat quotidien, ou des formes de la reproduction biologico-démographiques des sociétés. Braudel va ainsi être capable de penser le capitalisme et cette modernité dont il s’occupe, à partir d’une perspective fondamentalement critique.

En effet, a travers une démarche qui présente d’évidentes similitudes avec la réflexion de Marx, Braudel va expliquer le capitalisme a partir du monde de la consommation, et non pas de la production.

Il va en outre aborder la modernité à partir de la sphère de la civilisation matérielle et de la civilisation en général, ce qui lui permettra d’en souligner le caractère historique et éphémère.

Dans le prolongement de cette même ligne, l’auteur sera capable de relativiser, de repenser, voire de réexpliquer sous un jour original et nouveau la « Grande Histoire » qui obnubilent tellement les historiens positivistes, et cela justement à partir de cette histoire « menue » et « ordinaire » qu’est l’histoire essentielle de la vie quotidienne, l’histoire de la civilisation matérielle composée de ces structures de longue durée présentes de manière privilégiée dans le domaine du quotidien.

C’est pour être capable de comprendre, d’expliquer, puis de démontrer la véritable opérativité historique de ces structures de longue durée du quotidien qui ont été au centre de ses préoccupations que Fernand Braudel a construit le concept de civilisation ou de vie matérielle (Rojas, 2004: 318-319).
6. REMARQUES

Alors en contre-pied par rapport aux écoles historiques classiques, l’histoire du quotidien s’attache à étudier les activités des « petites gens », la vie sociale des personnes anonymes. Il en est ainsi pour la période nazie, dont l’étude par la recherche de l’histoire du quotidien permet un éclairage précis des processus de domination qui y ont eu cours et met en relief le rôle actif que beaucoup d’Allemands ont joué en faveur du nazisme.

L’histoire du quotidien s’inscrit en faux par rapport aux thèses d’une inéluctable rationalisation de l’histoire.

Si elle s’inspire de la micro-histoire, l’histoire du quotidien doit allier ses prosopographies de masse à une reconstitution, plus transversale, des processus historiques globaux, en formulant l’hypothèse que les « institutions », les « théories » et tout ce qui vient d’en haut, rendent incompréhensibles et déforment les réalités « d’en bas » (Lüdtke, 1994).

Nous pouvons remarquer qu’aujourd’hui Marc Augé, il s’attache à l’ethnologie des lieux quotidiens. Nous pouvons citer comme exemple, La traversée du Luxembourg en 1985, le livre qui l’a fait connaître au grand public, Un ethnologue dans le métro ou bien Non-lieux, une anthropologie de la surmodernité, dans lequel il étudie ces endroits de passage déshumanisés que sont halls de gare ou d’aéroport, chambres de grandes chaînes hôtelières ou camps de transit de par le monde.

Notre proposition s’identifie à l’interprétation que donne Marc Augé: c’est l’occasion d’une présentation buissonnière des principaux thèmes classiques de l’anthropologie, depuis le « fait social total » de Marcel Mauss, jusqu’à la question du symbolique, en passant par le problème de l’individu moyen (Augé, 2013).

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Biographies brèves

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Abstract

One of the key features in the educational process which can bring, through appropriate methods and techniques, positive results for the tutor, the child and the educational process, in general, is the infants’ evaluation during preschool education. This study was designed to explore the kindergarten teachers’ perspectives upon the infants’ assessment in preschool education. In order to achieve the objectives of the study, a research survey was conducted, during which a small-scale questionnaire was given to a convenience sample of 79 kindergarten teachers working in the public kindergartens in Chania. According to the results, significant deficiencies in kindergarten teachers’ training were observed. However, the importance of evaluation in the kindergarten, using alternative forms of assessment, such as the systematic observation and the portfolio was acknowledged by the kindergarten teachers. Portfolio itself is a major methodological tool, but it seems that the teachers are unaware of its organization; instead, the documentation of the children’s schoolwork is deemed to be the portfolio. The need for extra training during their studies in the Departments of Education and possibly through seminars is also pointed out by the teachers. In conclusion, the infants’ evaluation has been accepted by kindergarten teachers, as it is greatly conducive to the teaching and learning process.

Keywords: assessment, portfolio, preschool education, systematic observation.

1. Introduction

Evaluation in education, being an integral part of the educational reality, is of great concern particularly to the school community because of both its significance and its necessity. When focusing on preschool education, evaluation itself “constitutes a basic stage of every organized and systematic process, which is characterized by its planning, scheduling and implementation” (Ministry of Education-Pedagogical Institute, 2002: 702). The kindergarten teacher, based on the goals and the objectives set, gets involved both in the learning process of each child and in the educational process, through the implementation of various forms and techniques of evaluation. This type of evaluation can be the source of useful information about students’ performance and the effectiveness of the teaching and learning process and, on the whole, of the educational system itself.

Over the past few years, various forms of evaluation have been used by the kindergarten teachers, as they are suggested by the Ministry of Education (Ministry of Education, 2002) and the Kindergarten teachers’ Guide (Dafermou, Koulouri & Basagianni, 2006). These forms of evaluation include: the observation and recordings of the infants’ process, the evaluation of the team by the children and, finally, the infants’ portfolio. According to several studies, teachers run into difficulties in the planning of the evaluation, although its importance in preschool education is recognized. Deficiencies in their theoretical training on evaluation are also noticed. Besides, another finding is
concerned with their confusion in terms of the portfolio organization (Kakana, 2006; Kazela & Kakana, 2009).

In the light of the above findings and taking into account the importance of evaluation, an attempt is made by the present study to record the views of kindergarten teachers about infants’ assessment in early childhood education.

2. General issues related to the infants’ evaluation in the kindergarten

According to modern pedagogy, the concept of evaluation is deemed an important element of the teaching and learning process. Most researches having been conducted so far converge on the meaning of the evaluation (Appl, 2000; Doliopoulou, Zografou & Stefani, 2009; Gelfer, Xu & Perkins, 2004; Kakana, 2006; Klenowski, 2002; Konstantinou, 2002; Peters, Hartley, Rogers, Smith & Carr, 2009; Rekalidou, Zantali & Sofianidou, 2010). It is a systematic procedure in which data are collected, analyzed and interpreted in order to determine and assess the effectiveness of the educational goals.

In particular, in the Cross-Thematic Curriculum Framework (C.T.C.F.) reference is made to the fact that “the basic aim of evaluation is the feedback of the educational process aiming at the improvement of the provided education” (Ministry of Education-Pedagogic Institute, 2002:702). In the same vein, Epstein, Schweinhart, Debruijn and Robin (2004) argue that assessment is a continuous process including the collection, synthesis and elaboration of information about the students and, generally, the education. The same thoughts are put forward by Benson and Smith (1998), pointing out the significance in the use of the evaluation tools to assess learning, to provide diagnostic information and to enhance the effectiveness of teaching. Thus, the evaluation constitutes a powerful tool on any educational level.

Assessment in the first school years is essential in any educational program. Many researchers claim that, through assessment, a clear picture of the child’s development is provided (Davies & LeMahieu, 2003; Seitz & Bartholomew, 2008; Zografou, Kaberi & Birbili, 2006). More specifically, assessment in the kindergarten can be defined as a process of collecting important information related to each child’s knowledge, abilities and developmental level. Appl (2000) points out that the assessment of children aged 4-5 years should be diagnostic, monitor their progress, but should also support the tutor’s educational planning. The same point of view is shared by C.T.C.F. in which the idea that “evaluation is a sustained action, integrated in the daily process and based on the overall assessment of the program” is underlined (Ministry of Education-Pedagogic Institute, 2002:702).

Moreover, Epstein et al (2004) report that four major types of information can be provided by evaluation in the kindergarten in order to:

- Identify children who may need specialized assistance or support in the classroom.
- Provide information concerning the educational planning of teaching on both an individual and a group level.
- Optimize the educational program and the training needs of educators.
- Assess the educational program’s efficiency and its goals.

The child’s evaluation takes place in the natural environment of kindergarten during: (a) the daily program of activities, (b) the symbolic play, (c) while playing in the schoolyard, (d) the free-choice and organized activities, both individually and in groups (Doliopoulou
& Gourgiotou, 2008). However, it should be mentioned that the individual growth, the learning ability of each child, its needs, interests and inclinations should be taken into account during the assessment process. Also, regardless of what kind of assessment methods are used, they must be tailored to the age, learning level and the children’s experiences.

The role of the kindergarten teacher in the evaluation is crucial. Children are systematically observed while their capabilities and potential are discovered. Furthermore, children’s learning is checked and, in the end, the achievement of the program’s goals, which were set both on an individual and on a group level, is assessed. By evaluating anything that happens in the classroom, kindergarten teachers realize how to intervene and better support children’s learning. Sivropoulou, Tsakiridou and Papadopoulou (2006) believe that, should evaluation be implemented in the right way by the kindergarten teachers, it will become a valuable and supportive tool for the child’s development, the educational planning while communication between teachers and families can be facilitated.

Evaluation in the kindergarten is an important and topical issue that has been of great concern to the kindergarten teachers for the two last decades. The C.T.C.F. and the Kindergarten teachers’ Guide are two important key devices for the teachers, in which, through special topics, the purpose, the importance and the forms of assessment are presented. According to Kakana’s (2006) research, both C.T.C.F. and the Kindergarten teachers’ guide lack clear methodological suggestions and detailed planning of the evaluation methods.

Evaluation is certainly not an easy process, as surveys that have been conducted in Greece about kindergarten teachers’ views regarding the infants’ assessment, reveal some weaknesses. It was found out by Botsoglou and Panagiotidou (2006) that there are deficiencies in their theoretical training related to the assessment process. The same conclusions have been reached by Rekalidou’s research (2008), since a high percentage of kindergarten teachers (83%) said that they haven’t received further education in evaluation and only 17% said they have. Doliopoulou et al (2009) came up with the same results pointing out the empirical approach of evaluation by kindergarten teachers and the lack of training during their undergraduate studies.

Besides, there are interesting results concerning the purpose and the importance of evaluation in kindergarten. Most of the teachers believe that evaluation helps them to feed back into the educational process while a small percentage considers evaluation highly necessary in dealing with behavioral or learning problems (Botsoglou & Panagiotidou, 2006; Kakana, 2006; Kazela & Kakana, 2009; Rekalidou, 2008; Sakellariou, 2006).

With respect to evaluation methods which are used by kindergarten teachers, most surveys report weaknesses. Some researchers found that portfolio and systematic observation are used mostly in the classroom while other methods of evaluation such as the occasional notes and the audio and video recordings are used by a small percentage of kindergarten teachers (Botsoglou & Panagiotidou, 2006; Kakana, 2006; Kazela & Kakana, 2009; Sivropoulou et al, 2006). Botsoglou and Panagiotidou (2006) found out that portfolio was selected as the first choice by 65% of the sample but it is used erroneously as a filing system of worksheets that have been given to children by the teacher. The same conclusion was also reached by Sivropoulou et al (2006), as well as
Kakana (2006). Teachers seemed to confuse the portfolio with the file of the student’s work.

The recorded reports regarding further training and briefing of kindergarten teachers in infants’ evaluation are confirmed by the findings of Doliopoulou et al (2009) and Kazela and Kakana (2009), in which the undergraduate education in the Departments of Education and the organization of training seminars are very important for the teachers.

On the basis of these findings there is an indication that assessment in kindergarten seems to be the kindergarten teachers’ weakness. Therefore, the current study focus was placed on capturing the views of kindergarten teachers in the municipality of Chania about infants’ assessment in preschool education. Specifically, this study was an attempt to answer the following research questions:

- How much further education have kindergarten teachers received in infants’ evaluation?
- What are the views of kindergarten teachers in relation to:
  - I. The value and the contribution of assessment in the kindergarten, in general.
  - II. The value of the portfolio as an assessment tool in the kindergarten, in particular.
- What methods and techniques of evaluation are used in the kindergarten and how frequently they are used?
- What are the difficulties of the implementation of assessment in the kindergarten?
- How kindergarten teachers organize the infants’ portfolio.
- What are the views of kindergarten teachers on how they can be trained more effectively concerning the evaluation in kindergarten?

The present research was considered necessary as a part of a broader reflection on the issue of assessment in the kindergarten and the purpose was to contribute and point out the importance of evaluation and to identify the potential needs and problems faced by kindergarten teachers.

3. Methodology

A research survey was conducted in order to achieve the objectives of the study. This type of approach collects, analyzes and presents data without proceeding to an analysis of the causes or the relationships between variables (Cohen, Manion & Morisson, 2008).

3.1 Sample

The sample of the research was selected from the population of kindergarten teachers of preschool education, who work in 32 public kindergartens in the prefecture of Chania during the school year 2010-2011 and it is consisted of 86 kindergarten teachers. The kindergarten teachers were selected with a convenient sampling. This method is used in small scale researches, in which the researcher has the largest access to people being close to him (Cohen et al, 2008). The kindergarten teachers who eventually participated in the survey were 79 (91, 86% response rate). The demographic characteristics of the sample are described in Table 1.
Table 1: Demographic characteristics of the sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>96,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SUM</strong></td>
<td>79</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work experience</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-10</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>49,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>25,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>22,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 plus</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23-33</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>26,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34-44</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>34,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-55</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>39,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56 plus</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Highest educational level</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School of kindergarten teachers.</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School of Kindergarten teachers and Teacher-Training Center.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University Department of Education.</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>62,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University Department of Education and Master.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University Department of Education and Teacher-Training Center.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University Department of Education and second degree.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctoral degree.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Specifically, it seems that women form the majority of the sample. Furthermore, 49,4% of the sample has been working from 1 up to 10 years and 25,3% has been working from 11 up to 20 years in the kindergarten. Moreover, the majority of the sample belongs to
the age group of 44-55 years and as far as the educational level of kindergarten teachers is concerned, 62% are graduates of the University Departments of Education.

3.2 Data collection methods

The questionnaire was selected as the most appropriate methodological tool so as to conduct the survey. According to Papanastasiou and Papanastasiou (2005), a questionnaire is an important means which can collect data from a lot of people while the quantitative and the statistical analysis can be revealed.

In order that reliability and validity of the study is achieved, which is very important according to Cohen et al (2008), a pilot research was conducted in four public kindergartens in which 16 kindergarten teachers participated. During the pilot research, some modifications and configurations of the questionnaire were made on a morphological, conceptual and syntactic level. The questionnaires were given out and collected personally by the researcher himself in the kindergartens, expecting a big rate of attendance and also aiming at the provision of explanations to any on-the-spot queries made by the teachers (Papanastasiou & Papanastasiou, 2005).

The questionnaire was divided in three parts. The first part included closed-ended questions about the demographic characteristics of the sample. The second part consisted of a closed-ended question about the type of kindergarten teachers’ training regarding the infant’s evaluation. The third part included: a) closed-ended questions about the significance of evaluation in the kindergarten, to what extent techniques and methods of evaluation are used by the teachers, the possible difficulties in the infant’s evaluation in the classroom, the importance of portfolio in the kindergarten, the way the portfolio is organized by the teachers, the views of teachers concerning possible further ways of training in infant’s evaluation and b) an open-ended question in which additional opinions relevant to the evaluation could be expressed by the kindergarten teachers. The questions were designed on a 5-point Likert scale (not at all, a little, enough (quite), a lot, very much/never, rarely, sometimes, often, always) and some other questions on a 5-semantic differential scale (1=minimum, 2, 3, 4, 5=maximum).

The questionnaires were accompanied by a letter describing the purpose of the research, assuring the participants’ anonymity and confidentiality. Upon completion of the pilot research, the questionnaires were given to the kindergarten teachers in the last week of February 2011.

4. Results

When all the questionnaires were returned, data were encoded and the responses were registered on the computer for statistical analysis. Data processing was performed by using the statistical package SPSS 16.0 for Windows. In particular, the frequency (N), the percentage (%), the mode and the median were used as the statistical criteria in the data analysis.

In the first part of the questionnaire reference was made to the demographic characteristics of the sample. The second part of the questionnaire included a question concerning the kindergarten teachers’ training in infants’ evaluation (first research question). Table 2 presents the mode and the median related to the level of kindergarten teachers’ training in infants’ evaluation.
As it can be seen from Table 2, the kindergarten teachers were trained a little in the Departments of University. Also, it seems that kindergarten teachers were trained on a low level both by attending seminars and studying relevant books, so their training is not enough though.

The second research question aimed at recording: a) the views of kindergarten teachers about the significance of evaluation in the kindergarten and b) the value of the infants’ portfolio as an assessment tool. Table 3 presents the median and the mode of the views of kindergarten teachers concerning the contribution of the infants’ assessment in preschool education.

### Table 2: Level of kindergarten teachers’ training on infants’ evaluation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of kindergarten teachers’ training in infants’ evaluation</th>
<th>MODE*</th>
<th>MEDIAN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Training during the academic studies.</td>
<td>1,0</td>
<td>2,0 (min.1-max.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate seminars.</td>
<td>2,0</td>
<td>2,0 (min.1-max.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study of relevant books.</td>
<td>2,0</td>
<td>2,0 (min.1-max.5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Scale 1-5, where 1=not at all, 2=a little, 3=enough, 4=a lot and 5=very much.

According to Table 3, the kindergarten teachers agree quite a lot on the view that assessment helps the feedback of the educational process. At the same time, assessment is considered to vastly improve their teaching and helps them to identify children with learning or behavioral problems.

### Table 3: Views of kindergarten teachers concerning the significance of infants’ assessment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Views of kindergarten teachers</th>
<th>MODE*</th>
<th>MEDIAN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Provides feedback for the educational process.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4 (min.2-max.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kindergarten teachers’ teaching improves.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4 (min.2-max.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helps to better understand the taught material.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4 (min.2-max.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contributes to the recording of the individual development of the children.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4 (min.3-max.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The programs’ effectiveness is assessed.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4 (min.2-max.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilitates children’s learning.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4 (min.1-max.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identifies children with learning difficulties.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4 (min.1-max.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identifies children with behavioral problems.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4 (min.1-max.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Briefing of the family.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4 (min.2-max.5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Scale 1-5, where 1=not at all, 2=a little, 3=enough, 4=a lot and 5=very much.
Table 4 presents the percentage of kindergarten teachers’ ratings regarding the importance of the infants’ portfolio as an assessment tool. It also provides information about the median and the mode of their views.

**Table 4:** Views of kindergarten teachers regarding the importance of infants’ portfolio

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Views of kindergarten teachers</th>
<th>Percentage of ratings (%)</th>
<th>MODE</th>
<th>MEDIAN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lower degree 1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The development and the learning progress of children are evaluated.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2,5</td>
<td>13,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gives a representative picture of the children’s capabilities and vulnerabilities.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3,8</td>
<td>25,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is a means to communicate with parents.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7,6</td>
<td>36,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Checks the level of the children’s acquired knowledge and skills.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1,3</td>
<td>19,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The best means to record the infant’s evolution.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6,3</td>
<td>22,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It constitutes a quantitative file of the children’s worksheets.</td>
<td>20,3</td>
<td>13,9</td>
<td>25,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is a proof of the teacher’s work.</td>
<td>3,8</td>
<td>17,7</td>
<td>32,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The quality of the infants’ work and his knowledge is self-assessed.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5,1</td>
<td>30,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portfolio compares children’s performance.</td>
<td>30,4</td>
<td>15,2</td>
<td>21,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is a means to assess by getting children, kindergarten teachers and parents involved.</td>
<td>1,3</td>
<td>11,4</td>
<td>29,1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As Table 4 shows, the majority of kindergarten teachers (62%) seems to acknowledge largely the value of the portfolio as it helps them to check the level of the children’s acquired knowledge and skills whereas the view that portfolio is the best means to record infants’ evolution is supported by 46,8% of the sample. Finally, in few cases the portfolio functions as a proof of the kindergarten teachers’ work in collaboration with children.
The third research question is concerned with the methods and techniques of evaluation used by the kindergarten teachers. Table 5 shows the median and the mode of the methods and techniques of evaluation that are used.

**Table 5: Methods and techniques of infants’ evaluation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Methods and techniques of infants’ evaluation</th>
<th>MODE*</th>
<th>MEDIAN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Systematic observation.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4 (min.1-max.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kindergarten teachers’ diary.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3 (min.1-max.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recordings at the beginning of the school year.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3 (min.1-max.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portfolio.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4 (min.1-max.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation sheets for infants.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3 (min.1-max.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questionnaires.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1 (min.1-max.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1 (min.1-max.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviews with infants (audio recordings).</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1 (min.1-max.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Video tape recordings.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1 (min.1-max.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casual notes.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3 (min.1-max.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1 (min.4-max.5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Scale 1-5, where 1=not at all, 2=a little, 3=enough, 4=a lot and 5=very much.

As far as the methods and the techniques of the infants’ evaluation are concerned, as Table 5 presents, the portfolio is highly preferred while the questionnaires, tests, interviews with children and the video recordings are hardly ever used. Ultimately, the systematic observation is used by the kindergarten teachers quite a lot.

The difficulties with which kindergarten teachers are faced in the implementation of evaluation in the school are the fourth research question. Table 6 presents the median and the mode of kindergarten teachers’ views about the difficulties which are encountered when assessment in the classroom is implemented.

**Table 6: Difficulties in the implementation of infants’ assessment**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Difficulties in the implementation of infants’ assessment</th>
<th>MODE*</th>
<th>MEDIAN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The large number of children in the classroom.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4 (min.1-max.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The incomplete theoretical training of kindergarten teachers.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4 (min.1-max.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training through practical examples.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4 (min.1-max.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The need for specialized knowledge about children with learning or behavioral problems.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4 (min.1-max.5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Scale 1-5, where 1=not at all, 2=a little, 3=enough, 4=a lot and 5=very much.

According to Table 6, it seems that big classes and a need for specialized knowledge about children with learning or behavioral problems form two very important factors that make it difficult for the kindergarten teachers to assess infants.

The fifth research question sought to document whether the portfolio, as an assessment tool, is used by the kindergarten teachers and which ways are used to organize the
portfolio. Chart 1 shows the frequencies and the percentages of kindergarten teachers using the portfolio in the classroom.

**Chart 1:** The use of portfolio in the classroom

![Chart showing portfolio use](image)

As Chart 1 shows, the majority of kindergarten teachers apparently use the portfolio to assess infants. Then, Table 7 presents the median and the mode of the kindergarten teachers’ views about the ways used to organize children’s portfolios.

**Table 7:** Ways kindergarten teachers organize the portfolio

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ways of infants’ portfolio organization</th>
<th>MODE*</th>
<th>MEDIAN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Placing all of the worksheets of the children.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5 (min.1-max.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Placing all of the worksheets of the children in chronological order.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5 (min.1-max.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creation of subfolders according to the subject matters of C.T.C.F.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4 (min.1-max.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selection and placing of representative worksheets from each subject matter that the C.T.C.F. defines.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3 (min.1-max.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selection and placing of representative worksheets with the children’s collaboration according to the subject matters of C.T.C.F.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1 (min.1-max.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Placing of representative worksheets that have been selected by the children according to the subject matters of C.T.C.F.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2 (min.1-max.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Placing of handwritten documents and notes of kindergarten teachers.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2 (min.1-max.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Placing of electronic records (photos, audio and video recordings).</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3 (min.1-max.5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Scale 1-5, where 1 = never, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often and 5 = always

As it can be seen in Table 7, it is evident that the portfolio is organized by the kindergarten teachers, either by placing all the worksheets of the children or by placing all the worksheets in chronological order or by creating subfolders according to the subject matters of C.T.C.F. Besides, rarely or never do the teachers choose and place the
children’s representative worksheets either by themselves or with the children’s assistance.

The last research question was designed to explore the views of kindergarten teachers about their further training in infants’ assessment. Table 8 presents the percentage, the mode and the median of the kindergarten teachers’ views regarding their extra training.

**Table 8**: Ways of further training of kindergarten teachers regarding the evaluation in preschool education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Views of Kindergarten teachers</th>
<th>Percentage of efficacy (%)</th>
<th>MODE</th>
<th>MEDIAN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lower degree 1, 2, 3, 4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University training.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5,1</td>
<td>10,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seminars by preschool advisors.</td>
<td>2,5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training courses organized by the Regional Further-Training Centers.</td>
<td>5,1</td>
<td>5,1</td>
<td>17,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-operation among kindergarten teachers.</td>
<td>2,5</td>
<td>12,7</td>
<td>30,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attendance of conferences.</td>
<td>2,5</td>
<td>11,4</td>
<td>21,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study of relevant books and scientific articles.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>10,1</td>
<td>26,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Search for information on the internet.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>19,0</td>
<td>30,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher degree 5</td>
<td></td>
<td>51,9</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5 (min.2-max.5)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5 (min.1-max.5)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4 (min.1-max.5)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4 (min.1-max.5)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4 (min.2-max.5)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3 (min.2-max.5)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8 shows that the majority of kindergarten teachers (57%) consider it essential that the preschool advisors conduct seminars while a large percentage (51.9%) claims that training at the University, during their undergraduate studies, may be helpful enough. Training courses by Regional Further-Training Centers are considered important (38%) but co-operation among kindergarten teachers seems a difficult goal to achieve.

5. Discussion of findings

According to the results of the study, a first finding is that the majority of the sample has been trained a little in the infants’ evaluation, although they are graduates of Educational Departments. The ascertainment of other researchers are confirmed by this result (Kazela & Kakana, 2009; Rekalidou, 2008) in which a large percentage of kindergarten teachers (70% out of 80 kindergarten teachers and 83% out of 63 respectively) have not been trained in infants’ assessment. At the same time, this finding is opposite to the
findings of Botsoglou and Panagiotidou (2006) stating that most of the kindergarten teachers (86.3% out of 73) have received relevant training in evaluation. Regarding the contribution of the infant’s evaluation in preschool education, the kindergarten teachers believe that it helps them with the recording of the personal development of children and with the improvement of their teaching ways. Simultaneously, according to lower but important percentages, evaluation can help teachers track down children with learning or behavioral problems. Similar findings are also presented by Appl (2000), Botsoglou and Panagiotidou (2006) and Seitz and Bartholomew (2008).

The use of the portfolio is considered a suitable technique for the implementation of assessment in kindergarten by most kindergarten teachers. Among their other preferences, the systematic observation, the occasional notes and the kindergarten teacher’s diary with recordings at the beginning of the school year are also used in class. Thus, it seems that alternative methods rather than the traditional ones are used by the kindergarten teachers. These results are consistent with the findings of several relevant surveys that were conducted in the past (Doliopoulou et al., 2009; Gelfer & Perkins, 1996; Kakana, 2006; Kazela & Kakana, 2009; Sivropoulou et al., 2006). It is worth mentioning, however, that other assessment techniques, as reported by the C.T.C.F. and the Kindergarten teachers’ Guide, were not mentioned by kindergarten teachers. Such techniques are: the evaluation of the results of the projects and the group’s assessment by the children collectively.

The big classes and the specialized knowledge needed for children with difficulties are accentuated as the two most important issues by the responses of kindergarten teachers about the difficulties in implementing infants’ assessment whereas it is stated by Kazela and Kakana (2009) that theoretical training and training via practical examples are the most significant difficulties.

The significance of the portfolio, the evaluation of the infants’ development and the checking of the children’s knowledge and skills are recorded as positive advantages. The portfolio was also identified as the most appropriate tool to survey and record infants’ evolution as a representative picture of the infants’ possibilities and weaknesses is simultaneously depicted. These results are also confirmed by the research of Doliopoulou et al. (2009).

As regards the ways used by kindergarten teachers to organize the portfolios, it seemed that all children’s worksheets were placed by most of them either in chronological order or by creating specific folders according to the subject matters of C.T.C.F. Relative results have also been found by Botsoglou and Panagiotidou (2006) and Kazela and Kakana (2009). As a result, that there is confusion in terms of organizing the portfolio as kindergarten teachers believe that the documentation of the children’s schoolwork is the same thing as the portfolio.

Additionally, it was found that almost all kindergarten teachers are very willing to be trained on the topic of evaluation, highlighting both the important role and the contribution of preschool advisors and academic education. Moreover, seminars in Regional Further-Training Centers, the attendance of conferences and study of relevant books or articles searching on web can be used for further training. The same findings are confirmed by the data of other researchers (Doliopoulou et al., 2009; Gatioura, Dragini, Birbili & Sarri, 2008; Kazela & Kakana, 2009).
A main limitation of this study is the small number of participants as it does not allow the generalization of the research findings to the whole population. Nevertheless, the present study pointed out the significance of infants’ evaluation in preschool education. Further studies are needed to understand the existing gap between teachers’ beliefs and practices regarding infants’ assessment in kindergartens.

6. Final conclusions and recommendations

The main conclusion is that although kindergarten teachers have been trained a little, the major role of evaluation is identified, as it is configured by the C.T.C.F. and the basic principle that evaluation aims at the feedback of the educational process is supported (Ministry of Education, 2002). As regards the evaluation techniques and the methods, kindergarten teachers seem to apply the systematic observation, the diary, and the occasional notes while the portfolio is used to a larger extent. Indeed, it is believed by the majority of the teachers believe that the portfolio is considered as an alternative means of evaluating the children’s development regarding their skills and knowledge. However, there are concerns about the organization of portfolio as the whole schoolwork and not only the children’s representative worksheets are placed in it by the kindergarten teachers, according to the recommendations of the Kindergarten teachers’ Guide. So, the idea that the portfolio is completely different from the classic file of schoolwork is not yet fully comprehended; thus, portfolios are incorrectly organized.

Kindergarten teachers face difficulties in implementing assessment, related mainly to the big classes and the lack of additional knowledge about children with problems. This view may be justified by the partially inadequate infrastructure that exists in Chania and the increasing number of pupils with special educational needs. Besides, the need for further training is emphasized by the kindergarten teachers and their suggestions are related more to seminars by the preschool advisors. Unfortunately, co-operation among colleagues and exchange of pedagogical ideas are not important to the teachers but a particular emphasis is placed on the academic knowledge and the three-months training course of Regional Further-Training Centers.

To sum up, it’s necessary to point out that evaluation is considered essential in any educational program. The need to formulate proposals at various levels is highlighted by both the findings of this research and the corresponding bibliography. There is still room for improvement so a further exploration of infant’s assessment with a representative sample of kindergarten teachers and the possibility to use a different methodological approach (qualitative research), may provide new information and helpful suggestions.

The degree of kindergarten teachers’ training is a finding that has been established by many studies. Consequently, it is important to obtain a more complete training during the undergraduate studies with a possible redevelopment of the Curriculum in the Departments of Education and its enrichment with pedagogical practical approaches. Moreover, the kindergarten teachers’ weakness in relation to evaluation could be possibly strengthened through educational activities carried out by the preschool advisors in the form of seminars or meetings, with an emphasis on linking theory with practice. Furthermore, the improvement of C.T.C.F. and Kindergarten Teacher’s Guide with more complete references, examples and practical information can be positively conducive to the effective implementation of evaluation by the teachers.
It’s pointed out that the role of the kindergarten teacher is considered crucial for the effective implementation of the evaluation in early childhood education. Therefore, it is necessary for the teachers to change outdated educational practices and utilize the evaluation process by integrating it into the daily kindergarten schedule. Undoubtedly, the assessment process must be supported by the kindergarten teachers through suitable techniques. Thus, a continuous training is considered necessary for the teachers to implement assessment during the educational process.

References


**Brief biography**

Anastasios Pekis is a kindergarten teacher in the municipality of Chania. He studied in the Department of Early Childhood Education of University of Thessaly and Theory of Education/Curriculum Development in Education Sciences in the Open University of Cyprus (master degree). His research interests concern assessment in early childhood education.
From teaching English to adults to teaching children: the changes that a teacher has to make

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Abstract
This paper will consider the methodological changes that teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) who have been teaching adult learners must make when they have to or wish to teach younger learners, i.e. children. In a social and cultural environment where adjustments in the way (foreign language) teachers work are imperative, the current work will offer a discussion that will analyze both theoretical and practical issues of the matter. On the basis of the consideration of younger and older learner characteristics, the paper will argue that the topic-centered approach, couched within the inter/multi-disciplinary method of teaching, integrated with fun activities may be a suitable and effective way of teaching foreign languages to children.

Keywords: English as a Foreign Language, young learners, adult learners, topic-centered approach, fun activities.

1. Introduction
As early as 1991 Brumfit claimed that EFL teachers of teenagers or adults who wish to work with children need to make important changes in their teaching expectations and methodology. Acknowledging the necessity of this different perspective which is also imposed by the characteristics of our era, this paper will discuss the various changes that EFL teachers have to make when they wish or need to move to teaching children, as well as the parameters they must consider in order to make these changes in an informed and principled way.

The paper is organized as follows: Section 2 will examine some theoretical considerations which can provide useful insights to EFL teachers, namely theories of cognitive development in children and research findings on age-related differences in foreign language learning. Section 3 will present the characteristics of adults while Section 4 will discuss the characteristics of young learners, as well as the methodological changes that these characteristics dictate. Section 5 will consider the inter/multi-disciplinary, i.e. cross-curricular oriented topic-centered approach and will briefly present a platform for European state schools that is based on this approach and helps teachers implement it in the classroom. Section 6 will provide an overview of how to integrate fun activities in the classroom and Section 7 will conclude the paper summarizing the basic points.

2. How children think and learn
Various theories have attempted to explain children’s cognitive development (see Lightbown & Spada 2000; 2006 for an overview of the various theoretical proposals). For the purposes of this discussion the theories of Piaget and Bruner and the educational implications that these have will be discussed.
According to Piaget, all children pass through a series of stages before they construct the ability to reason in mature ways. Teaching can only influence the course of cognitive development if children are cognitively ‘ready’ to assimilate the concepts they are presented with. Unless this is the case, adult intervention in the form of instruction can lead only to superficial rote learning but not to genuine progress (Wood 1988). According to Shorrocks (1991) the educational implications of the Piagetian view can lead to a degree of inertia on the part of teachers as they may feel that they cannot change an internal developmental process and help children develop their mental abilities. Bruner on the other hand, acknowledges the influence of biology in the development of human cognition, but at the same time emphasizes the central role of social interaction, language and instruction in the development of a child’s mind (Wood 1988). His theory is based on the psychological framework of information processing. According to this, humans take in information, store it, retrieve, utilize and transform it into knowledge by means of progressively more sophisticated learning strategies. The teacher’s role within this framework is to make a sensitive intervention in the developmental process by helping children develop an understanding of their own learning strategies and procedures and so move from being a novice to being an expert ‘understander’ (Shorrocks 1991). Crucially, within Bruner’s approach, the role of the teacher with respect to language development is to guide the child with carefully selected linguistic input, a process referred to as ‘scaffolding’ (Cameron, 2001). Bruner describes this process as follows: “Scaffolding refers to the steps taken to reduce the degrees of freedom in carrying out some task so that the child can concentrate on the difficult skill s/he is in the process of acquiring (Bruner, 178:19).”

Thus, on the background of recent research in psychology which has lent support to Bruner’s model of cognitive development, teachers not only have the ability but also the obligation to help children develop cognitively. This is a point that EFL teachers of adults moving on to teach children should take into serious consideration when they review their approach. While their adult learners have matured cognitively and are at a stable and end-state with respect to their cognitive development, children are still in the process of such maturation with all the implications that this has for any designed educational intervention.

2.1 The younger the better?

On the assumption that children’s cognition is still underdeveloped and, therefore, younger learners are unable to perceive the world like adults do, we could hypothesize that children faced with a highly complex mental activity like that of learning a foreign language (L2) may encounter more problems and difficulties than adults will.

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1 The notion of ‘scaffolding’ is very close to Vygotsky’s ‘Zone of Proximal Development’ and in some cases the terms are used interchangeably.

2 The term ‘foreign language learning’ refers to the process of learning a language other than the language of the community or the language spoken at home, though formal instruction. The term ‘second language acquisition’ refers to the process of language learning in cases of individual or societal bilingualism. However, within the realm of the mentalist perspective on language acquisition (based on the theories of Chomsky and his associates) also extended to foreign language learning whereby the same processes that operate in first language acquisition are also in operation in the learning of another language later in life, the terms can be used interchangeably.
Research findings in the area of child-adult differences in second language acquisition (SLA) are hard to interpret and the results are far from conclusive. Thus, the above claim cannot be supported or rejected altogether. According to Krashen, Scarcella & Long (1982) literature in this field allows for two generalizations to be made concerning the effect of age on rate and eventual attainment of L2: i) adults were found to proceed through the early stages of syntactic and morphological development faster than children and ii) acquirers who begin natural exposure to second languages during childhood generally achieve higher proficiency than those beginning as adults. So, as Krashen, Scarcella & Long pointed out, children appear to be ultimately more successful than adults in learning a second language but they are not always faster.

The basic hypothesis behind the widely held view that children may be more successful than adults in learning a foreign/second language is the claim that there is a neurologically based critical period for the acquisition of a language which is manifested as innate cerebral flexibility for the processing of speech and language and lasts until early puberty. Elaboration of linguistic input after this critical period is argued to deteriorate (see Lennenberg 1967; Johnson & Newport 1991; Patkowski in press). Much research into L2 acquisition over the last decades has offered support to this view and has attempted to identify the specific areas of language that are subject to maturational effects. Recent studies support that the area of the syntax is particularly vulnerable in L2 acquisition, especially if the L1 and L2 have different syntactic properties with respect to a specific phenomenon (Hawkins & Hattori 2006, Tsimpi & Dimitrakopoulou 2007, Prentza 2010, 2012, Prentza & Tsimpi in press). Brown (2000) and Larson-Hall (2004) argued that the acquisition of phonemic contrasts, i.e. phonological acquisition, may also be subject to maturational effects: if a contrast feature is not acquired within a critical period the relevant phonemic contrast will not be perceived in the of L2 acquisition of a language which manifests them.

The implication of such proposals is that adult learners of a language will have a biological disadvantage compared to younger children in the task/process of language learning. Findings that adults are more successful than children in the initial stages of acquisition can be related to the fact that language learning does only involve competence, i.e. innate knowledge of a language determined by neurobiological factors, but also performance, i.e. the use of the language in the real world determined by a variety of external factors, skills and abilities. The knowledge of one or more linguistic systems (L1 and other foreign languages) that the adult learners brings into the classroom may, by hypothesis, hinder the acquisition of syntactic structures but may prove valuable as regards the contribution of ready-to-use strategies of language learning, as will also be discussed in the following section.

What the discussion presented so far has indicated is that EFL teachers working with children should perhaps allow for more time in any designed educational intervention than they would allow in an intervention targeting adult learners. However, they should also have in mind that the final results regarding the acquisition of particular structures should be at least comparable with that of adult populations (see also Moon 2005) or even more successful.

Before presenting the characteristics of young learners in more detail, a discussion of the features of adult learners will be provided.
3. Adult Learner Characteristics

Besides the assumed deficit that adult foreign language learners may exhibit, some other features that they have are crucial in the discussion of their differences with younger learner populations. Although the literature provides lengthy lists of differences between younger and order learners, the following paragraphs will attempt to present differences that truly distinguish between the two populations.

Unlike children, adult language learners are goal-oriented and direct their learning to fulfill particular needs, for example, professional or academic. Moreover, like children, they have different learning styles; some of them prefer the learning styles developed during their school years (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson 1998) while others prefer styles and techniques that proved useful in real-life tasks. In any case, the repertoire of the learning methods that they have at their disposal is larger than that of the children’s.

As mentioned above, adult learners have developed a complete linguistic system in their L1, and potentially know other foreign languages. This means that they have also developed language learning strategies and techniques that children may lack, at least to a great extent. The experience with one or more languages can in principle affect positively meta-linguistic awareness not only at the level of strategies available, but also at the level of linguistic system analysis. In other words, adult learners may be able to ‘notice’ more easily than children how a linguistic system works.

Finally, adopting the view that language aptitude is considered to be a combination of several cognitive factors (working memory, attention span, information processing, phonological coding and decoding) and assuming that cognitive development is complete in adults, but not in children (Robinson 2005), then we would expect that adults may outperform children in certain linguistic tasks.

4. Young Learner Characteristics

Some of the basic characteristics of young learners are: i) they are still developing mentally, ii) they have no real linguistic needs, iii) they learn slowly iv) they are egocentric and better mimics (Clark 1990). All the above differentiate them form adult learners and show the direction towards which EFL teachers should make any relevant adjustments in their teaching. In what follows these characteristics will be discussed in more detail.

Since young children are still developing their mental and cognitive abilities, it is more possible that the EFL teacher will be faced with a class of mixed-ability in terms of cognitive development than if he/she was working with adults. Despite the common to foreign language teachers observation that teaching a foreign language to adults is by no means a situation of class homogeneity, for all the reasons mentioned previously, the divergence that stems from a difference in the stage or state of cognitive development is qualitatively distinct from the divergence on the basis of socio-cultural or individual factors that mainly distinguish one adult learner from another.

Returning to younger learner characteristics, some students may have tremendous limitations on thinking while others may be capable of coping with abstract and complex thinking (Clark 1990). From this naturally follows that a successful approach to teaching

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3 For example points like the diversity of learning styles or of educational background will not be discussed since these characteristics are also attested in children groups too.
children could be one that can reconcile these developmental differences. To this end, EFL teachers could consider the use of activities which proceed from the concrete to the abstract or activities designed on the basis of the principles of differentiated learning (see for example Shaul 2011 on differentiated teaching in EFL classrooms).

Moving to the second characteristic, children in most of the cases have no real linguistic needs in the sense that they do not need for whatever reasons to learn a foreign language and cannot see the purpose of doing so. Here, it must be noted that we are not referring to children with an immigrant background or children living in bi/multi-lingual societies or children attending immersion schools. In order to keep children motivated in the way that adults usually are with respect to foreign language learning, the teacher should create a real need and desire to use English (Moon 2000; Vosniadou 2001). This can be achieved through challenging and interesting to the children communicative activities based on the element of fun. All the new technological means with the fascinating environment they can create could also be used towards that direction (see Shetzer & Warschauer 2000).

Moreover, as has already touched upon, children are still developing as thinkers (Slatterly & Willis 2001), they have short attention spans, and, as any teachers knows, a lot of physical energy. These probably show that teachers used to working with adults should not expect to cover as much material in the same period of time as they did with their adult students. Conversely, they might consider adjusting their program to the learning abilities and pace of their young students. Clark (1990) claims that these feature also indicate that L2 teaching and learning could be combined with non-linguistic learning as well: skills, general conceptual development, knowledge of the world, ability to work with others etc. This integration of learning goals can be achieved through the introduction of topic-centered work into the EFL classroom, as will be discussed in section 5.

Another characteristic of children is that they tend to be egocentric, i.e. they see themselves as the center around which the(ir) world evolves. EFL teachers can capitalize upon this egocentricity by relating as much of the content of L2 teaching as possible to children’s everyday life in home and at school. Topics like “my family”, “my home”, “my favorite books” can be used by the EFL teacher in an attempt to personalize language teaching. Notice however, that although this technique is used for the teaching of adults as well, the topics chosen for the children should be as specific, tangible, fun as possible always relating to the physical world, a source of great excitement and learning for the children (Scott & Ytreberg 1990).

The fewer inhibitions and the low affective filter (for details see Dulay, Burt & Krashen 1982) that children exhibit compared to adult learners make them more willing to experiment with the language and imitate new sounds. Since children are better mimics they will be delighted with activities like puns, tongue twisters, rhymes and songs which the EFL teacher should consider integrating in his/her teaching practice.

In addition to the aforementioned features, children also exhibit creative use of the language and tendency to use ‘chunks’ of language, a strong instinct for talk and interaction, a characteristic ability to grasp meaning, an instinct for play and fun and an

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4 Notice that we are not supporting that topic-centered teaching may not be suitable for adults. The point is that its use with adult and children populations may have different reasons and different learning outcomes.
ability to learn through doing (Moon 2000; Vosniadou 2001). These additional characteristics will be discussed in the following paragraphs.

When children communicate, they actively recombine previously taught linguistic items to create new phrases and, in that way, they test out their hypotheses about the rules of the language (trial-and-error procedure). However, children need to feel confident in order to experiment with the language and so EFL teachers need to create a relaxed and secure atmosphere and be supportive when their young pupils talk. Children should be provided with plenty of opportunities to use L2 in different contexts and with activities involving unpredictable and fun language (Faulkner 2011). Games can be very useful in that respect as they create in a playful way the desire to communicate and interact in unpredictable ways (Halliwell 1992; Sugar 1998). Moreover, children often use ‘chunks’ of language that they have noticed in the speech of another person. This is a process that takes place in the acquisition of the children’s mother language, but is also common practice in the acquisition of a foreign language. At first, children tend to use these ‘chunks’ as unanalyzed wholes that help them communicate, but later they are in a position to parse them and understand their structure. Songs, rhymes, poems drama and classroom routines include a variety of such ‘chunks’ of language which can be first learned and then analyzed (Moon 2000; Musarate 2011). In this way, teachers can easily draw children’s attention to underlying grammatical and syntactical rules. Furthermore, children in general enjoy talking and lack adult inhibitions about using a new linguistic code. Halliwell (1992) claims that this is probably the most important attribute that children bring into the classroom. EFL teachers can make this desire to talk facilitate learning by engaging children in interesting activities that focus on communication. Children are good at interpreting the meaning of a situation even though they do not understand the individual words. This is a skill that in which they receive massive practice when they developing their first language. In the case of younger children the process of L1 development is still active and so is the practice in that skill. Children can do that by using their general, albeit in some cases limited, knowledge of the world and any visual or auditory support available. This technique should be encouraged by EFL teachers, as it can be particularly useful for beginner students who have limited knowledge of the linguistic system. Drama, communication games, story-telling and project work can support this natural ability. Accuracy can be focused on later once meaning is established (Moon 2000; Pinter 2006).

Children’s instinct for play and fun (Vosniadou 2001) should be exploited by the EFL teacher in order to create a learning situation where students enjoy themselves, are motivated to participate in the activity, are exposed to language input without focusing on the language itself and have real desire to communicate through the language. An example of such an activity is a chain-game like the following: each child is required to imagine that he/she sees or hears something unusual in the sky when he/she looks through the binoculars and to name it. The rest of the class pretends not to believe the student. The child then gives the binoculars to somebody else inviting them to check for themselves and so the game continues.

Finally, children explore the world through physical activity and appreciate situations by first-hand experience (Scott & Ytreberg 1990). This need for physical movement should not be repressed in the classroom by expecting students to stay sited at all times. Something like that is unlikely to happen, as the EFL teacher new to working with
children will soon find out. This natural tendency can facilitate learning through the use of physical activities like action songs, games, rhymes, drama, making things, perhaps some of the lessons activities. Physical action clarifies the meaning of the words and enhances L2 understanding. In ‘Listen and Do’ activities which basically follow the Total Physical Response method, children are exposed to meaningful input and can demonstrate their understanding of the linguistic code through physical activity without having to respond orally. This process resembles the process of L1 acquisition whereby a child is exposed to his/her mother tongue long before h/she is expected to talk (Freeman 2000).

5. Topic-centered learning

The essence of cross-curricular approach is the assertion that the child’s development should be viewed in a holistic way, targeting at the same time the intellectual, emotional and social aspect of a child’s growth. Schools and teachers must not merely prepare their pupils to respond to specific academic tasks, but give them the ability to achieve their goals, contribute to their communities and continue learning throughout their lives. Therefore, the competencies associated with such a learning are describes as follows: thinking competency (critical thinking, creative thinking, reflective thinking), personal and societal competency (positive personal and cultural identity, personal awareness and responsibility, social awareness and responsibility) and communication competency (language (s) and symbols, digital literacy). (British Columbia, Ministry of Education 2013: 3-4).

The cross-curricular approach has proven to have positive learning effects (see Shetzer & Warschauer 2000) and was embraced with enthusiasm by teachers all over the world. Teachers working with the concept of topic-centered learning do not teach to a timetable strictly divided into periods for different subjects. They base children’s learning to the exploration of a topic (e.g. transport, people, animals) involving a wide range of scientific, creative and/or investigative activities. Topic-centred learning can and should also be related to curricula of other subjects taught at school (Haas 2000).

Through this methodology which has gained considerable support in EFL teaching over the years, children can develop their language skills along with relevant core concepts of other subjects by means of meaningful theme-based activities without the focus being on the linguistic aspect alone (Holderness 1991, Beglar & Hunt, 2002; Carless, 2002; Ellis 2003; Littlewood, 2004). As Pinter (2006) also points out, grammar emerges out of meaningful contexts and meaningful communications leads to a focus on grammar. There are several reasons why this methodological approach is a good candidate for teaching children. Theofilidis as early as 1987, supported that primary school children perceive the word as a whole and so teaching must help the child develop all aspects of learning. Thoefilidis also notes that the cross-curricular approach is based on the principles of morphological psychology according to which humans understand things and situations as units characterized by a specific structure and organization and not as groups of unrelated elements. The topic-centred learning methodology also agrees with the principles of student-oriented learning (Ellis, 2003; Nunan 2004; Richards & Rodgers 2001), which have been argued to have positive results for the learning process. As far as

5 The method was developed by professor James Asher of San JoséState University in California in the ‘60s
the learning of a second language is concerned, the topic-centered approach provides a clear context which makes learning more meaningful and creates a genuine purpose for learning and using language in the classroom (Holderness 1991). Based on observations like the above, Moon (2000) argued that topic work seems to create many of the conditions that enable children to use their natural learning abilities in foreign language learning.

Topic-centered work can be combined with an activity-based approach that uses children’s instinct for physical activity and their ability to learn through doing. In terms of the practical guidelines that the EFL teacher unfamiliar with this approach should follow, Holderness (1991) summarizes very clearly and in a simple way what one should do: the teacher should choose the topic, identify language skills and devise activities. The teacher should select a topic that appeals to students’ interests, needs, age and abilities. Teachers could ask students which topic they would like to focus on giving them the opportunity to get involved in their learning and so become more autonomous. Teachers can explore the learning potentials of each topic and plan lessons better if they create a topic web of the areas that can be covered by this topic. For example, a topic like transport is related to issues like air, sea, land, space, passengers to mention but a few.

Then the EFL teacher will have to identify linguistic needs and devise activities linked to the topic that can offer practice of the relevant linguistic items or structures. For example, if the topic is “Shapes and Colors” then the teacher can ask children to draw flowers and trees out of different shapes and color them. Afterwards they have to name the different shapes and colors they have used. This topic could also be explored with respect to subjects like geography, physical environment or even history.

The most important criterion for choosing activities is the element of cognitive challenge they involve (Holderness 1991). On this view, the use of open-ended activities, where the outcome is not known and children are required to solve problems using many cognitive skills and resources, is encouraged. An example of such an activity would be the following: ‘Mr. Brown wants to write down fifteen objects starting with the letter ‘b’. Can you help him?’

The topic-centered approach requires careful planning and organization on the part of the teacher especially if h/she has not previously worked with children. However, this approach can have significant learning outcomes if it is effectively implemented in EFL classrooms.

5.1 The case of the eTwinning platform

The eTwinning platform (http://www.etwinning.net/el/pub/index.htm) for European state school teachers provides a learning situation where the teacher and the learners can work on a topic in a cross-curricular way. It is a free and safe platform for teachers to connect, develop collaborative projects and share ideas in Europe. The platform hots up to this moment almost 28,500 projects. With respect to the use of the foreign language, the methodology that applies is that of Content and language Integrated Learning (CLIL) since students have to work on a project and present it to their partners from other countries in a foreign language chosen (English, French, German). Besides the theme that the students choose the use of the platform enhances the students’ digital and computer
literacy as for the presentation of their project and their interaction with their partners they have to use computers and electronic communication tools.

### 6. The role of fun activities: games, songs, rhymes, stories

Although fun activities are not used in EFL programs for adults or adolescents, they are considered very popular and effective means of teaching primary school children. Thus, an EFL teacher of adults that is expected to work with children should consider including these methods in his/her teaching. However, as the aim is to make informed changes, such activities should not be adopted without a careful examination of the ways in which they can be best used and of the expected learning outcomes.

The advantages of using fun activities can be summarized in the following points: they can ‘lighten’ formal teaching renewing student energy, they can provide indirect practice of language structures, vocabulary and pronunciation, they can improve listening skills, attention and concentration, they can encourage student participation and communication and reveal areas of weaknesses (see Brewster, Ellis & Girad 1992; Ghosn 2002; Moon 2005).

The EFL teacher can easily find online and offline resources of a wide variety of songs suitable for young learners. Action songs and rhymes, limericks and riddles, traditional and pop songs can be used not only for the practice of new grammatical patterns but also for the practice of pronunciation, stress and rhythm, and intonation.

When using games, the teacher can adopt a combination of code-control and communication games. According to Brewster Ellis & Girad (1992) the former aims at accuracy, while the latter at fluency and at the development of communication skills.

Different types of games can be adopted at different times to meet students’ linguistic needs. Selecting the game is the first step in planning such an activity. The teacher should also make sure that the instructions are fully understood by children and that the class is organized in groups or pairs according to the demands of the game. During the activity it is important that the teacher monitors the language used by students offering support and feedback where necessary. The above show that games and fun activities in general are not occasional solutions adopted to keep children quiet, but should be regularly implemented in the EFL classroom for the right reasons. Since they require a lot of planning and administration time, the language pay-off should be measured against these indexes.

While pre-fabricated items of language can be introduced and consolidated by songs and games like ‘I went to the market and I bought., language can also be picked up as the result of an enjoyable activity like story-telling (Rixon 1991, 2000; Shue 2008). The Russian folk tale ‘The great Big Enormous Turnip’ including many repetitions is a good example. Rixon also draws teacher’s attention to some activities that allow more creative use of the language as children are given the opportunity to produce new sentences. ‘Find the differences’ is one such activity. Two children have similar but not identical pictures and are asked to cooperate to find five or six differences by asking each other about their own picture. Prepositions, locations, spatial relations or colors can be practiced and communication skills like requests for clarification and repetition can be improved.
7. Conclusion

This paper has discussed the changes in terms of approach and teaching expectations that EFL teachers who have worked with adult learners are expected to make when they have to teach children.

Although this topic is very broad, the basic points analyzed here are the following: Teachers should keep in mind that children are in the process of developing their cognitive abilities and, thus, teaching should not focus only on language but should also reinforce children’s conceptual development. This can be achieved through topic-centered work. Moreover, teachers should use activities that appeal to children’s interests, needs and age. Children should experience language and be able to work with activities that relate to their everyday life. Young Learners must be provided with a variety of opportunities to use language in different contexts and participate in activities that involve authentic and unpredictable language. Fun activities like games, rhymes, songs and stories are particularly useful as they allow children to learn by using their natural characteristics. All these should be done in a relaxed and supportive environment where the focus is the child as a whole. As Brown (2001) has pointed out, a teacher who is willing to explore new ways of teaching English to make it a more enjoyable subject to learn will be greatly rewarded when working with young learners.

Finally, it should be stressed that these points are only some suggestions. Teachers, through experience and familiarity with the child’s world will be able to develop their own understanding of which is the most effective way to teach foreign languages to young learners.

References


Brief biography
Dr. Alexandra I. Prentza was born in Ioannina, Greece in 1978. She holds a BA in English Language and Literature from the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, Greece (2000), an MA in Applied Linguistics from the University of Essex, United Kingdom (2001) and a Ph.D in Linguistics from the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, Greece (2010). In her doctoral dissertation she studied feature interpretability in relation to the Null Subject Parameter in Second Language Acquisition. She has published articles on second language syntax, bilingualism and Modern Greek syntax.
How to improve the approach to foreign language grammar teaching

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Abstract
The teaching of grammar has been one of the most controversial issues in foreign language education. The demand for superior communicative ability in the target foreign language has made confused teachers about the approach in teaching grammar for a communicative purpose: teaching grammar explicitly or implicitly. Reviewing relatively recent theoretical and empirical studies on formal explicit and implicit grammar instruction, the paper presents the need of both types of grammar instruction to promote foreign language acquisition. Considering historical backgrounds on their use by foreign language teaching methods, the recent perspectives on the use of explicit approach in a communicative context, the choice of either type of instruction is greatly determined by the educational objective, differences in the specific language feature that is being taught as well as by differences in learners’ and teachers’ characteristics, abilities and preferences. Teachers need to be eclectic in selecting the appropriate instructional strategy to address the needs of their learners and contexts.

Keywords: communicative language teaching, differences, explicit instruction, implicit instruction

1. Introduction

1.1 The aim of the study
As some researchers have noted (Richards & Renandya 2002: 145, Achard 2008: 433, Nassaji & Fotos 2011: 1), the teaching of grammar has been one of the most controversial issues in language teaching, including foreign language teaching. The most disputed questions have been about the role of grammar and the approach to grammar teaching in a foreign language classroom. It is because of the theoretical and empirical developments in language acquisition and other sciences (such as linguistics, psychology and sociolinguistics) as well, that have influenced the approach to grammar teaching (ibid., Richards 2001).

It has also been noted that there is recently an agreement among researchers, educators and teachers on the necessity to teach grammar. Grammar competence, as part of the communicative competence (Celce-Murcia 1991, Hedge 2000), needs to be developed for effective and successful communication. However the present issue is not whether grammar should be taught or not, but how to teach it effectively (Richards & Renandya 2002: 145, Ellis et al. 2009).

Referring to our teaching experience, what is often observed in a foreign language classroom is communication marked by low levels of linguistic accuracy, though learners have studied its grammar for many years. Naturally, the following questions arise: Is
explicit instruction more effective than implicit instruction? Do foreign language teachers need to use explicit instruction, implicit instruction or both to help their learners learn language for communicative purposes? Are there any factors that influence the right choice between the implicit and explicit instruction strategies in the classroom-based settings?

This study attempts to draw on explicit and implicit grammar instruction and factors that influence the right grammar instructional strategy in classroom-based settings emanating from foreign language acquisition theory and research. A broader understanding of this issue has a positive advantage for foreign language teachers in improving grammar teaching in classroom-based settings.

1.2 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 the databases of Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC), EBSCO and Cambridge Journals Online (from Electronic Resources for Albania, ERA2012). References within preliminary sources helped in choosing the primary material relevant to the topic, which critically studied, allowed a deeper insight in the subject.

2. Explicit and Implicit instruction

2.1 Definitions of explicit and implicit instruction

Many foreign language teachers and students find confusing and sometimes synonymous the terms dealing with the approach to grammar teaching: explicit and deductive, implicit and inductive. Referring to the definitions of explicit and implicit instruction provided in second/foreign language acquisition, a clearer and wider understanding can be provided on explicit and implicit instruction practice.

According to Thornbuy (2008) and DeKeyser (1994), deductive (approach) involves presenting a rule before the examples in which the rule is applied; inductive involves presenting examples from which a rule is inferred.

According to DeKeyser (1994) and Ellis (Ellis et al. 2009)

- explicit instruction involves making learners aware of the rule deductively (by providing them with a grammatical description of the rule before examples or practice) or inductively (by helping learners to discover the rule from provided data, examples or practice). Ellis (Ellis et al. 2009), also, distinguishes reactive explicit instruction (when teachers provide metalinguistic corrective feedback on learner’ errors in the use of the target feature) from proactive (when the teacher offers a metalinguistic explanation of the target rule prior to any practice activities or when the teacher invites learners to discover the rule for themselves from data provided).

- implicit instruction involves enabling learners to learn the rule without awareness, but by providing them with experience of specific exemplars of the rule or linguistic form while they are focused on meaning. As such, implicit instruction needs creating a learning environment that is ‘enriched’ with the target feature. Implicit instruction can be reactive (where the attention to
linguistic form arises naturally) or proactive (when tasks are designed to elicit the use of a specific linguistic form, and their performance naturally creates opportunities for experiencing the target feature).

Housen and Pierrard (2006, cited in Ellis et al 2009: 18), also, describe implicit instruction as attracting a learner’s attention to the target form in the context, without making use of rule explanation; what is more, they describe it as delivered spontaneously (e.g. in a communicative activity), encouraging free use of the target form, while explicit instruction predetermines and plans teaching the target form by directing learners’ attention to it, presenting it in isolation by using rule explanation and practicing it in controlled practice activities.

Explicit and implicit instructions are not to be confused with explicit and implicit learning: implicit instruction does not always necessarily lead to implicit learning (learning that takes place without either intentionality or awareness) nor does explicit instruction leads to explicit learning (intentional conscious process) (Ellis et al 2009: 18). When the learner is not attentive to the teacher’s explanation, he may acquire a certain grammatical item implicitly in communicative activities; equally, being involved in implicit instruction, the learner “may work out what the target of the instruction is and seek to make the understanding of it explicit” (ibid.).

It is also worth noting that, according to Ellis (ibid.), explicit instruction aims at not just developing explicit knowledge (knowledge about language) but also implicit knowledge (knowledge of language). The extent of the effectiveness of explicit instruction in the acquisition of implicit and explicit knowledge is still an inconclusive issue (ibid.).

2.2 Explicit and implicit instruction from a historical perspective

Referring to different approaches and methods used in the history of foreign language didactics (Richards 2001; Larsen-Freeman 2000), implicit and explicit instruction is closely related to the educational objectives. Celce-Murcia (1991) (among other variables) considered educational objectives important in deciding the need to focus on form. “If the learner’s goal is survival communication, formal accuracy is of marginal value” (ibid.: 464); on the other hand, if the learner’s goal is accurate, meaningful, and appropriate communication, then a high degree of formal accuracy is important.

The Grammar-translation method and the Cognitive approach relied entirely on an explicit approach. Limiting the aims of studying a foreign language to making students able to know, prescribe, read and translate the written language, the Grammar-translation method approached the target language deductively through a detailed analysis of grammar rules followed by application of this knowledge to translating written language. Though learners had considerable explicit knowledge of grammar rules, they could not express their thoughts or use the language communicatively. Similarly, the Cognitive approach of language teaching, emphasizing the cognitive skills, approached explicit grammar instruction.

The Direct method, Total Physical Response and the strong (also called deep-end, in Thornbury 2008: 22) version of the Communicative approach relied entirely on implicit

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1 The strong version of Communicative approach, described as ‘using English to learn it’ (Howatt 1984: 279) emphasizes the use of exclusively meaning-focused activities, while the weak version, described as ‘learning to use English’ (ibid.), emphasizes the importance of learning a language in a more controlled manner by using and practicing it in communicative contexts.
approach. Increased opportunities for communication among people created a demand for oral proficiency in foreign languages. For this reason, these methods applied implicit grammar teaching. The Direct method and the Total Physical Response encouraged natural language learning just as children pick up the grammar of their native language; without translation and grammar rules, but being immersed in language, learners would be able to induce the rules of grammar. Similarly, Community Language Learning and (de)Suggestopedia methods, assuming that learners would acquire the forms and vocabulary naturally, during the process of comprehending input, gave no formal grammar instruction. Also, the strong version of Communicative approach rejected grammar instruction claiming that language, including grammar, is acquired exclusively through communication.

Other methods as Audio Lingual Method, the Oral Approach or Situational Language Teaching and the Silent Way, largely, but not entirely, relied on implicit instruction. They were mainly organized basically on language forms and little on real life communication. For this reason, their learners could not use the implicit taught language in spontaneous speech.

Therefore, being dissatisfied with the extremes of explicit or implicit grammar instruction, there has been suggested a need for both a focus on language forms and a focus on communication (Nassaji & Fotos 2011: 12). Researchers have agreed that grammatical competence cannot be attained simply through exposure to meaningful input: without some attention to form, learners may risk ‘fossilization’ (Hinkel & Fotos 2002: 5); moreover, certain types of language knowledge (such as English articles and conditional sentences) and skills (such as academic speaking and writing) are difficult to attain in the process of naturalistic learning. In such cases, instructed learning is needed to attain high levels of language competence and performance. Therefore considerable research has followed on methods for integrating grammar instruction with communicative language learning and supporting a combination of explicit and implicit instruction. The Focus on form’ approach, drawing learners’ attention to linguistic forms in the context of meaningful communication (and reconciling the extreme explicit and implicit positions) is suggested to be effective in second/foreign language acquisition. It is basically related to the theory of noticing which claims that if learners pay attention to the form and meaning of certain language structures in the input, the internalization of the rule will be facilitated (Hinkel & Fotos 2002: 6). It is also important to note that, according to this theory, the primary nature of explicit knowledge is to develop awareness of rather than production of target forms. Such awareness is claimed to result not only from formal instruction on specific forms but also from continued communicative exposure. For this reason, grammar instruction is currently regarded as “consciousness raising” or “awareness-raising” (ibid.). In this context, Ellis (2002) has suggested some teaching activities to develop grammatical knowledge of a problematic feature. As Ellis warns, these activities are not designed to develop implicit knowledge, but simply to develop awareness of grammar, which may aid the acquisition of implicit knowledge when supplemented with other forms of input and communicative tasks.

Other researchers (Nassaji & Fotos 2011), in the context of integrating form-focused instruction in communicative context, have recommended input-and output-based instructional options, suggesting the need of both implicit and explicit form-focused instructions to promote foreign language acquisition: processing instruction, textual enhancement, discourse-based grammar teaching, interactional feedback,
focused tasks, and collaborative output tasks. Their success (except for very young learners) has been noted to be strongly dependent on the provision of output opportunities and subsequent feedback on the correctness of the output so that they can enhance their awareness and need of the correct forms (ibid: 133).

It is important for us, as teachers of foreign languages, to try their recommendations in order to give our interpretations and suggestions for improving the quality of grammar teaching.

3. Theoretical and empirical studies on explicit/implicit grammar instruction and discussions

3.1 Comparative effects of an explicit versus implicit instruction on FL learning

Many researchers have investigated if explicit or implicit instruction is more beneficial for learners. Referring to some of them, it has been acknowledged the superiority of explicit over implicit instruction. The research studies have been conducted on various aspects of instruction to foreign language learners, such as: relative pronouns and subjunctive (Scott 1990), past tense markers (Ellis, Lowen & Erlam 2006), real conditions and past simple-past continuous (Lopez, 2004), copula ‘be’ (Tode 2007), subject – verb agreement and relative clauses (Andrews 2007), phrasal verbs (Khatib & Ghannadi 2011). The results from these studies show that explicit instruction is found to be more effective in terms of quantity, accuracy and progress rate than implicit instruction in the classroom. But despite these results, effectiveness of explicit and implicit instruction remains an open question since:

- The conclusions drawn from these studies were limited to the acquisition of the specific grammatical elements.
- Some researchers relate and limit the positive effects of explicit instruction to some aspects considered influential in their research results. Tode (2007), in his study on the effectiveness of explicit and implicit instruction of copula ‘be’ in terms of the durability issue, concluded (after 6 months) that explicit instruction of the copula ‘be’ in EFL context had positive effects on language acquisition only in the short term memory, but not in the long term; implicit instruction was not effective either in the short term or in the long term. Andrews’ study (2007) on the effects of implicit and explicit instruction of simple (subject – verb agreement) and complex (relative clauses) grammatical structures on learning at three levels of proficiency, showed that explicit was better than implicit instruction for the complex rule and that both explicit and implicit instruction were equally effective for the simple rule.

Other researchers have emphasized the effectiveness of explicit over implicit instruction: Norris and Ortega (2000) in their meta-analytic review of 49 studies published between 1980 and 1998; Spada (1997) reviewing classroom research and laboratory studies; and Akakura (2012) investigating the acquisition of generic and non-generic article usage in English.

The advantage of explicit over implicit instruction is not definite since many studies involve treatment carried out over a relatively brief period; this advantage is questionable in the long-term (Schachter 1998, cited in Tode 2007: 12). Results of long-term studies that dealt with the issue of long-term effects of instruction of certain grammatical structures have been mixed (Tode 2007: 13-15). Klapper and Ree (2003)
studied the effectiveness of explicit and implicit instruction in the university FL learning context for four years concluding that some grammatical structures (of German as a foreign language) benefited from implicit instruction (naturalistic learning) (conjunctions, general verb forms, prepositions, reflexives, use of tenses), others from explicit instruction (adjectives, modals, passives, pronouns, relatives, word-order). Supporting the researchers, further research of this kind is needed “to determine the generalizability of these findings to other languages and teaching contexts”.

Winitz (1996) evaluated the effectiveness of implicit versus explicit instruction for the entire first semester at a university in Missouri. After a grammatically judgment test, Winitz found that learners who experienced implicit instruction (through Total Physical Response), scored significantly higher than those who were taught explicitly (though Grammar-Translation). Even this finding cannot be generalized since, as Loewen stated, “grammaticality judgment tests do not provide a direct window into L2 learners’ linguistic competence” (Ellis et al. 2009: 95).

Given the limitations of previous research, the findings in support of both types of instruction are inconsistent. The effectiveness of explicit instruction on language acquisition is and will remain a debatable issue and an object of research since valid measures of explicit and implicit knowledge are needed to be unified and well recognized. The investigation has relied on methods of measuring acquisition that favored explicit instruction (Ellis et al. 2009: 21). Referring to the above empirical studies, the positive results of the explicit groups can be due to the controlled activities used to measure the learning results which favored them: discrete-point item exercises (fill-in-the-blank exercises, multiple choice, sentence completion, open-ended question) - characteristic of the testing approach influenced by the structuralist approach to language analysis, which ‘viewed language as a set of separate parts’ (Hedge 2000: 378-379). What is more, learners were tested through predetermined written tests and highly structured production tasks; in this way the effectiveness of explicit and implicit instruction was tested only in terms of reading and writing skills. What about speaking and listening skills, and spontaneous production tests? Can they be effective ways of measuring the explicit and implicit outputs? Therefore, more studies are needed on investigating the effectiveness of both approaches of grammar instruction on free foreign language production (in written and spoken communication) and simultaneously testing to find valid measures of implicit and explicit knowledge.

3.2 On factors influencing the right approach to grammar instruction

Some researchers (Ellis et al. 2009, Khatib & Ghannadi 2011, LI & TIAN 2008, Nassaji & Fotos 2011, Spada & Lightbown 2008) have emphasized the benefit and need of both types of form-focused instruction (explicit and implicit) in foreign language acquisition. It is also evident, even from the definitions of explicit and implicit instruction provided in second/foreign language acquisition, that foreign language learners can benefit from both explicit and implicit instruction. Explicit instruction, drawing learners’ attention to linguistic forms and developing their metalinguistic knowledge of the target language structures, helps learners express meaning more effectively and accurately in the communicative interaction and not use continuously incorrect forms; whereas, implicit instruction enhances the communicative learning process by providing learners with
more experience of specific exemplars of a rule or linguistic form as they are focused on meaning.

Furthermore, they have concluded that the choice of a grammar teaching strategy is affected by a number of factors such as:

Learners’ native language: Spada and Lightbown (2008), Nassaji and Fotos (2011) support the use of explicit instruction for clarifications when the native language has strong influence on the foreign language by helping learners enhance their awareness of the target linguistic forms and learn them.

Salience in the input: ‘Some grammatical features are inherently more salient (easy to notice) than others’ (Ellis et al. 2009: 145) and as such, they are not acquired in the same way. For example, ‘verb -ing (more phonologically salient) is acquired before third person -s (less phonologically salient)’ (ibid.). Researchers (Akakura 2012, Ellis 1997: 80, Nassaji & Fotos 2011: 136, Spada & Lightbown 2008) claim that explicit instruction is useful with features that are not salient in the input. Clearly, directing learners’ attention to the target language form(s) through explicit instruction can assist them to notice language forms that occur frequently but are imperceptible in the input. Therefore, it is necessary to make foreign language teachers aware of the salient features of the target foreign language, so as to help them decide the right instructional strategy in their teaching practice.

The frequency the grammatical feature in the input is also reported to be considered important in teaching grammar (Ellis et al. 2009: 144, Burgess & Etherington 2002, Nassaji & Fotos 2011: 136). The more frequent the feature is, the more noticeable it becomes. In the case of rare grammatical forms in the input, explicit instruction, regarded as a ‘consciousness raising’ activity (Hinkel & Fotos 2002:6), can help learners both notice and enhance their awareness of a specific grammatical feature.

Another factor, also recorded in relevant studies is rule complexity. Some linguistic forms (such as English articles) are considered structurally simple but functionally very complex as they perform a number of different functions (Ellis 1997: 80; Ellis et al. 2009: 150) (relating to type of the noun they determine, the situational context and the discourse context). In such cases, the complex feature will require a complex explanation, using even technical metalanguage (as generic/specific reference or countable/uncountable nouns). But some authors (DeKeyser 1995, Ellis 1997, Ellis et al. 2009, Nassaji & Fotos 2011, Spada & Lightbown 2008) have assumed in their studies that implicit form-focused instruction is more suitable for complex linguistic features and rules, while explicit instruction is more effective with simple ones. Such an assumption is not supported by Andrews’s empirical study (2007) on the effects of explicit and implicit instruction on simple and complex grammatical structures for English language learners. His study resulted that explicit instruction was better than the implicit for the complex rule (relative clauses) and that both strategies were equally effective for the simple rule (subject – verb agreement). Therefore further research is needed in this aspect: approaching the right teaching strategy to the type and complexity of the target structure, so as to guide teachers in choosing the most effective one.

Researchers (Ellis 1992, 2006, LI & TIAN 2008, Nassaji & Fotos 2011, Spada & Lightbown 2008) have related the form of instruction even to the learner developmental level. If a learner is not developmentally ready to learn a structure as it is beyond his/her current developmental phase, he/she can hardly master the target structure. In this way, learners who have more metalinguistic knowledge and skill (even in the native language)
can be more able to notice the target language form in a communicative context than those with poorer metalinguistic ability. For this reason the first group of learner needs less explicit approach than the latter.

*Individual learning styles:* Studies in educational psychology suggest that some learners have an analytic style; they, consciously or unconsciously, learn best by formulating and testing hypotheses or rules (Celce-Murcia 1991, Celce-Murcia & Hilles: 5). While other learners have a holistic style; they learn best by experiencing, gathering, and restructuring relevant data but doing little or no apparent analysis (ibid.). Thus, considering the researchers’ suggestions (ibid., Nassaji & Fotos 2011) and the definitions of explicit and implicit instruction, it can be noted that analytic learners need more explicit instruction, while holistic learners need more implicit instruction. Therefore, as foreign language classrooms may consist of learners having different learning styles, teachers need to select the appropriate instructional strategy to address their needs. However, the above mentioned empirical research has not considered this factor in valuing the effectiveness of each grammar teaching approach (explicit/implicit) in language acquisition.

*Learners’ age* is also considered influential in the approach to grammar teaching Celce-Murcia 1991, LI & TIAN 2008, Nassaji & Fotos 2011, Spada & Lightbown 2008). It is suggested that young children, as being more holistic in their approach to learning than adults, may need little explicit grammar instruction, while older children and adults (even because of their superior cognitive ability) may learn a foreign language more effectively and quickly with the support of some explicit focus on form.

Another investigated factor related to the approach to grammar teaching is *previous language learning experience*. Research has revealed that learners who have learnt language via a traditional grammar-based approach often have preferences for continuing to learn explicitly (Celce-Murcia 1991, Spada & Lightbown 2008). Even teachers often teach grammar in the way in which they were taught (Borg 2003, cited in Spada & Lightbown 2008). Our teaching and observation practices support them.

There is little research on the direct relationship between the approach to grammar teaching and the two following factors: *learner and teacher preferences* about grammar instruction, and *teachers’ metalinguistic knowledge*. Dörnyei (2005, cited in Spada & Lightbown 2008) reported that learners benefit most from the type of instruction that suits their preferences about grammar instruction (not their teacher’s). It is also reported (Spada & Lightbown 2008) that the extent to which grammar is taught deductively depends on the level of grammar metalinguistic knowledge that the teacher has.

### 4. Conclusion

There has always been a controversy in language teaching whether grammar should be taught explicitly (through formulation of rules) or implicitly (through natural exposure to meaningful language use). Current foreign language acquisition theory and research do not support the extreme of explicit or implicit instruction. Relying largely on either of them has been deficient in language learning and using the target language accurately and fluently; explicit instruction did not help learners use the target language communicatively, whereas implicit instruction did not help learners develop certain types of language knowledge and skills. It is suggested and naturally agreed that both types of instruction can be beneficial in promoting language acquisition: explicit instruction...
increases learners’ awareness of the target language; implicit instruction, providing learners with comprehensible linguistic input, helps them develop grammatical competence in meaningful context. A range of instructional options has been recommended for integrating grammar instruction within the context of meaningful communication and reconciling the extreme explicit and implicit positions (Nassaji & Fotos 2011). Empirical research on this issue is limited; therefore further studies are needed to value the effectiveness of the instructional options that combine explicit and implicit grammar instructions.

Moreover, theory and research inform that there are many issues for teachers to consider in deciding on the right instructional strategy in teaching grammar effectively for communicative purposes: native language influence, salience and frequency of the grammatical feature in the input, rule complexity, learner developmental level, individual learning styles, learners’ age, learner and teacher preferences, teacher’s metalinguistic knowledge and previous language learning experience. More specifically, explicit instruction is recommended when the native language has strong influence on FL, the target grammatical feature is rare or not salient in the input, teaching functionally simple language forms, teaching grammar to older children and adults and learners with poor metalinguistic ability and those that have an analytic learning style, and when the level of teacher’s grammar metalinguistic knowledge is high. In other teaching contexts (salient and frequent grammatical forms in the input, functionally complex features, teaching FL to holistic, young children or learners with considerable metalinguistic knowledge, the implicit instruction strategy can be used when it suits learners’ preferences as to make them feel comfortable and motivated. But if their preference is either extremely implicit or explicit instruction the teacher’s responsibility should be to gradually accommodate the learners with the other instructional approach.

Considering all these issues, FL teachers’ decision on how to teach grammar has to be taken individually, based on their teaching situation and professional judgment. Teachers need to be eclectic, selecting the appropriate instructional strategy in order to address the needs of their learners and attempting to create the best possible conditions where accuracy and fluency of language use can be developed simultaneously and supplementary.

References


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Ideology and Gender in Angela Carter’s ‘The Passion of New Eve’

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Abstract

Looking into the issue of gender in literary works, women are usually depicted as traditional stereotypes of women as nurturing, passive and submissive. The idea of women who may be violent was seen as inadequate due to the difficulty which society as a whole as well as academic discipline have, in seeing violence or aggression, even anger, as part of the female character. There exist two sexes and two genders and between them there is a set of rather obvious correspondences. The assertion that gender is not determined by sex has simply reinforced a division between the biological and the social in a way which leaves our understanding of biological sex fairly intact. Angela Carter stresses the performative and surface nature of gender identity and she does so by dealing with the question of bodily and sexual transformation at several different levels.

Keywords: gender, active, passive, feminine, violence

1. Introduction

The novel of Angela Carter, first published in 1977, thematizes feminist rebellion that reflects the influence of feminism. Distinct from the Victorian novels like Tess of the D’Urbervilles of Thomas Hardy, first published in 1891, her rebellious heroines form a novel of transition. The violent actions of women such as women expressing anger, women acting with violence and women claiming physical power in a man’s world made a complete break with the social conventions of the Victorian period in which books challenging the sexual mores were usually censored or appeared in serialised version. The second feminist movement 1960s-1980s provided women with the goal to express their unhappiness towards their unequal status as well as break free from men’s power of patriarchy. So, Angela Carter broke free of the restraints of novelistic conventions as well as of gender stereotypes which underlined the 19th century literature and wrote a novel with shattered gender definitions as well as confused ideas about femininity and masculinity. Her novel represents the woman who aggressively fights back against man’s power and mistreatment of both her body and soul.

The Passion of New Eve focuses on women’s power over men, specifically being agents of sexual aggression. So, why does Angela Carter choose for her writing to represent violent women? Traditionally, when exploring violence in literature, most feminist criticism would focus on male violation over women with women usually being the victim of male’s aggression as the latter were usually depicted as the agents of force like in one of the most famous episodes in Victorian Tess of the D’Urbervilles (extract 1). What strikes the reader’s attention is the domineering orders that the man gives to the woman. Demanding goods-and-services is often realized through the use of imperatives which reinforce the ideology of gender.

1 Hardy T. (1891) Tess Of the D’Urbervilles. ( pp 95-96), Penguin Group: London

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2. Catharsis

Literature does not give much emotional catharsis for women as they are not represented as those who fight back men’s violence but are usually represented as victims. However, Angela Carter’s work in the 1970’s shows women who aggressively fight back thus taking a position against the general claim that violence exclusively emanated from a male source. By putting forward affirmative representations of sexually violent women, *The passion of New Eve* deliberately critiques what was the dominant Anglo-American feminist dichotomy of male aggressors and female victims. (Bristow J, et al 1997: 150) She engages with feminine debate of the time thus proving that the alternative of a woman being violent, thus active, exists and contradicts the passive stereotype of the victimized woman. In the 1970’s Angela Carter took the initiative to show the thrill of women’s sexual aggression.

3. Functional Interpersonal Analysis

A number of systemic-functional linguists have developed techniques for the analysis of ideology, as has Cate Poynton:

‘Ideology deals in evaluation, probably always in relation to binary oppositions such as female/male, capitalism/socialism, war/peace.’ (Poynton C, 1989: 11)

This power configuration expresses the reality of society, as everything is characterised by patterns of control. As these oppositions and evaluations are considered to constitute the ideology of gender, they should be expressed in language and more specifically in the following grammatical transitivity system introduced by linguist M.A.K Halliday (Halliday M.A.K 1999.)

![Diagram of the system of Transitivity](image-url)
a) **Material**: they can be either transitive or intransitive and they show qualities for both men and women, while they help to distinguish their power relations.

b) **Mental**: According to the binary oppositions in the ideology of gender, verbs of a mental process like *think* or *know* are mostly associated to males as they have to do with reason whereas *love* which has to do with emotion is associated with women.

c) **Relational**: These are useful in classifying or identifying men and women according to the binary oppositions set by Cate Poynton.

d) **Verbal**: These verbs of speaking, mostly reinforce the binary opposition *action/speech* as they can assess whether the type of verb is associated with men or women.

e) **Behavioural**: These verbs of physical action that imply some mental activity, when it comes to the ideological representation of gender, are mostly associated with women. The reason for this is because these verbs are linked to the expressive and emotional poles which according to the cryprotope of gender, are assigned to women.

4. **Binary Oppositions**

Another aspect of the interpersonal metafunction, is the use of *chain words* as they enhance the concept of *binary oppositions*. Tone reveals the attitude the writer has toward a subject. Word choice allows a writer to vary the way the audience understands and responds to the feelings the writer incorporates in the passage. When analyzing words you are analyzing through the writing, the way you would conceive a speaker’s voice. In analysing the ideological representation of gender, the vocabulary is important as it reveals the attitude of the speaker. For example, a man may use words to characterize a woman with negative connotations thus proving his high status which gives him the right to see a woman as inferior.

From the earlier scenes in the book *The Passion of New Eve*, Angela Carter shows the man’s violence over the woman so as later on to bring the catharsis to the female reader, showing the woman fighting back thus punishing the man who has violated not only physically but also orally the woman’s idea of feminine self and personality. Evelyn wants to abandon Leilah after he finds out that she is pregnant, thus showing her his powerful side by rejecting her both as a person and as a future wife (extract 2).

This binary opposition is very much reinforced by the **superior/subordinate word chain**:

- **Superior** (Evelyn): contempt, hypocrites, hypocrisy of love, siege
- **Subordinate** (Leilah): the thing limp, passive obedient

Significantly, the words *the thing, limp, passive and obedient* are associated with Leilah as this is what she became after Evelyn’s hypocrisy and siege of her body and soul.

The mental process *wish* having as Sensor the word *I* thus meaning Evelyn, shows the fact that from the moment he met Leilah he wanted to hurt her and make her seem as if she is his power’s victim. This is also reinforced by the use of the modal verb *could*. As Halliday said (Halliday, 1999: 359) the modal verb *could* can express ability/potentiality although this is on the fringe of the modality system. So, it expresses Evelyn’s wish for the potentiality to make Leilah obedient to his masculine powers. So, as it seems modality reflects the ideology of gender in the text.

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5. Transitivity/Functional Analysis

After Evelyn abandons Leilah, he drives to a place where he is captured by a group of women and brought to Beulah where he is physically as well as sexually violated by a woman called Mother. He suffers the same humiliation he forced upon Leilah. From this point on, Angela Carter shows the woman fighting back and the consequences that this aggression has on a man’s body and soul. So, the catharsis for the female reader comes. Mother rapes Evelyn so as to humiliate him in the same way he did with Leilah (extract 3).

If the Material processes which are related to this sexual interaction are taken into consideration, it comes as clear that Mother is the active participant whereas Evelyn is the passive one.

Mother (Actor): performed, grasped, clasped
Evelyn (Eve): expelled, I, me, felt

Out of these processes, three are related to Mother having either her or her body part as Actor thus proving that she is the active participant. The fact that Evelyn is the Actor of the two processes, the Goal to the most important material ones to do with his rape as well as the Senser of the only Mental process (felt) which exists in this extract, constitutes him as the passive one of this sexual interaction. So, the processes reinforce the binary opposition active/passive but this time attributing the value term active to the woman and passive to the man.

Moreover, the binary opposition female pleasure/male humiliation reinforces the fact that the woman rapes Evelyn, because she wants to feel the pleasure of taking revenge for the humiliation he caused to another woman.

The word chain deriving from the same binary opposition shows that Mother wanted to make Evelyn see what the word humiliation means.

Mother (Actor): the vigour of the female mantis
Evelyn (Goal): raped, very little pleasure, brisk friction, engulfment, expelled me

Another important process in the extract to challenge the ideological representation of women is the Behavioural one watched. The fact that Behaver to this behavioural process is the word she, is important to show that the person who does the watching is a woman. So, Evelyn becomes the victim of a woman’s gaze. She defines his masculinity at the same way he had defined Leilah’s femininity. Mother turns him into an object of her desire. She rapes him for her own megalomaniac satisfaction and revenge.

However, the most important scene in the book in which the woman’s power over man is shown when Mother castrates Evelyn, thus turning into his other self, Eve (extract 4)

Mother (Actor): raising, brought down, cut off, caught, tossed, excised
Evelyn (Goal): all my genital appendages, them, me

Six processes have Mother as Actor thus again acting as the active participant. Her actions are all transitive and they affect both Evelyn and his genitals. This scene explores one of the most important issues for Angela Carter’s ideological representation of gender; the fact that the biological differences between men and women are not

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important in the construction of one’s gender identity. When Mother asks Evelyn how he feels after the operation, he says:

‘I don’t find myself at all’ (Carter, 1996:75)

This proves that gender identities are a deception as they are imaginary rather than fixed. Just because Evelyn was transformed into a woman does not mean that he accepts it emotionally. Inside him, he still feels a man.

After Evelyn manages to escape from Mother’s capture he drove on until he was captured by a man called Zero. In his hand Evelyn (now called Eve) will suffer her worst nightmare, that of sexual violation. Even if this means that the reader is taken back to the idea of a man being the powerful one over a woman’s body, this is not the case. All the violation that Eve will suffer from a man is a result of a woman’s aggression fighting back. Evelyn was transformed into a woman by a woman and now was set out in the world to experience what he had done to Leilah and to other women as well. So, when the reader sees Eve (Evelyn) being sexually violated by Zero, is satisfied by his humiliation (extract 5).5

Zero (Actor): hung, were arranged, plumped, permitted, steal, seat, cover, had raped, did not like, flagellated, boasted, slept, stretched, pleased, told, unfastened, brought out, hurled, entered, assaulted, peered up

Evelyn (Goal): shivered, me, I, upon me, at me, still, thing, shook, being screwed, afraid, would die, cry, pain

Considering the processes, 21 have Zero or he as Actor implying the man, whereas only 13 have the word I as Goal implying the woman. So, it is obvious that Zero is the active participant of their sexual interaction. This is also emphasised by the binary opposition active/passive which according to Poynton the active value terms are associated with the male while the passive ones with the woman.

It is also worth looking at the word chain derived from the aforementioned binary opposition:

master, still, weapon, cry, sense, mind, rape, overwhelmed, afraid, furious, exertions.

The words which are related to power and action such as master, weapon, rape, furious, are all words that have to do with what the man is doing, whereas words such as still, cry, afraid, overwhelmed as related to Eve (Evelyn) represent her feelings and the fact that she does not have the power to react to Zero’s mistreating.

6. Sociology and Gender

Michel Foucault, exploring the world of the ancient Greeks brings out another sign of sexuality that of the relationships in terms of one’s power over the other. He called that, the principle of isomorphism between sexual relations. In the case of a sexual relationship between two adolescent men, pleasure practices were conceived in terms of assuming a polarity that opposed activity and passivity. It is obvious that this extract has to do with heterosexual intercourse but it would be interesting to connect it with Foucault’s theory so as to analyze the ideology of genders. So, according to Foucault’s

ideas, the partners were given roles analogous to the field of social rivalries and hierarchies. Nobody approved of passivity but on the contrary they honored activity. So, Zero should be honored by women as he is the active one. So, men are seen as more powerful and more worth-honoring. Throughout the whole text, which is focused on the sexual intercourse between Zero and Eve, these signs of Foucault’s theory of sexuality are obvious. First of all, we see Zero and Eve having a sexual kind of intercourse.

“he entered me like the vandals entering Rome”
“he attacked me until I thought I would die of it”. (Carter, 1999: 91)

Another sign to show Zero’s power over Eve (Evelyn), is metaphor. The sentence ‘he entered me like the vandals entering Rome’ (Carter, 1996: 91) is given a metaphorical interpretation as ‘the essence of metaphor is understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another.’ (Lakoff J and Johnson, 1980: 5)

Eve presents her sexual experience by referring to the attack of Rome by the vandals. In this way she emphasises the horror of this experience and even the fact that after her sexual attack what remained was remnants. In Rome, the disasters were both material and corporal and likewise Eve talks about the remnants of her body but mostly of her soul. So, in the extract, the concept of rape is metaphorically structured and talked about in terms of a historical event. The images of the horror of her body and soul being subjected into, are condensed into one single semi-sentence:

‘Like the vandals attacking Rome.’ (Carter, 1999: 91)

Zero sexually violates Eve several times and this is done because Angela Carter wants to emphasise the fact that a man is being punished for what he did to women (extract 6)\(^6\).

7. Finalising

The way Angela Carter shows the effect of a patriarchal culture on women and the roles available to them as being that of sexual violation. There are roles that in a patriarchal society are reserved for women. However, the question is on how different the reaction of these women towards sexual harassment or violence is. The issue challenges the ideological representation of women in the 1970’s. When Leilah is sexually violated by Evelyn, she does not seem to take any action so as to prove that she is in a way strong under Evelyn’s patriarchy. Instead, she puts her mother, who at the end of the book turns out to be Mother, to take the appropriate action against the man who sexually violated her. Mother takes drastic action by castrating Evelyn. So, Angela Carter treats the theme of female community. Evelyn’s mother is being assigned the role of rescuer of Leilah who has been sexually violated, thus Angela Carter challenging the stereotype of femininity. When the war of the sexes begun in 1913-1914 women were not alone in this and could as well as can rely on other women’s help who would be willing to punish the man who hurt not only the victim’s but the woman’s nature in general. The risk of depriving her heroine off autonomy thus reducing her to a state of helpless victim is not run in The Passion of New Eve, since the issue of sexuality presented has been reinforced as years go by, due to political, cultural as well as social changes that people have to consider and walk parallel with them.

8. Book Extracts

Extract 1

‘Don’t touch my arm! We shall be thrown out if you do!
Hold on round my waist!’
She grasped his waist, and so they reached the bottom.
‘Safe, thank God, in spite of your fooling!’ said she, her face on fire.
‘Tess-fie! That’s temper!’ said d’Urberville.
‘Tis truth.’
‘Well, you need not let go your hold of me so thanklessly the moment you feel yourself out of danger.’
She had not considered what she had been doing; whether he were man or woman, stick or stone, in her involuntary hold on him. Recovering her reverse she sat without replying and thus they reached the summit of another declivity.
‘Now then, again!’ said d’Urberville.
‘No, no! said Tess. ‘Show more sense, do, please.’
‘Now then, put your arms round my waist again, as you did before, my Beauty.’
‘Never!’ said Tess independently, holding on as well as she could without touching him.
‘Let me put one little kiss on those holmberry lips, Tess.......’
‘Oh, I don’t know-very well; I don’t mind!’ she panted miserably.

‘Very well’ said Tess, ‘I’ll not move since you be so determined! But I-thought you would be kind to me, and protect me as my kinsman!’
‘Kinsman be hanged! Now!’
‘But I don’t want anybody to kiss me, sir!’ she implored.................
‘And I wouldn’t ha’come if I had known!’

Extract 2

I told her firmly that she could not marry me and she must have an abortion. She sprang at me from the bed and tried to scratch out my eyes with her poor fingernails on which the purple enamel was now pitifully chipped. But I caught her wrists easily and held her down and reminded her she was only seventeen and very beautiful, that the world must contain a great deal more for such an enchanting person as herself than a penniless young Englishman who had not even got a job. I was a perfect, sanctimonious hypocrite. Nothing was too low for me to stoop to if it meant I could get rid of her.
I capitalised on the few books and possessions I kept at the Lower East Side apartment and gave the proceeds to her. I also gave her what little of the money I had left from the sum I originally brought with me but I did not tell her about the cheque my parents and sent me since now I had set my heart on the trip and did not want to jeopardise it in any way.
And, although all I told her was true, far more true than I wished to believe, because to acknowledge she was indeed just as beautiful and brilliant as I told her she was would have wounded my own vanity too severely, still, even then, I could pretend that I did not see her contempt in the face that now shut up all its dark petals against me.
When she came to herself, in the sullen convalescence from her hysteria, she did not turn against me. No; she became indifferent to me, though aqiescently so. I ceased to have any significance for her, and, in spite of myself, I was piqued. My irresponsible vanity, was a little dented. And, in my heart, I knew it was my own weakness, my own exhaustion that she had, in some sense, divined and reflected for me that had made her so attractive to me. She was a perfect woman;
like the moon, she only gave reflected light. She had mimicked me, she had become the thing I wanted of her, so that she could make me love her because I myself was so unlovable. So, hypocrites that we were, we spared ourselves the final hypocrisy of love. Or, I saved myself from that most brutal of all assaults, the siege of the other. Now Leilah became as limp, passive and obedient as I could wish.

Extract 3

So I was unceremoniously raped; and it was the last time I performed the sexual act as a man, whatever that means, though I took very little pleasure from it. None at all, in fact, for her thighs grasped me with the vigour of the female mantis and I felt only engulfment, followed by a few seconds brisk friction. Then came a great bellow that signalled a gratification with which I myself had had very little to do and she clasped her muscles together and expelled me...

Extract 4

Raising her knife, she brought it down. She cut off all my genital appendages with a single blow, caught her in her other hand and tossed them to Sophia, who slipped them into the pocket of her shorts. So, she excised everything I had been and left me, instead, with a wound that would, in future, bleed once a month, at the bidding of the moon.

Extract 5

Now I was alone with Zero. He hung his whip from a nail on the bare boards of a wall on which his guns were arranged in attractive patterns, then plumped himself down on his swivelling chair of black Italian leather-for he permitted himself every luxury he could steal- and motioned me brusquely to seat myself cross-legged on the floor, which was spread with a sumptuous carpet, inch-thick and deep crimson in colour, although very dirty and fouled with dog turds. I fastidiously did as I was bid and attempted to cover myself with my abundant hair for he had already raped me once that night and I did not like the way he flagellated me with the unique lash of his regard. His dog, a lurcher, that like its master, boasted only the one eye but balls the size of grapefruit, rose up from the luxurious basket in which it slept underneath his desk, stretched itself and approached me in order to subject me to an ordeal by sniffing. Its cold, twitching nose insinuated itself inside my navel and under my arms, so that I shivered but when I tried to move away, Zero took up the rifle propped against his desk, clicked back the safety catch and pointed it at me. After that, I kept as he pleased. He called his lurcher Cain; it was the one thing Zero loved, besides the sterility of the desert. I did not trust myself to speak, I shook my head. He appeared to believe me, nodded, told me to lie down on the floor regardless of the excrement which littered it, unfastened his fly, brought out a weapon which I now saw was of amazing size and, with a wild cry, hurled himself upon me; he entered me like the vandals attacking Rome. I felt a sense of grateful detachment from this degradation; I registered in my mind only the poignant fact of my second rape in two hours. 'Poor Eve! She's being screwed again!' The first time he assaulted me, I had been too overwhelmed by the horror of it to notice what he did with his wooden leg during intercourse; he merely let it lie beside him, like an extra but inert number, it only came into play during his perversions. As Zero's passion for me ran its course, it did not grow less but it grew bewildered. Something in me rang false; he knew it by atavistic intuition. One Sunday night, after he brusquely ordered me to undress, he took it into his head to examine me with almost a jeweller's eye; he could have
been inspecting a diamond he feared might be flawed. He made me stand on the desk and poked the barrel of a rifle in my ribs to make me turn round and round.

It was this perfection of physical beauty that puzzled Zero, even scared him, so that now, to master his fear, he attacked me until I thought I would die of it, so furious were his exertions, while the girls in hell outside his bed groaned so loudly I was sure he could hear them, too, and I began to cry, to drown the noise they were making and spare them a beating.

No, I’m lying, I cried because of the pain he caused me; me renewed eyes seemed to have me made of water, since often they would leak.

Extract 6

But Zero forestalled me. The whip cracked and the lash coiled round my ankle, bringing me to the floor. I was dragged back to the bed, protesting, and Marijane and Sadie prepared me for the sacrifice. They grasped my arms firmly while Betty Boop and Emmeline took hold each one of my ankles and spread my legs wide, so that the moist, crimson velvet with which I had been so scrupulously lined was exhibited to them all like meat. Now all bayed for Tristessa to mount me.

Tiny and Apple Pie had grasped his arms, though he showed no signs of running away herself, he was too dazed. At a sign from Zero, who sat lording it on the lid of James Dean’s coffin with his bearskin wrapped around him like a Highlander’s plaid, Betty Louella dropped to her knees before Tristessa and applied her intelligent mouth to the cock that seemed to them such a significantly male appendage. At that wet touch, Tristessa started and cried out.

To the East, three times a minute, I saw a brightening of the sky that hinted the sun was about to rise. Tristessa stared down in amazement at the erection Betty Louella had produced for him. But still he kept perfectly silent; still he said nothing while they jeered, and Tiny and Apple Pie led him to the bed on which I lay, Zero gave him a great kick in the arse so that, taken by surprise, he lost balance and toppled on top of me so unexpectedly he shook all the breath out of me. The glass bed was cold, hard and exposed as the mountain top on which Abraham presented Isaac with his knife. Now Tristessa, who lay upon me, raised himself upon his arms and gazed into my face. Again, the dark light of his eyes. He spoke; that rustling whisper, the dead leaves of his voice.

“I thought”, he said, “I was immune to rape. I thought that I had become inviolable, like glass, and could only be broke. “I felt his cock pressing against my upper thigh; it was quite stiff.

“Passivity,” he said. “Inaction. That time should act upon me, that I should not die. So I was seduced by the notion of a woman’s being, which is negativity. Passivity, the absence of being. To be everything and nothing. To be a pane the sun shines through.”

Then the sun broke free of the horizon through with a single shaft of brilliance. I was tired of waiting. I clasped my legs about him and drew him into me. He came immediately, amidst the roars of vile applause, and withdrew in almost the same motion. He tumbled out on to the floor, uttering great cries, while I writhed on the hard bed.

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Brief Biography

Vasiliki Karra is an English language teacher in the private sector. Her academic interests focus on teaching methodology as well as on the relation between teaching and the psychology of the student. Lately, she is doing a research on the reflection of the Anglo-Saxon sociology and civilisation within the first grade textbooks in public schools in Greece and abroad, which she hopes to be her academic research of her doctoral dissertation.
La poésie engagée dans la religion, sa réception et ses relations avec le lecteur contemporain

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Abstract:
We often hear the definitions engaging literature, engaging poetry, phrases that make us think deeper about their meaning. The question is: how can poetry, the art of free speech, the art of released images, and of dreams that float in space, become ‘enslaved’ and put in the service of a particular cause, limited within the framework of time and space? Which are the main themes of engaging poetry? Is religious poetry always engaging? What is the relationship of this poetry with the public, or with its readers? What is its life expectancy? Such questions often arise regarding engaging poetry. With this paper, which is based mainly on the ideas of the French writer Jean-Paul Sartre, in general we have tried to bring a critical approach regarding engaged poetry, and religious engagement especially in poetry.

Mots clés: poème engagé, religieux, défendre, liberté, protestantisme, catholicisme

1. Introduction
On va commencer notre réflexion par une poésie très significative écrite par Martin Niemöller, pasteur et théologien allemand, combattant lors de la Première Guerre Mondiale:

- Quand ils sont venus chercher les communistes
- Je n'ai rien dit,
- Je n'étais pas communiste.
- Quand ils sont venus chercher les syndicalistes
- Je n'ai rien dit,
- Je n'étais pas syndicaliste.
- Quand ils sont venus chercher les juifs
- Je n'ai pas protesté,
- Je n'étais pas juif
- Quand ils sont venus chercher les catholiques
- Je n'ai pas protesté,
- Je n'étais pas catholique.
- Puis ils sont venus me chercher
- Et il ne restait plus personne
- Pour dire quelque chose.

Chaque être humain, chaque homme qui vit et existe dans le monde, possède des convictions qui l’accompagnent pendant toute sa vie. A la lecture de cette poésie, chacun peut penser à lui-même, s’il est prêt à se battre avec des adversaires, à parler ouvertement de ses pensées, de ses attitudes, comportements, s’il est prêt à défendre à tout prix ses idées et ses opinions. Car, une chose est sûre dans le message de cette poésie: personne ne peut être neutre. Chaque être humain a des convictions, une
opinion à lui, il fait partie d’un groupe social, il est inclus dans un milieu particulier. Donc, il est engagé.

2. Qu’est-ce que la poésie engagée ?


Engagé: 3° Mis par son engagement au service d’une cause
Engagement: 10° Acte ou attitude de l’intellectuel, de l’artiste qui, prenant conscience de son appartenance à la société et au monde de son temps, renonce à une position de simple spectateur et met sa pensée ou son art au service d’une cause.

Qu’est-ce que la littérature engagée, la poésie engagée? Est-ce que cela peut exister, une vraie poésie engagée? La poésie n’est-elle pas un art, l’art n’est-il pas libre de toute sorte d’engagement, n’est-il pas une création littéraire indépendante, libre? Quel sera le ton d’un texte engagé? Comment va-t-on convaincre le récepteur? Comment s’échapperà-t-on à la censure et en même temps contester le pouvoir? Quelle sera la forme juste? L’essai, le pamphlet, le roman? Est-ce que la création poétique peut convaincre le lecteur, inciter son engagement, ou au contraire, la poésie brouille le message? Depuis l’Antiquité, il semble que le genre privilégié quant à l’engagement a été le théâtre. Pourtant, la poésie aussi est un moyen très potentiel pour renforcer différentes idées, pensées, convictions.

Le terme *littérature engagée* a été utilisé pour la première fois au XXe siècle. Jusqu’au XVIIIe siècle, la poésie était définie, comme une simple création rimée. Louis de Jaucourt dans son Encyclopédie définit le poète comme quelqu’un qui écrit en vers.

En général les poètes sont des hommes pacifiques, mais ils sont sensibles envers les injustices, la tyrannie, l’oppression, les différents malheurs de pauvres et ils lèvent la voix pour "changer le visage de la vie". Le poète est un créateur, il est un inventeur de formes expressives. Mais comme chaque artiste, lui aussi se pose des questions sur le monde qui l’entoure, sur la société dont il fait partie. Se rendant conscient de divers abus, le poète cesse d’être un simple spectateur et décide de mettre son art au service d’une cause qu’il défend. C’est à partir de ce moment que naît la poésie engagée. Cette sorte de poésie naît dans un moment particulier historique. Au fond, elle est une poésie qui surgit pendant les heures tragiques d’un pays. Des guerres mondiales, des conflits religieux, des dictatures, de la violence, violation des droits de l’homme, injustice, inégalité, racisme ..., dans de telles situations, le poète peut décider d’écrire pour défendre une cause. Sa poésie invite les lecteurs à réfléchir et à agir au service des personnes maltraitées, au service d’une idée qui mérite d’être défendue. Sa première fonction est de dévoiler la réalité. A travers leur engagement, les poètes décident de rendre visible ce qui est invisible, en forçant chez le lecteur une conviction, en le poussant à faire un pas, ou au moins en le faisant réfléchir. Le poète prend la position d’un combattant et souvent cet engagement en paroles, en création littéraire se traduit aussi dans l’engagement dans la vie réelle. Un grand nombre de poètes engagés ont été des dissidents. Souvent, ils ont eu des comportements différents du pouvoir de l’époque. Les poètes engagés souvent ont sacrifié, jusqu’à donner leur vie à la défense des causes diverses.

Ce qui caractérise ce type de poésie, c’est qu’elle a ses racines dans l’histoire. Dans une telle création littéraire on trouve des noms de lieux, des personnes, des dates.
historiques. Elle sert à convaincre les gens à faire partie dans une cause: le poète appelle ceux qui lui ressemblent et en même temps, il devient témoin pour les générations à venir. Le poète écrit en faveur d’un groupe particulier, ou pour défendre un droit universel. Pendant la deuxième Guerre Mondiale, plusieurs poètes refusèrent de rester indifférents et silencieux devant le nazisme; parfois ils ont risqué physiquement et ils sont morts dans cet âpre combat. Le poète engagé entend révéler la réalité à des gens simples, témoigner et dénoncer l’injustice. En mettant en évidence le mal et en défendant le bien, il transmet un message d’espoir. Les lecteurs de la poésie engagée sont incités à garder des valeurs qui périsserent à leur vue. A travers la poésie, le poète impressionne et émeut le récepteur, il le touche dans son point faible et l’exhorte à se lever pour corriger les erreurs et pour changer la situation.

Le lecteur se met à réfléchir et il pense comment changer la réalité dans laquelle il vit et avec laquelle il s’affronte chaque jour. Le but de la poésie engagée est de dénoncer les injustices sociales et politiques. A travers cette dénonciation, la poésie devient un souvenir pour l’avenir. Souvent, ces poésies deviennent des témoignages pour les temps à venir. Les poètes expriment leur désolation dans l’intention de faire connaître aux générations futures les horreurs passées pour qu’elles ne répètent pas les mêmes erreurs. De cette manière, elle devient une poésie didactique, qui enseigne et polémique, qui prétend jeter les lecteurs à l’action.

Sartre met l’écrivain dans une position particulière. Il le rend responsable en tant qu’homme public : “Ainsi de quelque façon que vous y soyez venu, quelles que soient les opinions que vous ayez professées, la littérature vous jette dans la bataille ; écrire c’est une certaine façon de vouloir la liberté ; si vous avez commencé, de gré ou de force vous êtes engagé”.

S’engager c’est prendre des risques. A la différence des autres humains, qui défendent une cause particulière, le poète a la possibilité de donner sa contribution pas seulement directement mais aussi à travers son œuvre littéraire. Il incite ses lecteurs à réagir. D’après Jean-Paul Sartre, « [...] la littérature est comme la loi; Nul n’est censé ignorer la loi parce qu’il y a un code et que la loi est chose écrite : après cela, libre à vous de l’enfreindre, mais vous savez les risques que vous courez. Pareillement, la fonction de l’écrivain est de faire en sorte que nul ne puisse ignorer le monde et que nul ne puisse s’en dire innocent. »

De cette façon, l’écrivain transforme le monde. Pour atteindre à ce but il lutte non pas avec une arme, mais avec sa plume. A travers la poésie engagée, à travers la force des images, le rythme et la musicalité des vers, le poète exprime ses convictions, fait naître chez le lecteur le désir de s’engager lui aussi. Mais cette poésie n’est pas digne de porter le nom poésie si elle cesse d’émouvoir le lecteur au-delà des conditions historiques qui l’ont fait naître.

Les causes de l’engagement sont nombreuses: elles peuvent être philosophiques, religieuses ; à la deuxième moitié du XVIe siècle, D’Aubigné défend les protestants avec son œuvre Les Tragiques et Ronsard écrit pour les catholiques son œuvre Discours sur les misères de ce temps. Les causes de l’engagement peuvent être politiques aussi. Au bout du compte, il ne peut exister une poésie totalement séparée du temps de son écriture, aucune poésie ne peut être insensible aux événements du temps, ce sont très rares les œuvres qui sont totalement séparées de la réalité. L’art pur et l’art vide sont la même.

1 Qu’est-ce que la littérature, Jean-Paul Sartre, p. 29
2 Ibid. , p.29
chose, écrit Sartre lorsqu’il parle du parnassisme. Chaque poète transmet un message à travers son œuvre. Si ce n’était pas vrai, il n’y aurait aucune nouveauté dans la poésie, ou dans aucun autre art.

La littérature engagée demande une ouverture totale vers le monde, une équivalence entre la parole et l’action; elle engage la responsabilité civique du poète qui ne se met pas au dessus des autres humains, mais au contraire, il se met au même niveau avec ses contemporains, il se jette dans la bataille pour eux et pour lui-même.

3. Le contexte historique et la naissance de la poésie engagée dans la religion en France

Au XVIe siècle, la France était l’un des pays les plus peuplés (16 millions d’habitants) et le pays le plus uni en Europe. Mais pendant cette période, apparaissent les tensions entre les catholiques et les protestants. La Réforme protestante était un mouvement religieux qui prétendait réformer l’Église catholique pour la faire retourner dans l’esprit des Evangiles. En France, le protestantisme n’a pas lutté directement les aspects fondamentaux du catholicisme; il y a eu en France une réforme dans les traditions du clergé et dans le fonctionnement de l’Église. Mais en Allemagne, Martin Luther a soutenu l’idée que le seul chemin pour le salut est la foi; si l’homme agit bien c’est par les mérites du Christ et non pas par ses propres efforts. Le Français Jean Calvin développa plus tard une nouvelle doctrine qui suivait les idées de Luther, la prédestination: Dieu a choisi les personnes qu’il va sauver et ceux qu’il va condamner. Ces doctrines s’opposent à l’idée catholique d’après laquelle, l’homme est responsable pour son salut.

La Réforme est née en tant qu’opposition contre les iniquités de l’Église sur le plan moral et financier aussi: les autorités religieuses profitaient de leur pouvoir politique et financier; ces abus engendrent des mouvements contraires et des protestations. Mais ces révoltes et ces insurrections de la part des protestants dans un pays où le roi est catholique, menacent le pouvoir royal aussi. En Europe cette division religieuse ne provoque pas de guerres civiles, mais en France elle entraîne différents conflits sociaux. Les adeptes du protestantisme sont mal vus de la part du pouvoir politique. Le roi se soucie pour son autorité. Pourtant le mouvement protestant avance et s’élargit de plus en plus, gagnant petit à petit toutes les classes de la société française. Il y a des persécutions contre les protestants qui commencent dès l’année 1562, au cours des huit guerres religieuses et qui culminent avec le massacre de la Saint Barthélémy.

Ronsard (1525-1584), qui avec une plume de fer écrit les œuvres Les Discours des misères de ce temps (1562), Continuation du Discours des misères (1562), Réponses aux injures et calomnies (1563) et défend la religion catholique. Il se prononce contre les protestants qui d’après lui, font mauvais usage de la foi.

Dans les milieux protestants, nait une littérature typiquement protestante; au début simplement théorique, pour mettre en évidence les idées nouvelles du protestantisme, après, elle se dirige au public d’une façon très particulière et touchante à travers le théâtre de Théodore de Bèze, ou la poésie: le poète Agrippa d’Aubigné, bouleversé dès son enfance par les massacres des catholiques envers les protestants, écrit les Tragiques, une œuvre de violence, qui est un tableau de la France de cette époque et une vision mystique de la vengeance future. En utilisant des tons très âpres, il défend les protestants menacés à chaque instant par les catholiques. Même s’ils doivent être libres d’exercer leur propre foi, ils ne peuvent pas vivre d’après leurs croyances. L’intention du poète est de rendre sensible le lecteur devant l’injustice qui passe sous ses yeux.

4. Les limites de l’engagement littéraire

D’après Dominik Manns, l’engagement de l’écrivain suppose le choix d’un public et d’une cause qui seront défendus dans le texte littéraire. Mais de l’autre côté, le poète engagé doit comprendre le besoin qu’il a d’être courageux: celui qui s’engage, conteste une règle générale, nourrit un contre-pouvoir.4

L’auteur engagé est celui qui, utilisant sa qualité d’homme public, se met au service d’une cause, pour contester, ou pour accuser. Montesquieu, Voltaire, les auteurs du siècle des lumières, Sade, Germaine de Staël, Jules Vallès, Victor Hugo sont des écrivains engagés car ils ont défendu une cause et ont choisi de mettre en évidence une opinion. « L’écrivain engagé sait que la parole est action : il sait que dévoiler c’est changer, et qu’on ne peut dévoiler qu’en projetant de changer. Il a abandonné le rêve impossible de faire une peinture impartiale de la société et de la condition humaine.”5

Ensuite Sartre cite Brice Parain lorsqu’il parle de l’écrivain engagé : « Il sait que les mots, comme dit Brice Parain, sont des "pistolets chargés". S’il parle, il tire. »6

Une question se pose: Est-ce que l’engagement nuit au procès de l’écriture? Puisque la poésie engagée se dirige envers un public précis, puisqu’elle défend une cause particulière, n’est-elle pas limitée et partielle? De cette façon, l’art devient un art utilitaire, la poésie devient utilitaire, un instrument, la création littéraire se soumet à une idéologie particulière. On peut conclure que la poésie engagée, une poésie de révolte, de lutte, ne parle pas d’amour, ni de sentiments ... dans cette poésie il n’y a pas de mélodie. Elle n’est qu’un cri, ne contient que des mots qui nous jettent en révolte et nous font réfléchir. Mais ce n’est pas juste; la poésie engagée parle d’amour. Elle ne cesse de lever la voix pour son ambition pour l’humanisme, l’amour, la bonté et la paix ... mais en même temps elle sait parler de la haine contre la guerre et contre la bêtise humaine. Les poètes engagés sont des chanteurs, des créateurs d’images. La poésie est un don saint qui leur a été offert et elle ne peut pas être méprisée: elle oriente l’amour, la conviction.

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4 http://archives.site.free.fr/siteportail/site3em2001/engage/prefaces.htm

5 Qu’est-ce que la littérature, Jean-Paul Sartre, p 28

6 Ibid, p.29
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Dans chaque forme qu’elle peut prendre dans divers moments de l’Histoire. Le poète engagé révèle ses propres convictions et est prêt à défendre ses idées à travers sa création. Il a les yeux ouverts pour connaître l’injustice et il possède la force de la dénoncer, de protester contre elle. C’est une valeur du poète engagé. Comme le dit André Gide, "un esprit incapable de révolte et d’indignation est un esprit sans valeur". 7 La poésie engagée peut risquer d’être mal interprétée, de ne pas être appréciée en dehors du contexte dans lequel elle a été écrite, avec les changements du temps, de la mentalité; l’émotion qu’elle suscite peut se faner, se perdre même. Est-ce que les lecteurs contemporains ont de l’intérêt à lire une poésie engagée, quelle que soit la cause de son engagement? Est-ce qu’on lit aujourd’hui de la même façon qu’au temps de leur écriture, les œuvres de Ronsard et de D’Aubigné? N’avons-nous pas besoin de précisions historiques et chronologiques? C’est vraie que c’est plus difficile de comprendre l’œuvre engagée de Ronsard que ses poèmes d’amour, mais la poésie engagée à la cause catholique, n’est-elle pas une poésie qui nous apprend et nous donne plus d’informations sur le moment historique? On s’enrichit dans deux domaines en même temps: la poésie engagée est une poésie comme toutes les autres quant à ses valeurs littéraires, et elle nous ouvre aussi un horizon nouveau, inconnu, qui suscite notre curiosité. La poésie est une magie, elle touche et émeut toutefois. Le thème, son contenu se renforcent et deviennent plus beaux par l’utilisation de la rime et d’autres éléments poétiques qui la rendent plus intéressante dans tous les sens. Les images utilisés dans la poésie engagée comme l’ironie, la satire et le grotesque, les hyperboles, les métaphores, les comparaisons etc., sont nombreuses et aident le poète à argumenter son idée, elles suscitent l’imagination et la sensibilité du lecteur afin d’inciter l’émotion et son acceptation à chaque période.

Le rythme et le jeu des sons sont très importants dans une poésie engagée: la répétition des expressions et des structures syntaxiques, les parallélismes et les oppositions, les assonances et les allitérations créent un dynamisme musical qui facilite la mémoire et la transmission des textes. Même si le sujet du poème peut être lié à des conditions particulières, le poète peut surpasser le contexte et créer une œuvre d’art d’une valeur universelle.

5. La poésie religieuse est-elle toujours engagée?

Chaque auteur doit être conscient qu’il est impliqué dans ce qu’il écrit et qu’en même temps, il implique le lecteur aussi. Il doit écrire en s’engageant consciemment, sachant qu’il écrit toujours pour un public particulier et qu’il répond à une urgence particulière.

La poésie religieuse est aussi ancienne que la poésie française si on prend en compte que le premier texte écrit en français, intitulé “Le Cantilène de Sainte Eulalie”, qui date du IXe siècle, est non seulement la première manifestation de la poésie religieuse, mais aussi il est l’exemple de la foi des premiers poètes qui voulaient exprimer leur croyance dans leurs écrits.

Mentionner la religion, le pouvoir, la politique, est une sorte d’engagement de toute façon. Mais il faut distinguer la poésie religieuse engagée dans des moments particuliers de l’histoire, dans des moments particuliers du développement social. La poésie religieuse engagée prédomine le XVIe siècle, pendant les guerres religieuses. Pierre de

Ronsard pour les catholiques et Agrippa D'Aubigné pour les protestants symbolisent la poésie engagée, dans laquelle la foi était vivante, mais la haine et l'esprit de vengeance aussi. La préoccupation est double dans le cas du poète religieux engagé: il est premièrement citoyen, mais il est aussi poète (créateur) et croyant aussi. Il y a une sorte d'unité dans le rapport Art-Vie. Agrippa D'Aubigné a été blessé luttant pour la cause protestante. Il écrit:

*Je veux peindre la France une mère affligée,*  
*Qui est, entre ses bras, de deux enfants chargée.*  
**Le plus fort, orgueilleux, empoigne les deux bouts**  
**Des tétons nourriciers ; puis, à force de coups**  
**D'ongles, de poings, de pieds, il brise le partage**  
**Dont la nature donnait à son besson l'usage ;**  
**Ce voleur acharné, cet Esaü malheureux ?**  
**Fait dégât du doux lait qui doit nourrir les deux,**  
**Si que, pour arracher à son frère la vie,**  
**Il méprise la sienne et n'en a plus d'envie.**  
**Mais son Jacob, pressé d'avoir jeûné meshui,**  
**Ayant dompté longtemps en son cœur son ennui,**  
**A la fin se défend, et sa juste colère**  
**Rend à l'autre un combat dont le champ est la mère.**

De l'autre côté, de la part des catholiques, c'est Ronsard qui écrit:

*"Je veux malgré les ans au monde publier,*  
*D'une plume de fer sur un papier d'acier,*  
*Que ses propres enfants l'ont prise et dévêtue*  
*Et jusques à la mort vilainement battue".*

Dans les deux poèmes, même si les deux poètes défendent des causes différentes, il y a un thème qui apparaît, qui est commun, très sublime, qui rend ces poèmes proches de l'un l'autre: l'amour pour la patrie. Les deux poètes révèlent leur inquiétude pour leur chère patrie, pour la France et la situation dans laquelle elle se trouve. Le poème *Les tragiques* d'Agrippa d'Aubigné, est un poème qui se fonde sur une allégorie de la guerre civile. A travers l'allégorie, D'Aubigné défend la cause protestante et dénonce la guerre qui a entrainé la destruction de la France. Le poème est un tableau tragique et une vision allégorique de la guerre entre les deux frères. Cette allégorie, accompagnée d'un pathétisme très fort est une arme pour dénoncer les horreurs de l'époque. Les scènes de l'horreur, du massacre sont décrites minutieusement pour que les lecteurs connaissent comment les protestants ont été persécutés par les catholiques. D'Aubigné se caractérise par la foi dans l'homme et par son intérêt dans la connaissance et la découverte de la littérature antique.

Les poètes français, à partir du XVIIe siècle sont tournés vers “l’Antiquité biblique”. On peut affirmer que presque tous les poètes français, dans un moment de leur création ont créé des louanges à Dieu. Dans la poésie française le thème religieux a toujours été prédominant. Mais on ne peut pas affirmer que chaque poème religieux est engagé. Dans des moments de paix et de coexistence entre les différentes religions, le poète n’a pas besoin de faire appel pour la défense des droits, il n’a pas besoin de sensibiliser les lecteurs et de les jeter dans la contestation. Le poète exprime seulement ses sentiments.
qui sont liés à la religion. En effet, la religion est souvent une source d’inspiration pour différents poètes. Le poète français Paul Claudel qui est connu aussi comme un poète chrétien, dans ses poèmes de thème religieux, ne fait pas appel pour la défense de la chrétienté, il exprime simplement ses sentiments religieux, sans utilisant de tons graves, sans ironie, satire, sans le grotesque. Il ne peut absolument pas être appelé poète engagé, il s’appelle poète chrétien, ainsi comme d’autres poètes peuvent être appelés, poète de l’amour etc.

6. Conclusion
La poésie engagée est une poésie qui contient de très grandes valeurs, des valeurs artistiques, comme chaque œuvre artistique, et historiques parce qu’elle nous aide à mieux connaître des moments particuliers de l’Histoire. Le lecteur peut apprécier et savourer en chaque époque ce type de poésie pour ses qualités et sa grandeur. La poésie religieuse est une poésie qui peut être appelée engagée dans différents moments de l’histoire, comme dans le cas des conflits religieux, mais de l’autre côté, quand il n’y a pas de conflits, quand les poètes ne sont pas obligés à écrire des vers liés au thème religieux pour défendre leurs points de vue, ils choisissent d’écrire de tels poèmes ainsi comme d’autres poètes qui choisissent d’écrire pour l’amour, l’amitié, pour les sentiments humains en général. Le thème religieux peut devenir une source d’inspiration comme chaque autre thème. L’amour qu’on sent pour la patrie nous pousse-t-il à créer absolument une poésie engagée? Cela ne peut pas être affirmé. Au moment où un pays est soumis par un autre pays, c’est sûr qu’il y aura des poètes qui écrivent pour la défense de leur Patrie, contre les envahisseurs, les oppresseurs et qui mettent leur art au service de cette cause, mais quand la Patrie est délibérée, dans une période de paix, il y aura des poètes qui s’inspirent de l’amour pour le pays et qui écrivent pour lui. Dans ce dernier cas, on ne peut pas dire qu’on a à faire avec une poésie engagée, elle est une poésie comme toute autre poésie. C’est la même chose pour les poèmes de thème religieux. La poésie religieuse relève de différents genres. Elle peut être didactique et donner plus de connaissances sur la religion, ou métaphysique, parlant des phénomènes spirituels ; elle peut être une confession personnelle de la foi. Le thème religieux peut inspirer des croyants ou des non-croyants, mais dans tous les cas ‘les poètes [...] témoignent de la possibilité d’entrer en union parfaite avec l’Absolu, c’est à dire avec Dieu quel que soit le nom qu’on Lui donne’. C’est une poésie qui résiste aux temps, une création de grandes valeurs esthétiques et sociales qui mérite d’être lue et appréciée comme toute autre forme d’art.

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Brève biographie

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Abstract

The numeration in any base for whole numbers is a mathematical topic which introduces new registers of representation. We reinterpret the question for treatments in the new registers in the language of praxeologies: new praxis is to be built. In this paper, our first objective is to examine the cognitive distinction between treatment and conversion made by Duval for the registers of numeration in base other than ten. Two inquiries were made and analyzed with the Statistical Implicative Analysis (SIA) that has permitted to show two cognitive difficulties for coding numbers into the position numeration in any base that comes from: 1) the base is different from ten and 2) the base is greater than ten. Our second objective concerns the technological potential of polynomial writing. The SIA permits us to show that this register is important for the success of the types of tasks and for the construction of techniques in any base.

Keywords: Position numeration, any base, registers, praxis, elementary school teachers

1. Introduction

The aim of this paper is to compare the training of first degree teachers in mathematics in France and Greece. In this article we present some questions raised by the numeration in any base. It is a theme which can bring out phenomena that can be analyzed by both praxeologies and registers of representation.

To analyze the items on the numeration in any base, we use the relationship, introduced in Vivier (2008), between the Anthropological Theory of Didactics (ATD) of Chevallard (1999, 2002) and the registers of semiotic representation of Duval (1993, 1996, 2006). The ATD provides a framework for linking techniques with the types of tasks by inserting them into a mathematical organization, which is not permitted directly by Duval’s framework. On the other hand, the distinction of techniques between treatment and conversion allows, for non-congruent conversion, to distinguish a cognitive difference pointed by Duval that praxeologies generally do not permit to analyze.

Our frame of analysis seems well adapted for studying the introduction of a new register of representation for which new techniques must be elaborated. We would like to point out that it is not our intention to articulate Chevallard’s and Duval’s frameworks. We would like to take into account semiotic registers within praxis by restriction to the numerical frame.

We have proposed two tests on position numeration in any base which is, restricted to ten base, a central teaching theme in elementary school. After a preliminary study, some questions arose. Our goal is to address these questions and answer them, by a statistical study. The types of tasks proposed in the main test are much more numerous than in the
preliminary test and didactic variables are adjusted for the needs of this study. Data collected through the main test were analyzed through the software CHIC (Gras et al. 2009).

We start by presenting theoretical link between frameworks of Chevallard and Duval. We stress the importance of taking into account praxeologies and registers simultaneously. Then, we describe the context of the studies and teachers’ training systems in both countries. The results are presented in section 5 for total population and section 6 for a comparison of the two populations.

2. Theoretical Framework

In this section we develop the relationship between praxis (Chevallard 1999, 2002) and registers of representation (Duval 1993, 1996, 2006) that we will use in the analysis of the next sections.

Via a distinction of techniques from registers, we would like to preserve a part of students’ cognitive activity revealed by Duval. Besides a better praxeological description, this theoretical work provides, as it is the case in this study, results which are not easily detectable by other experimental means.

2.1 Praxis in ATD

In the Anthropological Theory of Didactics (ATD) the mathematical activity is elaborated around type(s) of tasks and it is appointed by Chevallard (1999) as mathematical organization. Generally, to perform a type of tasks $T$, we have at least one technique $\tau$. Type of tasks and techniques are organized in a $[T, \tau]$ appointed block of know-how or praxis. If no technique is available, the type of tasks $T$ is problematic and requires the production of a technique (Chevallard 1999). To produce and/or justify a technique $\tau$, it is necessary to have a theoretical look at the problem posed by $T$. Chevallard defines a block of knowledge or logos, made up of technology and theory. Type of tasks, techniques, technology and theory form a praxeology, called a specific praxeology when one considers only one type of tasks.

2.2 Registers of semiotic representation

In his framework, Duval takes another point of view. He starts from signs used in the mathematical work grouped into registers of semiotic representations (Duval 1993, 1995, 1996, 2006). The essential distinction made by Duval consists of the dichotomy between treatment and conversion. Treatment is a semiotic transformation which remains within the same register of representation $R$. Conversion is a semiotic transformation whose result is expressed in another register.

Duval (1996), stresses the essential cognitive difference between treatment and conversion. Conversion is much more complex and problematic than treatments, especially a non-congruent conversion. However, as Duval stated, two reciprocal conversions are generally not cognitively equivalent.
2.3 Praxis indexed by registers

In ATD, a type of tasks is not always stated with reference to the register(s) of representation in use. However, a student task is always expressed by using semiotic registers. These can significantly influence the cognitive activity of students. To take this distinction into consideration we index the types of tasks by the registers in which they are expressed. When the type of tasks $T$ is relative to a single register of representation $R$, we write $T_R$. Similarly, a technique $\tau$ specific to one register $R$, that is to say a treatment of $R$, is denoted by $\tau_R$. Thus, we obtain a praxis relative to a register $R$ which we write $[T_R, \tau_R]$ or simply $[T, \tau_R]$ and we call it a $R$-praxis. Within a single register $R$ we could schematically represent the situation by the figure 1.

\[ \begin{array}{c}
T_R \\
\uparrow \tau_R \\
\text{Solution in R}
\end{array} \]

We should distinguish between two types of techniques denoted by $\tau_R$. This could be a pure treatment (Duval 1993), meaning one internal semiotic transformation to a register $R$, or another type of technique which provides one external response to register $R$. For this second type we can give one example: to determine the parity of a written number in base $a$, there is not necessarily a transformation (if $a$ is even) and especially the result is not expressed in the initial register – this is not a treatment in the strict sense of Duval.

2.4 Conversions

The previous framework is very local and does not permit, by itself, any modelisation of the mathematical activity. For example, a type of tasks can be expressed in several registers which requires the coordination of registers and conversions. To build a link between Chevallard’s and Duval’s point of views, we consider a conversion between two registers $R \rightarrow R'$ as a technique $\tau_{R \rightarrow R'}$. These conversion techniques are, according to Duval, very different in a cognitive point of view from the treatment techniques which are expressed in a single register.

Likewise, if it is clear that a mathematical technique is not always internal to a single register, our analysis framework permits to decompose one mathematical technique as a succession of techniques of one of the two preceding types. Duval states that the fundamental cognitive functioning of mathematics requires the coordination of at least two registers of representation (Duval 1996, 2006). We reinterpret his remark by using the language of praxeologies. We consider two registers $R$ and $R'$ and two reciprocal conversion techniques $\tau_{R \rightarrow R'}$ and $\tau_{R' \rightarrow R}$. These, as reported by Duval (1996), permit the coordination of registers. But coordination goes further: these conversion techniques allow the coordination of treatments, $\tau_R$ and $\tau_{R'}$, and also the types of tasks, $T_R$ and $T_{R'}$. Finally the conversion techniques allow the coordination of $R$-praxis, $[T, \tau_R]$ and $[T, \tau_{R'}]$ (figure 2).

---

1 We explain in (Block, Nikolantonakis & Vivier, 2012) why this point of view is restrained to the numerical domain.
But we will see that conversion techniques also allow avoidance strategies: if one wants to solve $T'_{R'}$ then the production of a technique $\tau_{R'}$, specific to the register $R'$, could be blocked by the knowledge of $[T, \tau]_R$. It is sufficient to use $\tau_{R \rightarrow R'}$ and then solve $T_R$ by using $\tau_R$. Then possibly use $\tau_{R ightarrow R'}$ if one wants to go back to the original register $R'$. From the ATD point of view, a conversion technique is a technology: $\tau_{R' \rightarrow R}$ allows to produce a technique for solving $T_{R'}$, by using the $R$-praxis $[T, \tau]_R$. However, as we will see in this case and in our study, a conversion has to be seen as a technique rather than a technology. The situation is summarized in figure 3 which should be compared with figure 1.

Of course, we could understand the situation with the praxeologies only by specifying the register in the statement of one type of tasks. A technique for solving $T_{R'}$ will be either to work in one register, with $\tau_{R'}$, or to do a conversion, with $\tau_{R \rightarrow R'}$ before doing a treatment in the register $R$, with $\tau_R$. But putting treatment and conversion on equal terms, this modelling masks the essential cognitive difference revealed by Duval.

2.5 Necessary restriction to numerical framework

The distinction among techniques described previously permits a conciliation of the two frameworks on the crucial point of conversions.

Firstly, the distinction between treatment and conversion is maintained and by following Duval, we insist on the fundamental different character of the two types of techniques that we note with generic way $\tau_R$ and $\tau_{R \rightarrow R'}$. But this is not sufficient because what we call the technique of conversion should be consistent from the didactic point of view.

In every conversion we find one algorithmic (or algorithmisable) part which corresponds to mathematical work and constitutes the tangible part of conversion (notably from writing traces). Without reducing one conversion to an algorithmic work, it is this algorithmic part which we call conversion technique.
In particular and this is a very important and essential restriction: we can reasonably consider one conversion technique $\tau_{R\rightarrow R'}$ only when the passage from $R$ to $R'$ could be described with algorithmic mode or at least when cognitive variables of the situation have very little influence on the development of the algorithm. Duval (1995: 42) points out that we cannot always define conversion rules. This fact put limits on the significance of our proposition.

That is why we restrain the study to numerical frame because generally one conversion between two registers of representation of numbers could be described by an algorithm. It is clear that in our analysis framework, from the specific cognitive character of a conversion we conserve a part which includes notably the conscient choice of a subject to do this conversion. Sometimes the cognitive difference between a conversion and a treatment could be erased totally because only algorithmic component, which is a technique in the sense of ATD, is to the responsibility of the subject. This could be either because we ask explicitly the subject to do this conversion either it is corresponding to a technique which has been worked in the institution for doing some type of tasks.

3. Methodology

3.1 Context

In Greece four years of training in pedagogical university departments are fully allocated to primary education against only two in France at the University Institutes of Teachers Training (IUFM).

In Greece, primary education continues through grade 6 included while in France it ends after grade 5. Thus, teachers of first degree in Greece must master to teach more mathematical content than their French colleagues.

However, the two training systems are similar on the subject of the numeration in any base. The courses on the numeration in any base, in the two institutions aim at making students understand the relativity of the base ten while understanding the general mechanisms of the position numeration the following points are addressed and worked upon:

- encoding;
- ordinal aspect;
- conversion between two bases;
- some simple calculations to better understand the mechanism included in the operative techniques.

The numbers of teaching hours on this subject are similar: 9 hours of courses on the subject for Greek students and 6 hours for French students. French and Greek students have similar expertise with the numeration in any base.

3.2 Research Methodology

We have proposed two tests on position numeration in any base which took place in the IUFM of Tours, France, and in the pedagogical university of Florina, Greece, in 2009 and 2010. In preliminary test (Annex 1), French and Greek populations (100 Greek students and 26 French students) seem very close. Two hypotheses came out from this test:
Different systems of position numeration could be interpreted as different registers;
Adjusting didactic variables permits the emergence of the polynomial writing as a full register, with its technological potential, and not as a simple transitional writing for a conversion between an a base and ten base.

The principal objective is the validation of these two hypotheses. By the main test we want to compare the Greek and French populations more deeply by using CHIC software (Gras et al. 2009). Hence, we have extended our efforts in two directions: we increased the size of the French population (total population 334 students, 195 French students and 139 Greek students) in order to provide statistically satisfactory conclusions and studied praxis more extensively with more types of tasks, always in bases other than ten. In our main test we have added three more tasks (Annex 2).

The goal is to look for similarities between variables in order to bring out the different character of treatments and conversions but also, by implicative trees, the quasi-implications between variables, mainly those variables relative to the use of polynomial writing register $R_{\text{poly}}$.

4. Discussion concerning the total population

In this section we validate, for the total population, the two hypotheses cited above coming from the preliminary study. we recall here: (1) different systems of position numeration could be interpreted as different registers; (2) adjusting didactic variables permits the emergence of the polynomial writing as a full register, with its technological potential, and not as a simple transitional writing for a conversion between an a base and ten base.

4.1 Registers of representation of numbers in base $a$

The coding of whole numbers in base $a$ system constitutes a register of representation in the sense of Duval (1993, 1996), denoted by $R_a$. From a mathematical point of view, all these registers are equivalent, and very similar in their functioning.

From a cognitive point of view, any variation in $R_a$ induces a variation in $R_b$: the variations of any kind are cognitively relevant. In addition, these conversions are not congruent at all: in general all the digits as well as the number of digits change.

To convert $R_a \rightarrow R_b$ for a number $N$, there are essentially two conversion techniques:

- $\tau_{\text{div}}^a_{\rightarrow b}$, making successive Euclidean divisions by $b$ in $R_a$, starting from the Euclidean division of $N$ by $b$. The successive remainders, by identifying them with the digits in $R_b$, give digits of $N$ in $R_b$ (see figure 4);

Figure 4: G12 from the Preliminary test, the technique of reconversion with division

- $\tau_{\text{pd}}^a_{\rightarrow b}$, from polynomial development in $R_a$, converting $a$ and the digits of $a$ in $R_b$, then calculating in $R_b$ (see figures 5a and 5b).
**Figure 5a:** F9 from the Preliminary test- Polynomial development allows one conversion and then a treatment in $R_{ten}$, the reconversion is explicit, but without visible technique.

\[
\begin{align*}
  10^3 & = 3 \times 10^2 + 0 \times 10^1 + 1 \times 10^0 \\
  18 & < 20 \\
  10100 & = 0 \times 2^7 + 0 \times 2^6 + 1 \times 2^5 + 0 \times 2^4 + 1 \times 2^1 \\
  20 & = 0 \times 2^7 + 0 \times 2^6 + 1 \times 2^5 + 0 \times 2^4 + 1 \times 2^1 \\
  19 & > 21 \\
  100 & < 1000 \\
  1000 & < 10000
\end{align*}
\]

**Figure 5b:** G14 from the Preliminary test, an error in using $\tau^{pd}_{a,ten}$$

\[
\begin{align*}
  103 & \rightarrow 1.4^2 + 0.4^1 + 3.4^0 = 28 \\
  103 & \rightarrow 6 \cdot 7^1 + 6 \cdot 7^0 + 42 + 42 = 84 \\
  103 & \rightarrow 6 \cdot 7^1 + 6 \cdot 7^0 + 42 + 42 = 84
\end{align*}
\]

These conversions require mastering the operating techniques in $R_a$ or $R_b$ which is generally the case only in $R_{ten}$. Thus, we can think reasonably that:

- the conversion $R_{ten} \rightarrow R_b$ is often performed by the conversion technique $\tau^{div}_{ten,b}$;
- the conversion $R_a \rightarrow R_{ten}$ is often performed by the conversion technique using the polynomial development $\tau^{pd}_{a,ten}$;
- the conversion $R_a \rightarrow R_b$ involving two different bases from the base ten is often performed by the double conversion $R_a \rightarrow R_{ten} \rightarrow R_b$ by using the polynomial development $\tau^{pd}_{a,ten}$ and then the Euclidean division $\tau^{div}_{ten,b}$.

In continuation of the preliminary study, many points seem to indicate that different registers are involved. On the one hand, it is clear that signs relative to every register differ since the digits are not the same, even though, when $a>b$ every digit of $R_b$ can be interpreted as a digit of $R_a$. In the other hand, some treatments are different.

In addition, the similarities tree on the total population of main test (figure 6) shows that treatments and conversions are distinct. We find the cognitive distinction between treatment and conversion made by Duval when we have to deal with distinct registers. It should be noted that only statistical analysis permits to find this distinction. In fact, during our preliminary study (Annex 1) we only made the analysis with percentage of error which does not permit distinguishing treatment from conversion.
Thus, if we can always discuss resemblances or differences between registers $R_a$ and $R_b$, we validate statistically our first hypothesis, at least for $R_a$ and $R_{ten}$.

In this tree one can see that No Responses (NR) to the 9 items constitute very similar variables which were all regrouped at level 8 (similarity index 1). They concern approximately 20% of students with disparities between items (annex 2). These students were divided into two groups: those who are put off by registers $R_a$ when $a \neq ten$ and those who were bothered by the types of tasks in register $R_a$, that means the $R_a$-praxis. Thus, the registers do not constitute the only interpretation element since it has been combined with praxis. And for this reason we are using the framework presented in section 2.

Separately, the two populations have very close profiles with those evoked previously (see annex 3). Treatments error variables were grouped with « NR » variables, the formed block was not grouped with other variables and notably with conversions error variables.

### 4.2. One hierarchy of $R$-praxis

The main test proposes 5 types of tasks. Annex 2 shows, by the rate of success (OK) and no response (NR), that these types of tasks are distinct. Moreover, in blocks « errTreat », « errConv », « OK » or « NR » of figure 6, we identify sub-blocks associated with the types of tasks SP and EO.

The implicative graph of the total population gives one hierarchy of the difficulty order of items (Annex 4, figure 11). The quasi-implications of « OK » and « NR » propose a identical hierarchy to the inversion SPa/SPc and to the particular case of SPd.

The simplest type of tasks is Class (6% of NR and 82% of OK) which constitutes, with SPd, the only item which can be carried out correctly by application of knowledge of base ten. The most difficult tasks are EO, notably in odd base (EOb : 19% of NR and 51% of OK) and the coding on Eleven base (Elev : 17% of NR and 39% of OK). The difficulty of the item EOb could be explained by the proposed number, which has a big number of digits, and by the parity of base which put in default the usual technique of $R_{ten}$. 

**Figure 6:** Similarities tree for total population (Fr+Gr) of main test.
The difficulty of the second type of tasks, Elev, is much more surprising to the extent that the coding of numbers in bases other than ten has been worked, even though it is clear that essentially the difficulty lies on the fact that the base is strictly superior to ten and we should code ten as a digit.

We deduce the following hierarchy of R-praxis, where we put in index the characteristics of the base $a$ of register $R_a$:

$$Elev_{a>ten} - EO_{a \, odd} - \times8_{arten} - EO_{a \, even} - SP_{arten} - Class_{arten}.$$  

### 4.3. Technological potential of polynomial writing register

The similarity tree of the whole population (figure 6) shows a gather together on significant level 18 (index of similarity 1) of three variables «poly» of the three concerned items. This is not surprising since polynomial writing constitutes a very efficient register to treat the types of tasks for which we do not have an institutional technique.$^2$

Of course, the procedure which consists of doing firstly one conversion in $R_{ten}$ is always possible, but the size of number is, for EO, a didactic variable which makes conversion difficult. Thus, we can think that some students, on the way for a conversion, stay on the polynomial writing by asking themselves if it is reasonable to calculate this great expression and understand that, for EO$a$, all terms of sum are evens. They conclude on the parity of number by proceeding to a treatment in $R_{poly}$. Some of them enunciate and justify in a correct manner the techniques that are the criterions of parity, according to the parity of the base (see figures 7a and 7b).

**Figure 7a:** F66 from the Main test, production of parity criterion into $R_{eight}$

**Figure 7b:** F74 from the Main test, production of parity criterion into $R_{seven}$

We have not thought that the technological potential of $R_{poly}$ was realized so strongly. Our second hypothesis is validated – independently from the weak percentage of

$^2$ This is partially true for « $\times8$ » since we found it frequently in the technique which consists of « sum up a zero » like G61 who wrote: “In the octal system 8 is 10. So $3405 \times 10 = 34050_8$.”
students who used $R_{poly}$ as a technological element (4% for $\times8$, 11% for $EO_a$ and 8% for $EO_b$).

This technological element is not anecdotal as we can observe on the implicative graph for the whole population (Annex 4, figure 12). The three variables « poly » are on the top of the sub-graph containing the variable « OK », that seems to indicate one important variable for the success of the types of tasks.

No Greek student has used $R_{poly}$ register in a way other than transitory register between $R_a$ and $R_{ten}$, $R_{poly}$ register was considered as a stage of conversion. Thus, our second hypothesis was finally validated for the French population only.

5. Comparison of two populations

5.1 Worked types of tasks

The type of tasks $SP$ is effectively worked in the two insitutions and was very well succeeded with a difference between $S$ and $P$. The similarity tree for the French population shows a gather together of all « OK » variables on significative level 44 (index 0.08; Annex 3) with two blocks: one with SP-OK and Class-OK (level 42, index 0.63) and one other with EO-OK, $\times8$-OK and Elev-OK (level 43, index 0.59). The similarity tree for the Greek population (Annex 3) is quite similar but, for the same variables the two blocks are distinct: on the one hand, the type of tasks $SP$ and on the other hand the others. $SP$ is the only type of tasks which is worked, by Greek population, in $R_a$ registers and the other types of tasks are worked with the help of a conversion to base ten.

5.2 Not worked type of tasks

On the other hand, successes are weak for the type of tasks Elev because this type of tasks is very little worked. Greek students present more difficulties with this type of tasks (Gr: 20% NR and 22% OK ; Fr: 15% NR and 50% OK). This is without doubt a teaching effect. If, in the two institutions, several type of tasks have been worked in $R_a$, with the elaboration of treatment techniques, it is worth noticing that in Greece this type of tasks have been worked also by a treatment in base ten after a conversion. This is useless for Elev which is a conversion $R_{ten}R_{eleven}$.

This table gives precisions for the use of base ten in the two teaching institutions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$\times8$</th>
<th>$EO_a$</th>
<th>$EO_b$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>« ten »</td>
<td>77%</td>
<td>78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>« NR »</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>« ten »</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>« NR »</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This is useles for Elev which is a conversion $R_{ten}R_{eleven}$.

For Greek students, it is the success of a type of tasks – for EO and $\times8$ – which implies a base ten treatment whereas for French students, it is the use of base ten as a base for treatments which implies the success of the types of tasks.
6. Discussion on the development of R-praxis

Duval states (1993, 1996) that, it is important to have several representation registers in order not to mix up a mathematic object with one of its representations. This has been put in evidence by the type of tasks Elev when the number ten is very often mixed up with its code 10 in base ten.

For some students, we feel a tension between the technique in base ten and the coding of a number. Some students stay to the stage of astonishment but others write clearly that a number is odd in base seven and even in base ten (see figure 8). This problem comes from an elaborate R-praxis on a naturalized register, $R_{\text{ten}}$.

**Figure 8:** F122 from the Main test, the parity of a number depends on the coding base

Duval (1993, 1996) equally argues that it is important to be able to choose one register rather than another to carry out the treatments. It seems that the possibility of this choice masks one difficulty. In fact, and Greek population testifies this, the possibility to make a treatment in base ten systematically does not permit developing the R-praxis into a base other than ten.

It appears from our study that the choice of the register for treatments strongly depends on the type of tasks$^3$. These students who made an $R_{\text{ten}}$ treatment after a conversion by $\tau_{a_3,\text{ten}}$ (possibly followed by a reconversion, see figure 5a) are not blocked by $R_\alpha$, but they either lack treatment in this register, or they dare not to have an “adventure” into this register by lack of insurance. In both cases, there is no R-praxis made for the types of tasks SP and EO and it is necessary to build techniques. These are obtained by a conversion into $R_{\text{ten}}$ where one has techniques.

It seems that it is important to work on bases other than ten and also it is necessary to develop the associated R-praxis, without which the new registers risk to leave incomplete the cognitive role attributed to them by Duval. For doing this, and as we have explained in section 5.3, the technological role played by $R_{\text{poly}}$ register in the construction of numerical R-praxis seems particularly important.

7. Conclusion

Our first objective was to find the cognitive distinction between treatment and conversion made by Duval for the registers of numeration in base other than ten. In fact, during our first experimentation (Nikolantonakis & Vivier 2009) we could not put this fact in evidence. The Statistical Implicative Analysis (SIA) has been an indispensable tool by showing similarities between different variables of treatment on the one hand and of

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$^3$ Duval (2006: 127) discusses this point saying that “It is the choice of treatment that makes the choice of register relevant”. We claim that this choice depends on types of tasks and R-praxis.
conversion on the other. SIA has permitted us to validate our hypothesis by making it precise since it is the distinction between base ten and the other bases of numeration that we put in evidence.

More precisely, we point out two cognitive difficulties particularly important for coding numbers into the position numeration:

- the introduction of representation registers $R_a$ with $a \neq ten$;
- the introduction of representation registers $R_a$ with $a > ten$.

These cognitive difficulties relative to $R_a$ registers, are obviously connected and seemed, after our study, stable from one institution to the other and from one teaching to the other.

Nevertheless, the interpretation needs to go much further because registers and types of tasks influence jointly the mathematical activity. We can see that particularly in the second difficult item, EOb, which introduce one register $R_a$, $a < ten$, but no internal technique to $R_a$ is available. In that sense we have proposed one hierarchy to R-praxis in section 5.2.

It has to be noticed that if success percentages give some indications on this hierarchy, it is the implicative trees which were crucial for the elaboration of this R-praxis Classification. This point seems particularly rich from a methodological point of view.

The theoretical framework of registers and praxis permits studying some key indicators which, by using SIA, show some relations and in return, justify the validity and the interest of our didactic analysis framework. The a priori analysis has shown the importance of polynomial writing register which constitutes a very efficient register for treating the types of tasks for which we have not disposed of an institutional technique. Unfortunately, not many students use the technological potential of this register. It is used in majority as a transitory register during a stage of conversion between one base $a$ and the base ten. We have nevertheless validated our second hypothesis formulated from our previous analyses on the technological potential of polynomial writing, notably with similarities concerning two different types of tasks. The SIA permits us to go much further by showing, by the quasi-implications, that this $R_{pol}$ register is important for the success of the types of tasks.

References


Annexes

Annex 1: Tests’ items and results of preliminary study

SP: find the Successors and Predecessors of the following numbers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SPa</th>
<th></th>
<th>SPb</th>
<th></th>
<th>SPc</th>
<th></th>
<th>SPd</th>
<th></th>
<th>SPe</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NR</td>
<td>OK</td>
<td>NR</td>
<td>OK</td>
<td>NR</td>
<td>OK</td>
<td>NR</td>
<td>OK</td>
<td>NR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FR (26)</td>
<td>2 (8%)</td>
<td>15 (58%)</td>
<td>2 (8%)</td>
<td>13 (50%)</td>
<td>3 (12%)</td>
<td>15 (58%)</td>
<td>3 (12%)</td>
<td>16 (62%)</td>
<td>3 (12%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GR (100)</td>
<td>16 %</td>
<td>73 %</td>
<td>16 %</td>
<td>47 %</td>
<td>17 %</td>
<td>61 %</td>
<td>16 %</td>
<td>45 %</td>
<td>17 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

EO: among the following four numbers, find even and odd numbers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EOA</th>
<th></th>
<th>EOB</th>
<th></th>
<th>EOC</th>
<th></th>
<th>EOD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NR</td>
<td>OK</td>
<td>NR</td>
<td>OK</td>
<td>NR</td>
<td>OK</td>
<td>NR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FR (26)</td>
<td>3 (12%)</td>
<td>17 (65%)</td>
<td>4 (15%)</td>
<td>17 (65%)</td>
<td>3 (12%)</td>
<td>18 (69%)</td>
<td>3 (12%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GR (100)</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>64%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>66%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Annex 2: Tests’ items and results of main study

A) Without justifying your response:

1) Find the successors and predecessors of

   a. (66)seven
   b. (10100)two
   c. (504302155)six

2) Write numbers from twenty to thirty on base eleven

3) Arrange in growth order the following numbers

   (303)four ; (203)four ; (1003)four ; (33)four ; (100)four

B) By justifying in brief your response

1) Write the result of the multiplication of the number (3405)eight by eight

2) Among the following numbers, find even and odd numbers

   a. (65474)eight
   b. (623004261)seven

Coding items in main test

A1 – Successors and Predecessors: type of tasks SP

NR : Non Response
OK : correct solution
res IB: result on Initial Base
Ten: conversion on base ten for a treatment on base ten
erConv: at least one error into a conversion
erTreat: at least one error into a treatment

A2 – Coding on base eleven: type of tasks « Elev »
NR, OK.
Conf: confusion number/code of a number
« A »: use of a letter (or another sign).
« 1_10 »: use of the code 10 for number ten (except the answer (110)_{eleven}).

A3 – Classification: type of tasks « Class »
NR, OK, Ten.

B1 – Multiplication by eight: type of tasks « ×8 »
NR, OK, res IB, Ten, errConv, errTreat.
Poly: polynomial writing without calculation and treatment on this writing
« 27240 »: use of multiplication technique of the base ten on base eight

B2 – Even/Odd: type of tasks « EO »
NR, OK, Ten, errConv, errTreat, Poly.
Tech ten->IB: illicit use of the technique in ten base in initial base

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Class</th>
<th>SPa</th>
<th>SPd</th>
<th>SPc</th>
<th>SPb</th>
<th>EOa</th>
<th>×8</th>
<th>Elev</th>
<th>EOb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NR</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OK</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td>76%</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>66%</td>
<td>61%</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>51%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Annex 3: Similarity trees of sub-populations

Figure 9: French
Figure 10: Greek

Annex 4: Extracts of implicative graphs
Figure 11, FR and GR: level 99: NR form the represented sub-graph whereas the sub-graph of OK makes other variables apparent.
Figure 12, FR and GR: level 100 in red, 99 in blue and 98 in green: the rest of the graph is that of the figure 9
Figures 13a, FR, and 13b, GR: levels 99 in red; 98 in blue

Brief Biographies
Laurent Vivier
Laurent Vivier has had a PhD in Mathematics in 1998. He worked as associate professor for 11 years in Institutes for Teachers’ Training. He is, since 2011, an associate professor in Mathematics Education at the University of Paris Diderot, France, and member of the Laboratoire de Didactique André Revuz (LDAR).

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Public housing estates in Greece. Services and housing projects

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Abstract
The need for production of public housing estates in Greece is the result of particular Greek housing conditions and appears mainly after the Second World War (1940-1945). Although the housing activity before 1940 was not significant, except for the decade 1920-1930, the article will analyze the issues that existed immediately after the liberation of the Greek state from the Turkish domination and will attempt to separate them into periods. Each period will be presented and analyzed separately by referring to the main points that characterize it and will be tried, if not answered, at least commented some of the following issues: the size of the housing problem, the factors associated with it (reasons for shortage of housing) and the housing policy (modes of housing production - housing agencies and programs) in order to face it. It should be noted, however, that the public housing estates in Greece until the 1970 was almost exclusively confined to settlements of social agencies (Workers’ Housing Organisation, various ministries, etc.) as a result of important historical events and under the pressure of pressing needs (rehabilitation of refugees, victims of wars, internal migrants, etc.) and a few private industrial complexes built occasionally covering a small percentage of housing needs.

Keywords: Public housing estates, Public housing services, Public housing programs, Workers’ Housing Organisation (W.H.O.)

1. Introduction
This article will attempt to present public housing estates in Greece as a result of the particularity of Greek housing conditions. Although the need for mass production of housing identified, except during the decade 1920-1930, especially after the Second World War 1940-1945 its description will start immediately after the liberation of the Greek state from the Turkish domination and will be divided into time periods. Each period will be presented and analyzed individually by reference to its most important points and features. There will be an effort, if not to answer, at least to comment on some of the following issues: the size of the housing problem in each time period, factors with which it is connected (reasons of housing shortage) and at last housing policy (modes of housing production).

2. First Period: 1830 - 1920

After the liberation of Greece from the Ottoman Empire, the average resident did not have the requirement by the state to cover his housing needs, especially when he had the ability to build, repair and maintain his house by himself. Governments benefiting from this situation and focusing on foreign policy issues, interior, finance, administration

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focused on the organization of the state without dealing with the housing policy as greater government accountability. As a result, during this period, housing was developed exclusively at private initiative influencing housing conditions. The extremely high density of habitation (3-4 people per room), the elemental structure or even the absence of the most basic equipment, the frequent lack of services provided by the community for the house and its inhabitants, the complete absence of utility facilities create a black picture of the housing conditions.


After the First World War a series of large-scale events, throughout the period 1920 - 1960, which exacerbated the already existing housing problem forced the state to penetrate more in this area and envisioned large scale, for the time, housing programs. These events were the massive inflow of refugees from the Asia Minor in 1922 just after the Asia Minor disaster, large-scale earthquakes, widespread destruction throughout Greece as a result of the Second World War (1940-1945) and the simultaneous civil war (1940 -1949), disasters by earthquakes again, and also smaller problems due to floods, storms, consolidations, etc. The period between 1920 and 1960 can be divided into two sub-periods in relation to the need for mass production, which are: the first one from 1920-1940 and the second from 1940-1960.

3.1. Time Period: 1920 - 1940

Between 1920 and 1940 the government is activated in the design and construction of public housing estates after critical events for housing social groups, such as refugees, earthquake, working-class and bank employees.
Regarding the rehabilitation of refugees - the main social group - about 2,000 villages are created in rural areas in which small simple house type is used (photo 1). Urban settlements were placed at a distance from the edge of the city and gradually incorporated into the urban tissue using types such as twin homes and apartment buildings.

### 3.2. Time Period: 1940 - 1960

![Diagram of urban settlement layout](image)

**Photo 2: House type in rural areas**


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3 (1975). Vasileiou, J. (1944). *The social housing: social techniques and financial aspects, the traditional residence in various foreign countries and in Greece*, Athens, Dialisma editions, 73
During the period 1940-1960 the state intervenes after the Second World War and then the civil war with the reconstruction and rehabilitation of earthquake victims after the new wave of earthquakes of the decade 1950-1960. Immediately after the war with significant central figure K. Doxiadis in rural areas was estimated the transportation of many settlements in new positions. The State proceeded in design, financing and construction of dwellings in two ways: the policy of erecting "cores" (photo 2) and the policy of self-help housing. The urban program housed the homeless families in specially curated communities inside cities consisting of 2-3 storey (or in some cases higher) multifamily buildings.

4. From 1960 onwards

Up until the end of the previous period, Greece faced a succession of urgent large-scale problems: refugees, war and natural disasters. The gaps created between these events were covered by smaller-scale problems involving the loss of houses which had to be replaced. Facing these issues led to a housing policy not comparable to that of European countries. The situation was critical. The mountain villages were abandoned and their inhabitants moved to urban centers where it would be easier to find work, while the building stock of the country suffered from age, lack of equipment and auxiliary spaces.

The housing sector during this period began to be analyzed and connected with the bad housing conditions. The policy applied by the state for the house took into account the data presented (after studies and research) aimed to cover the shortage of houses and the new needs which were appeared and certainly improved the housing conditions in terms of size, construction, equipment, auxiliary facilities, accompanying infrastructure and urban environment.

5. Greek housing agencies and housing programs

The public and social housing in Greece is implemented by public services and materialized in two ways:

A. indirect intervention, means lending by Greek credit institutions, aiming at the purchase or construction of residential, which are: the National Mortgage Bank, Deposits and Loans Fund, the Postal Savings Bank and the Agricultural Bank.

B. direct intervention, means use of available resources from the state budget in order to design and construct public housing estates. The public sector services are: the Ministry of Public Works, the Ministry of Health and Welfare, the Ministry of Defense through two services: the Autonomous Officers Housing Agency with activity until today and the Military Service of Rehabilitation Projects

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4 Doxiadis, K. (1947). *Housing policy: the reconstruction of the country with a twenty year old plan*, publications of the Ministry of rebuilding, Athens


in the past and finally the Ministry of Labour and Social Security through the Workers' Housing Organization (WHO).

6. Housing policy and housing services after the 1970

Photo 3: Urban plan by EKTENEPOL in Komotini

Photo 4: Urban plan in Kalamitsa in Kavala.
The agenda for effectively planning and private urbanization after 1970 aim the support of these programs by other services such as municipalities, companies of mixed economy and individuals. New housing services appeared such as:

A. Mortgage Construction Inc. "EKTENEPOL"\(^8\), which in 1984 construct two large residential units in Greece enrolled in ZEP Areas in Komotini (photo 3) and Xanthi.

B. The Public Enterprise of Urban and Housing responsible for urban development in Kavala in the area Kalamitsa\(^9\) (photo 4) and some holiday settlements of Greek emigrants such as the Arcadian village.

C. The National Foundation for the Reception and Rehabilitation of Overseas and Repatriated Expatriate Greeks.

7. Epilogue

The public housing estates in Greece aimed to cover the existent housing requirements due to critical historical events. As a result of this situation in Greece are common small-scale projects inside of the large ones over the European area. In this direction also led the fragmentation of freehold land and high rates of ownership in combination with the ownership consciousness of Greek people and at last the lack of cadaster.

Nevertheless, the small scale of the housing projects, the variety of uses, the traditional vitality of the Greek city has diversified substantially Greek in relation to the European experience, which led to considerable problems of isolation, physical and social devastation and crime.

References


Doxiadis, K. (1947). *Housing policy: the reconstruction of the country with a twenty year old plan*, publications of the Ministry of rebuilding, Athens


Vasileiou, J. (1944). *The social housing: social techniques and financial aspects, the traditional residence in various foreign countries and in Greece*, Athens, Dialisma editions


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Sofia Gkouvousi was born in Athens in 1977. She graduated from Aristotle’s University School of Architecture in Thessaloniki in 2001. Then attended the postgraduate program of the same University in the direction: "Protection, Conservation and Restoration of Architectural Monuments" during the period 2002-2004. In 2011 she was awarded with a scholarship from Aristotle University and she completed her thesis on Public housing estates in Greece. Potential and prospects of upgrading housing complexes of Workers’ Housing Organisation (WHO).
Studying educational leadership for social justice as identity: Towards a critical-reflexive discourse analysis of academic research texts

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Abstract
In this methodological paper we present a discourse analytic framework which has been developed for studying academic research texts on educational leadership for social justice as texts of identity. Theoretically, the discourse analytic framework has two main orientations: a critical orientation in terms of studying the particular texts as governing educational leadership for social justice as identity, that is as both creating and regulating it by describing and explaining certain actions as leadership for social justice; and a reflexive orientation in terms of studying academic research texts as contributing to the constitution and reproduction of the ‘romance of leadership’ rather than just producing knowledge about leadership phenomena. Methodologically, in order to convert the theoretical orientation into analytic practice, a combination of discursive social psychology with systemic functional linguistics has been used for a micro- to macro-, three-level analysis of selected academic research journal articles: first, analysis of the governing of identity as textual practice accomplished by grammatical choice and its textual, ideational, and interpersonal metafunctions; secondly, analysis of the governing of identity as genre practice accomplished by genre choice as an additional linguistic resource; and thirdly, analysis of the governing of identity as discursive practice accomplished by mobilizing familiar themes of leadership discourse. Finally, the implications of the use of this discourse analytic framework for research in educational administration as well as for training educational administrators are discussed.

Keywords: educational leadership for social justice, identity, governmentality, discourse analysis, reflexivity

1. The educational leadership for social justice texts as texts of identity
Since 1999, when a special issue of International Journal of Leadership in Education appeared (1999), there has been a growing literature on ‘leadership for social justice’, in which a new orientation in the study of educational leadership has been advanced. So far, the majority of the published texts, theoretical and research texts with the particular terms used in their titles, have appeared in journal special issues (Educational Administration Quarterly, 2004; International Electronic Journal for Leadership in Learning, 2006 also published as Normore, 2008; Journal of Educational Administration, 2006 & 2007; Journal of Research on Leadership Education, 2010; Journal of School Leadership, 2002 & 2005; Leadership & Policy in Schools, 2006), and two collective volumes (Bogotch et al., 2008; Mashall & Oliva, 2006). Other publications have appeared as book chapters (Furman & Shields, 2005; Larson & Murtadha, 2002; Shoho et al., 2005)
and articles in educational journals (Gaetane et al., 2009; Taysum & Gunter, 2008; Theoharis, 2008; Zembylas, 2010). As an academic field, leadership for social justice seems to be aligned with two traditions. First, due to its explicit concern with social justice, it is aligned with the tradition of progressivism as a project of social reform, which emerged at the end of the 19th century, and in which social justice has been a central moral and political principle (Flanagan, 2007; Nugent, 2010). Secondly, it is aligned with the tradition in educational administration emerging in the late 1970s, that brought to the foreground its moral and political aspects (Bates, 2006; Begley & Johansson, 2003; Begley & Leonard, 1999; Campbell, Fleming, Nystrand & Usdan, 1987; Foster, 1986; Grace, 1995; Greenfield & Ribbins, 1993; Gunter, 2001; Hodgkinson, 1996; Sergiovanni, 1992; Sergiovanni & Corbally, 1984; Smyth, 1989; Starratt, 1995 & 2004).

As representing an emerging academic field, this literature attracted our interest in terms of the descriptions and explanations of specific actions produced ‘educational leadership for social justice’. The focus on these descriptions and explanations of action has guided our critical positioning towards these texts as texts of identity, that is, as texts by which leadership for social justice is discursively created and regulated as well. Furthermore, the study of academic discourse on leadership guided us to adopt a reflexive positioning, that is to study academic texts as constituting and reproducing ‘the romance of leadership’ rather than just producing knowledge about leadership phenomena.

2. Theoretical framework

2.1 The critical orientation: Identity as discursively governed

Our reading of the academic texts on educational leadership for social justice as texts of identity draws on the ‘linguistic turn’ tradition in social psychology and organizational studies, in which identity has been theorized, and researched accordingly, as discursively constructed, thus advancing an anti-essentialist understanding of identity (Ainsworth & Hardy, 2004; Benwell & Stokoe, 2006; Fairhurst, 2007; Potter & Wetherell, 1987; Shotter & Gergen, 1989). In discursive social psychology, two major directions can be discerned in this tradition, one stemming from the social constructionist study of identity as emerging in interaction through language use (Antaki & Widdicombe, 1998), the other stemming from the poststructuralist study of identity as constituted within language, particularly that of a Foucauldian orientation (Henriques, Hollway, Urwin, Venn & Walkerdine, 1984; Hollway, 1991; Parker, 1992). While those two directions oppose to each other as far as the issue of agency is concerned, they both theorize identity beyond the public/private and the individual/social binaries, as well as beyond traditional psychological understandings of identity as personality, inner self or cognitive structure, and traditional understandings of identity as social role or social structure, in which personality, self or cognitive structure, social role and social structure are treated as pre-existing entities by which action is determined (Potter & Wetherell, 1987).

In addition, the same reading priority towards the leadership for social justice literature as an academic tradition directed us to place our analysis within the Foucauldian context of governmentality (Dean, 1999; Foucault, 1991; Gordon, 1991; Rose, 1999; Rose, O’Malley & Valverde, 2006) and study the particular texts as a form of governing practice, in which identity is constructed as true knowledge. Otherwise said, this is a way
to study how leadership for social justice becomes ‘thinkable’ and ‘practicable’ by these texts (Gordon, 1991, p. 3).

2.2 The reflexive orientation: Reproducing the ‘romance of leadership’

From the point of reflexivity as self-critique, i.e. that academic knowledge is not just knowledge about objects of the real world, but it also as contributes with authoritative ways to the construction of these objects and the reproduction of well established theoretical and methodological assumptions for their study (Alvesson, 1996; Alvesson, Hardy & Harley, 2008), we are also interested in showing in our analysis how the educational leadership for social justice texts mobilize taken for granted assumptions about leadership as resources in order to describe and explain this particular new kind of leadership. In organization studies, this position goes well beyond Meindl’s research first drawing attention to the socially constructed nature of leadership in the attributions made by followers as the ‘romance of leadership’(Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987), to reconsidering the assumptions of leadership research which make it part of ‘leaderism’ as an ideology (O’Reilly & Reed, 2010).

This aim aligns our analysis with research in leadership studies which have an interest in the construction of leadership in texts and interaction (Alvesson & Sveningsson, 2003; Alvesson & Spicer, 2011; Hatch, Kostera & Kozminski, 2006).

3. The discourse analytic framework

3.1 Analytic material

Our textual material is consisted of academic research journal articles with an explicit orientation to the topic of educational leadership for social justice, that is, articles with these terms appearing in their titles, whose publication dates range from 1999 to 2010 (see the references presented in the beginning of the paper). These articles were selected from academic journals on educational leadership, administration and management and general educational research journals. We also collected other academic publications on the same topic, both theoretical and research texts, such as books and book chapters, in order to gain a broad perspective of the field. We narrowed down our analysis to research journal articles for two reasons: first, because they are rather homogenous texts as they are published through standard procedures (e.g. peer review) and in standard format (e.g. content organization, length), and, second, because these texts as research texts are particularly interesting from a rhetorical point of view as they not only contribute with new empirical material to the field, but they explicitly advocate social justice as a moral/political principle as well.

3.2 The framework

In order to convert our theoretical orientation into analytic practice, a combination of discursive social psychology with systemic functional linguistics have been used for a micro- to macro-, three-level analysis of both form and content of the selected texts: first, analysis of the governing of identity as text practice accomplished by grammatical choice and its textual, ideational, and interpersonal metafunctions as resources for constructing meaning; secondly, analysis of the governing of identity as genre practice
accomplished by genre choice as additional linguistic choice; and thirdly, analysis of the governing of identity as discursive practice accomplished by mobilizing leadership discourses. As identity construction by and through language use is our main analytical concern, we are using systemic functional linguistics to this end in a selective manner and trying to handle the particular features of written discourse. In order to avoid terminological confusion, the first letter of the terms coming from systemic functional linguistics is written in upper case.

### 3.2.1 Governing of identity accomplished by textual practice

Within systemic functional linguistics (Eggins, 2004; Halliday, 1978; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004) language is theorized as a social semiotic system, that is as a meaning-making resource offering choices according to use in various contexts. This system is described as the functional grammar of a language, where linguistic choices have three metafunctions or components in the creation of meaning in the context of situation (or Register).

Textual metafunction analysis. From this perspective meaning is constructed as a consequence of the way language as message structured by order. At the level of clause, the message is structured in two parts: the Theme (that part of the clause which appears first) and the Rheme (the remainder of the clause). As the Theme signifies the most important part of the topic of the message, it is the Subject of the clause which is expected to appear in this position and it is called the Unmarked Theme. If any other part of the clause appears in the position of Theme, it is called the Marked Theme. The analysis in terms of Textual metafunction reveals the effects of Thematic choice in structuring priorities in meaning-making (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004).

Ideational metafunction analysis. From this perspective language is viewed as representation of the experience of language users. At the level of clause, the representation is structured through Transitivity processes. The analysis of Ideational metafunction focuses on process type choices (Material, Mental, Verbal, Behavioural, Existential and Relational) signified by the Verbal group by which Experiential meaning is constructed, and on Taxis choices (Parataxis and Hypotaxis) by which Logical meaning is constructed (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004).

Interpersonal metafunction analysis. From this perspective language is considered as exchange between language users in various contexts of interaction. The analysis of the Interpersonal metafunction focuses on Mood (Declarative, Interrogative, and, Imperative) and considers the language users’ relationship with their audience and their attitude toward the subject matter of interaction (Eggins, 2004).

### 3.2.2 Governing of identity accomplished by genre practice

In systemic functional linguistics, genre signifies the context of culture in language use and is practiced by the use of particular patterns, e.g. narrative, and, in this way, it can be considered as an additional linguistic resource for the construction of meaning (Eggins, 2004; Martin & Rose, 2006).
3.2.3 Governing of identity accomplished by discursive practice

In discursive social psychology with a poststructuralist orientation, there is a concern about the themes mobilized as resources for constructing meaning in interaction. These discourses have power effects as they both enable and constrain meaning construction (Edley & Wetherell, 1997, Wetherell & Potter, 1992). From our three-level analytic perspective, the academic research articles on educational leadership for social justice are read as texts where the linguistic choices have power effects in terms of guiding both the construction of particular versions of educational leadership for social justice as well as their reading as authoritative texts about leadership.

3.3 Analytic example: constructing educational leadership for social justice as charismatic

For this presentation of our discourse analytic framework we have chosen to analyze a part of an article titled “Woven in deeply: Identity and leadership of urban social justice principals” (Theoharis, 2008), specifically a subsection titled “Passionate visionary leadership” of the subsection titled “Social Justice Principals’ Common Leadership Traits” of the ‘Findings’ section. We will try to show that educational leadership for social justice is constructed as charismatic by both textual form and content choices. According to Weber (1978, p. 241) ‘The term “charisma” will be applied to a certain quality of an individual personality by virtue of which he is considered extraordinary and treated as endowed with supernatural, superhuman, or at least specifically exceptional powers or qualities’.

As its content is summarized in the abstract:

‘This article comes from an investigation into the identities and leadership traits of seven urban principals committed to social justice across elementary, middle, and high school levels. These administrators believed that enacting social justice for marginalized students was instrumental in their desire to become school leaders and central to their practice. A qualitative approach combined with principles of autoethnography has guided the research methods. Findings include varied personal experiences that sound their call to leadership and three common leadership traits. These traits are arrogant humility, passionate leadership, and a tenacious commitment to social justice. The article concludes with a metaphor explaining these leaders and their connection with their social justice work.’ (Theoharis, 2008, p. 3).

Extract

‘Passionate visionary leadership. These social justice principals work not as bureaucrats or middle managers but as passionate leaders. Operationally, passionate leadership is having a tightly interwoven connection with the principal position and the person doing that job. It is caring so deeply, having such commitment, and maintaining sincere enthusiasm about this work that there is little separation between the leadership and the leader. They achieve this by holding, maintaining, and championing a strong vision while embodying the qualities that Shields (2004) and Furman and Grunewald (2004) described about transformative leadership. This passionate leadership seeks to change people’s beliefs and values from self-centered to other centered. In addition, they complement that effort with working toward the moral purpose of social justice. In explaining his
passion for social justice leadership, one principal described the difference between a good principal and social justice leader.

[Traditional] good leaders are technocrats. They write good memos, they write good reports, they stay out of trouble, and they’re ok, they’re in ok places but they don’t have any passion for anything, they’re just technically very adept but they have no sense of passion or feel or vision. They just go through life and they’re proficient in what they do.... Principals are like musicians. There are some musicians who play all the right notes, but there’s no feel to them. Then there’s some people who do everything, they play all the right notes and have a passion. Then there are people who are less technically gifted and passion compensates.

This principal sees the social justice leader in both of the last two descriptions but attributed the big difference in their work to the passion.

The work of these social justice leaders is deeply connected to who they are, their passion, and their inner personalities. They see themselves tightly interwoven with their positions. One principal stated, “This is my life...it’s all consuming.” Another principal said, “This isn’t a job [for the social justice leader], this is a life... It’s not something I can leave when I leave this place, it encompasses me. It fully encompasses my whole life...this is my life.” These principals typified the personal nature of the social justice leader. In our discussions they shared a deep connection to the positions and to their schools. One principal stated, “This is my life…it’s all consuming.” Another principal said, “This isn’t a job [for the social justice leader], this is a life... It’s not something I can leave when I leave this place, it encompasses me. It fully encompasses my whole life...this is my life.” These principals typified the personal nature of the social justice leader. In our discussions they shared a deep connection to the positions and to their schools. One principal stated, “This is my life…it’s all consuming.” Another principal said, “This isn’t a job [for the social justice leader], this is a life... It’s not something I can leave when I leave this place, it encompasses me. It fully encompasses my whole life...this is my life.”

I am not arguing that all passionate leaders who work extremely long hours are social justice leaders. This is not an exclusive characteristic of social justice principals. There are many principals who have a zest for their position, their school, and improving their educational environment, who also work day and night. However, this personal, passionate, and visionary nature helps to make the social justice leaders successful.

These leaders feel this personal connection to their schools and to social justice and can translate that into seeing a better way. It is this personal vision that allows them to focus their efforts and the work of their staff in achieving equity and social justice for the marginalized students. This passion comes across as sincerity and personal connection to the school and their children are recognized and respected by allies and resisters alike. This passion, vision and personal nature also add to the struggle, the discouragement, and the toll. They are tightly connected to their work and their schools. The issues and problems feel personal, and when they cannot change things or cannot change things fast enough, that feeling of dissatisfaction becomes their inner turmoil.

Their personal involvement and passion make these leaders a vital part of their school community. They play active roles and maintain highly visible profiles with students, staff, and families. One principal put it, “How are you going to know what’s going on, if you’re sitting in your office? You’ve got to get out of the hallway, in the classroom, on the school grounds, in the community.” This visibility is not unique to social justice leaders, but in combination with the passion, vision, and personal nature of their work it takes on different meaning and aids in accomplishing particular justice goals.’ (Theoharis, 2008, pp. 16-17).

### 3.3.1 Governing of identity accomplished by textual practice

Textual metafunction analysis. Due to space reasons, our Thematic analysis is limited at the level of the dominant clauses. The aim is to reveal the priorities in the construction of the topic ‘Passionate visionary leadership’ as the text unfolds.
In the 1st paragraph, ‘social justice principals’ and ‘passionate leadership’ emerge as important parts of the topic as they appear in the Unmarked Themes: ‘These social justice principals’, ‘They’, ‘This passionate leadership’, and the Marked Themes ‘In addition’ (Conjunctive Adjunct, additive) and ‘In explaining his passion for social justice leadership’ (Circumstantial Adjunct). In contrast, by The Marked Theme ‘Operationally’ (Modal Adjunct, a technical term) priority is given to the author’s position as researcher, and by the Marked Theme ‘It is caring so deeply, having such commitment, and maintaining sincere enthusiasm about this work that’ (Predicated) priority is given to the author’s evaluation of the action of the ‘social justice principals’. In the 2nd paragraph, the topic is further developed by the Unmarked Themes ‘This principal’, ‘The work of these social justice leaders’, ‘They’, ‘One principal’, ‘Another principal’, ‘These principals’, ‘One principal’. By the Marked Theme ‘In our discussions’ (Circumstantial Adjunct) priority is given to the author’s position as research participant. In the 3rd paragraph, in the first sentence which is structured as a disclaimer (Hewitt & Stokes, 1975), by the Unmarked Theme ‘I’ priority is given to the author’s evaluation of the proposition ‘all passionate leaders who work extremely long hours are social justice leaders’. This evaluation is justified by means of a contrast, signaled by the Marked Theme ‘However’ (Conjunctive Adjunct, adversative), with This’ and ‘There’ as Unmarked Themes. In the 4th paragraph, by the Unmarked Themes ‘These leaders’, ‘It is this personal vision that’ (Predicated), ‘This passion’, ‘their children’, ‘This passion, vision and personal nature’, ‘They’, ‘The issues and problems’, ‘that feeling of dissatisfaction’ priority returns to the topic of the text. In the 5th paragraph, by the unmarked themes ‘Their personal involvement and passion’, ‘They’, ‘One principal’, ‘This visibility’ and the Marked Theme ‘in combination with the passion, vision, and personal nature of their work’ (circumstantial adjunct) priority is given to the topic of the text.

Ideational metafunction analysis: Experiential & logical. In this section our aim is to reveal how the author represents his experience of reality by Process Types choices, and how this representation is structured though Taxis (Parataxis and Hypotaxis) choices.

In the 1st paragraph, ‘social justice principals’ are the Actors of the Material Processes in the dominant and the Expanding embedded clauses, signified by ‘work’ ‘achieve’ ‘holding’ ‘maintaining’ ‘championing’ ‘complement’ ‘working’. As ‘Passionate leadership’ is the Carrier of the Intensive Attributive Processes signified by ‘is’, its membership of the classes of ‘having a tightly interwoven connection with the principal position and the person doing that job’, and ‘caring so deeply, having such commitment, and maintaining sincere enthusiasm about this work that there is little separation between the leadership and the leader’ is specified. ‘Passionate leadership’ is also the Actor of the Material Processes in ‘seeks to change’ (dominant and subordinate clause). ‘One principal’ is the Sayer of the Verbal Process signified by ‘described’. The Verbiage of this Process is structured as a quotation (in Paratactic relation to and Projecting the previous clause), which functions as an empirical warrant and as giving ‘voice’ to the research participants. In the 2nd paragraph, ‘This principal’ is Senser of the Mental Processes signified by ‘sees’ and ‘attributed to’. ‘The work of these social justice leaders’ is the Goal of the Material Process (in Passive Voice). ‘They’ is the Senser of the Mental Process signified by ‘see’. ‘One principal’ and ‘Another principal’ are the Sayer of the Verbal Processes signified by
‘stated’ and ‘said’. In both clauses the Verbiage is structured as a quotation. ‘These principals’ are the Token of the Intensive Identifying Process signified by ‘typified’, and, substituted by ‘They’ the Actor of the Material Process signified by ‘shared’. ‘One principal’ is the Sayer of the Verbal Process signified by ‘stated’. The Verbiage of this Process is structured as a quotation.

In the 3rd paragraph, ‘I’ is the Sayer of the Verbal Process signified by ‘am not arguing’. The Verbiage ‘all passionate leaders who work extremely long hours are social justice leaders’ is structured as subordinate clause (indirect speech) and, substituted by ‘This’ in the next clause is the Token of the Intensive Identifying Process signified by ‘is not’. ‘Many principals’ is the Existent, Carrier and Actor of the Existential, Possessive Attributive, and Material Processes in the dominant and subordinate clauses signified by ‘are’, ‘have’, and ‘work’. In the last sentence, ‘this personal, passionate, and visionary nature’ is Actor in the Material Processes signified by ‘helps to’ and ‘make’.

In the 4th paragraph, substituting ‘the social justice leaders’, ‘these leaders’ is the Senser and Sayer of the Mental and Material Processes signified by ‘feel’, ‘can translate’ and ‘seeing’, ‘focus’, and ‘achieving’. Substituted by ‘They’ they are Goal and Actor of the Material Processes Signified by ‘are tightly connected to’ and ‘cannot change’. ‘this personal vision’ is Value and Actor in the Intensive Identifying and Material Processes signified by ‘is’ and allow’. ‘This passion’ is Carrier of the Intensive Identifying Process signified by ‘comes across as’. ‘This passion, vision and personal nature’ is Actor of the Material Process signified by ‘also add to’.

In the 5th paragraph, ‘Their personal involvement and passion’ is Actor of the Material Process signified by ‘make’. Substituting ‘social justice leaders’, ‘They’ is Actor of the Material Processes Signified by ‘play’ and ‘maintain’. ‘One principal’ is Sayer of the Verbal Process signified by ‘put it’. The Verbiage is structured as a quotation. ‘This visibility’ is Carrier in the Intensive Identifying and Possessive Attributive Processes signified by ‘is not’ and ‘takes on], and Actor of the Material Process signified by ‘aids’.

Interpersonal metafunction analysis. In this section, our aim is to reveal how the author positions himself towards the topic of the text and towards the reader through Mood, Polarity, and Modality choices.

In the 1st paragraph, the Mood parts ‘These social justice principals work’, ‘passionate leadership is’, ‘It is’, ‘They achieve’, ‘This passionate leadership seeks’, ‘they complement’, ‘one principal described’, are all Declarative, Polarity is positive, and there is no Modalization.

In the 2nd paragraph, the Mood parts ‘This principal sees’, ‘[this principal] attributed’, ‘The work of these social justice leaders is’, ‘They see’, ‘One principal stated’, ‘Another principal said’, ‘These principals typified’, ‘they shared’, ‘One principal stated’, are all Declarative, Polarity is Positive, and there is no Modalization.

In the 3rd paragraph, the first sentence is structured as a disclaimer ‘I am not arguing that all passionate leaders who work extremely long hours are social justice leaders’. The Mood part of the dominant clause is in Negative Polarity. There is High Subjective Modalization. In the next sentence, the Mood part ‘This is not’ is in Negative Polarity. The last two sentences are structured as a contrast in which the Mood part ‘There are’ is in Negative Polarity, and the Mood Part ‘this personal, passionate, and visionary nature helps’ is in Positive Polarity. All Mood parts are Declarative and there is no Modalization.
In the 4th paragraph, the Mood parts ‘These leaders feel’, ‘[These leaders] can translate’, ‘It is’, ‘This passion comes across’, ‘This passion, vision and personal nature also add’, ‘They are’, ‘The issues and problems feel’, ‘that feeling of dissatisfaction becomes’ are all Declarative, Polarity is Positive. Modalization occurs once in ‘[These leaders] can translate’.

In the 5th paragraph, the Mood parts ‘Their personal involvement and passion make’, ‘They play’, ‘One principal put it’, are Declarative, Polarity is Positive. The last sentence is structured as a disclaimer with the Mood part ‘This visibility is not’ in Negative Polarity, and the Mood part ‘it takes on’ in Positive Polarity. There is no Modalization.

3.3.2 Governing of identity accomplished by genre practice

Following the author’s orientation as it is stated in the abstract of the article, the text can be read as a specimen of ethnographic genre. In representing the ‘natives’ point of view or presenting an empirical warrant, the third person use and quoting from participants’ accounts are choices by which a ‘realist tale’ is produced, upon which the author grounds his interpretative authority as researcher (van Maanen, 1988). However, space for advocating the action of the participants as social justice leaders is opened by declaring solidarity in ‘In our discussions’, in which the author positions himself as research participant as a convention of autoethnographic writing.

3.3.3 Governing of identity accomplished by discursive practice

Focusing on textual content, our aim in this section is to reveal familiar themes of leadership discourse mobilized in the extract and the effects of this mobilization in constructing educational leadership for social justice as charismatic.

As stated in the abstract, ‘three common leadership traits’ have been identified as research findings. By the use of the term ‘traits’, the author aligns his research with the earliest leadership research tradition in which action identified as leadership is attributed to personality traits (Antonakis, Day & Schyns, 2012). In the extract he grounds this explanation by mobilizing other familiar themes from the leadership literature. First, the ‘leaders vs. managers’ theme (e.g. Zaleznik, 1977) is mobilized in the contrast ‘not as bureaucrats or middle managers but as passionate leaders’, which is pervasive in both popular and academic leadership literature and used for the ‘extra-ordinarization’ of managerial work (Alvesson & Sveningsson, 2003). A second theme, mobilized by the use of the emotional term ‘passion’, is part of the ‘post-heroic’ leadership discourse, which extends its definition to characteristics other than rationality, and echoes Goleman’s (1998) ‘emotional intelligence’ account. Finally, the use of the term ‘transformative’ connects the text with progressivist discourse on social change as well as another familiar theme, that of ‘transformative vs. transactional leadership’, coined by Burns (1978) and established in leadership research by Bass (1985) as ‘transformational vs. transactional leadership’. The term ‘vision’ also belongs to that vocabulary.

4. Discussion

In this methodological paper we focused on presenting a critical-reflexive discourse analytic framework for studying academic research texts on educational leadership for social justice as texts of identity. From a theoretical point of view, our analytic
perspective is based upon the study of identity as discursively constructed in a dual manner: on the one hand by the active use of language; on the other hand through language (Edley & Wetherell, 1997). We connected this dual perspective with the perspective of the government of identity which, defined as the ‘conduct of conduct’ (Burcell, Gordon & Miller, 1991) is both a creative and regulative process of negotiating identity in institutional contexts like education.

Then, by turning this theoretical perspective in analytic practice we presented a discourse analytic framework in which systemic functional linguistics and discursive psychology are combined, and which is extended from micro- to macro-level, through analyzing the government of identity accomplished by textual practice (through textual, ideational and interpersonal meaning construction), the government of identity accomplished by genre practice, and finally, the government of identity accomplished by discursive practice.

By means of an analytic example, we explored the results yielded by this kind of reading these texts. In the extract used we showed that the construction of educational leadership for social justice as identity relies on familiar themes in leadership discourse, the personality traits theme, the emotional dimension of leadership as a theme of post-heroic leadership, as well as the ‘leaders vs. managers’ theme (Alvesson & Spicer, 2011). These themes are mobilized in the context of particular linguistic choices in constructing textual, ideational and interpersonal meaning as well as in the context of particular genre choices. The overall effect is constructing the extra-ordinariness of educational leadership for social justice, which reproduces the ideology of leaderism (O’Reilly & Reed, 2010) in educational administration and legitimizes an understanding of education as a hierarchical social order, with leaders and subordinates.

In trying to explore the implications of this discourse analytic orientation for doing research in educational administration, we would support the adoption of its critical component in researching the language of leadership as it is used in educational contexts, both in academic and school practice and education policy, and how identities are negotiated in these contexts. We would also support the incorporation of its reflexive component in researching what kind of familiar leadership discourses are used in these contexts, their historical origins and the conditions of possibility they create for new discourses as resources for negotiating identity in education.

Moreover, in trying to explore the implications of this orientation for educational administrators’ training, we would focus on how status positions in educational administration are formulated as projects of the self, like the principal as social justice leader, as its critical component, while focusing on academic knowledge as part of a social context rather than as external to it (Alvesson, 1996), with both creative and constraining effects, as its reflexive component.

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**Brief biographies**

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The Greek Presence in Transylvania through the Historical Monuments

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Abstract
The Greek presence in the territory of Romania in the field of architecture varies by period. However, an important monumental reserve is connected with the commercial and business activities of the Greek people during the last centuries. This reserve has been located and studied in the past and only recently it has been subject of scientific research and recorded under a bilateral (Greece-Romania) inter-scientific research collaboration. In Romania today the protection, management and enhancement of the natural and cultural environment is of paramount importance not only as a value but also as a critical tool towards the sustainable development of the country. On the other hand Romania, in the latter years, represents a major tourist destination due to its rich and varied cultural heritage. The present article deals with the influence of the Greek merchants in the region of Transylvania during the 18th and 19th as it results through the monumental reserve and especially through buildings with a religious character recorded and characterized as Historical Monuments.

Keywords: Historical Monuments, Romania, Greek presence, Greek Church

1. The multicultural nature of Romania
"All buildings carry meanings". In time all buildings acquire layers of a significance that addresses to a collective memory (Broadbent 1977). In many regions of the Balkan area there is an accumulation of ethnic and national minorities of various cultural expressions (Broadbent 1977). Romania has such a rich cultural heritage that one can unite the past with the present, but at the same time it proves the multicultural nature of the country.
In Romania it is recognised that the protection of cultural values is extremely important for local, regional and national communities, not only in economic and aesthetic terms, but also because the cultural heritage represents their basic identity (Iliescu 1986). The importance of the richness and diversity of the cultural reserve in the territory of Romania is demonstrated by the large number of monuments and sites that have been characterized by Unesco until today as monuments of global interest (Gavra 2011). The architectural heritage, as part of the cultural reserve of a human unit or a geographical area includes monuments, architectural ensembles and sites of historical, archaeological, artistic, social, scientific and technological interest (Gavra 2007).
2. The Greek presence in Transylvania

The Greek presence in the Romanian territory is remarkable during the 18th and 19th century. The majority of the Greek emigrants were merchants who came from Macedonia, Ipiros and Thessalia and settled in the continental part of the country while the Greeks from the islands settled in the Danube regions. Many Greeks from Macedonia immigrated to Transylvania -mostly to the cities of Sibiu and Brasov, where the first commercial societies of the SE Europe had been created- during the years 1718-1738 while the region was under the Habsburg Monarchy (Fuves 1965: 26). The Habsburgs conceded to the Greek merchants -who achieved to monopolize the import and transport of “oriental” goods in Western Europe- a series of privileges among which was the right to build churches, schools, charity institutes, commercial houses e.t.c. Especially after Maria Teresa conceded a series of privileges to them (1777) we can observe a blooming constructing activity of buildings most of them of public character (Karathanasis 2003, Tsourka-Papastathi 1994).

The three examined buildings that are characterized as Historical Monuments are “The Holy Trinity Orthodox Church” in the city of Cluj-Napoca, the Orthodox Cathedral of the “Assumption of Virgin Mary” in the city of Oradea and the “Orthodox Church of the Annunciation of the Virgin Mary” in Alba Iulia.

According P. Derer (Gavra 2011) the influence of the greek world in the architectural and spatial organization in contemporary Romania is connected with its culture and spirit. The order, the financial support, the design and the needs that the church was going to cover are strongly related with the members of the greek communities and in all three cases with concrete members.

3. The three cases

The choice of the described monuments, namely The Holy Trinity Orthodox Church in Cluj-Napoca, the Orthodox Cathedral of the “Assumption of Virgin Mary” in Oradea and the “Orthodox Church of the Annunciation of the Virgin Mary” in Alba Iulia, is based on the need to promote the history of the buildings in combination with an experiential approach of the reference area. Besides, the built heritage has also an identity function. “Our monuments have value because we built them. They are subjects of a generic representation of ourselves” (Choay 1998:185).

The three described buildings were visited during the summer of 2011 and the historic information is result of a bibliographic research in combination with information retrieved from the National Archives of the three cities and from personal interviews with the priests of the churches1.

Cluj-Napoca is located in the NE part of Romania and it is one of the biggest cities of the country. During the 18th and 19th century, it was the capital of the principality of Transylvania and at the same time an important commercial center. Therefore, many Greek merchants settled in the city, where they engaged in commercial business. Names like Singuli Stratu, Georgio Cristoph, Iani Cociu, Gheorghe Trandafir, Iancu Constantin

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1The second author visited cities of Transylvania among which the three presented in this article in the summer of 2011 after having obtained an ERASMUS scholarship in order to collect the material for her master thesis, Matraki Eleni, 2012
Cecherdechi, Dimitrie Dimitriu, Similache Stati Simeli and Ienache Mavrodin (Cicanci 1981: 125, Limona 1959: 241) are only some of the Greek merchants that are mentioned in the relevant bibliography and had an intense activity in the local commerce. The need of these Greek people and generally of the orthodox people of the city to exercise their religious duties -in 1770 there were about 500 orthodox persons in Cluj-Napoca (Pascu et al 1957: 61) led three wealthy Greek merchants, namely, Ienache Mavrodin Ioan Constantin and Gheorghe Trandafir to apply to the Government of Transylvania and finally obtain the permission to build an Orthodox Church. The Holy Trinity Orthodox Church, known as the “Hill Church”\(^2\), was built between 1795 and 1796 and until 1932 was the only orthodox church that existed in the capital of Transylvania\(^3\).

It is situated in the street Bisericii Ortodoxe number 12\(^4\) and it is a basilica with Baroque and Renaissance elements, built from stone and bricks. Its length is 18.68 meters and it has a steeple of 18.95 meters height.

The main entrance of the temple is situated at the west and is decorated with stone. Inside, the vestibule is separated from the nave by three arches. The columns supporting the arches are lined with stone and have a simple decorative cornice. The roof of the portico and the main temple is made of stone slabs. All the windows of the church are semicircular and adorned with stained glass. Under the east window is situated the pontifical throne. The chancel is semicircular, and the images are works of the Greek painter Konstantinos or Constantin Zugravu, deacon of the Greek Church of Brasov dated from 1796 (Mureșan 1942: 138).

The icons of the north are: image of St. John the Baptist with the greek inscription “Ο ΑΓΙΟΣ ΙΩΑΝΗΣ Ο ΠΡΟΔΡΟΜΟΣ”, image of the Archangel Michael, image of Virgin Mary, the image of Jesus Christ with his initials written in Greek characters and gold letters, the image of Archangel Gabriel and finally the image of the Holy Trinity with the Greek inscription “Η ΑΓΙΑ ΤΡΙΑΣ”.

In the church are preserved some old religious objects. Among them a small silver tray with the inscription “Gift of George Trantaifarou (Georgiu Trantaifar) and Paraskeva Zamfirou (Paraschiva Zamfiru) 1824” in the greek language (Mureșan 1942: 47). According to the current priest Ioan Jeler, most of the sacred objects were lost during the Second World War.

Outside of the church there is a small cemetery, where were buried the priests who served in it. Examples include: Ilie Fulea (Fuliavici 1795-1828), Grigore Gal (1830-1851), Vasile Rosescu (1851-1888), Tuliu Rosescu (1888-1924), Nicolae Vasiu (1925-1940), Ioan Costea (1940 - 1946),) and the scholar Florea Mureșan.

Among them are saved the graves of the Greeks Trandafi Janos and Trandafir Gyorgy with the following inscriptions:

- TRANDAFI JANOS year of death 1808 (MDCCCVIII) and
- TRANDAFIR GYORGY

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2 In romanian the name of the church is Biserica Ortodoxa Romana “Sfanta Treime” and it is known as “Biserica din Deal”.

3 The main part of the description and the information concerning the church is based on the fieldwork and visits of the second author in the month of July 2011 and on interviews with the priest of the church Ioan Jeler as well as on the book: Mureșan Florea, 1942.

4 The name of the street was until 1919 Ulița Biserici Grecesti (Greek Churches street) and before that Ulița Grecilor (street of the Greeks)
The church has been repaired several times: in 1823, 1877, 1919, and 1937, 1944-45, 1951-58, 1982-83, 2003-2010. It has been characterized a Historical Monument listed in 2004 with serial number 736 and registration code CJ-II-mB-07276 (Institutul Național al Patrimoniului, http://www.inmi.ro/imi/cluj.pdf/).

The second city, strongly connected with the greek commerce was Oradea. It is situated in the western part of Transylvania near the borders with Hungary. It is also possible that there has been a Greek Commericial Society in the city during the period of George Rákóczy Hegemony (1630-1648) (Tsourka-Papastathis 1994: 79-80). In the bibliography are mentioned many greek names connected to the city during the examined period: Püspoki Mihai, Kristoff Mihai, Petru Hristofor, George Costa, Dimitrie Vasu, Nicolae Jiga, Alexandru Gavra, Emanuil Godju and the families of Gjorge Papp, Takacs, Paphazi, Csavdary, Papanastasiu (Lucian 1980, Pacuraiu 1980, Firu 1934, Neş 1937).

The orthodox people of the city (Greeks, Serbs and Romanians) struggled together and succeeded to build an Orthodox Church for their religious needs. The above mentioned Greeks, Püspoki Mihai and Kristoff Mihai presented to the Emperor of the Austrian Court a report asking for the permission to build the church. The permission was issued on 27-9-1784 and on the 9-11-1784 begun the construction of the Orthodox Cathedral of the “Assumption of Virgin Mary”, known as the “Moon Church” \(^5\) finished in 1790 (Borcea & Gorun 1995: 435).

The church is situated in the square Piața Uniri number 10. It was designed by the architect Iacob Eder and is a baroque style basilica with a semicircular sanctuary and a tall bell tower 55 meters high. The overall length of the church is 37.70 meters and the exterior height 16 meters. The dimensions of the inside are 34.75 meters length, 11.10 meters width and 19 meters height. The steeple rises above the west side of the narrow vestibule on four large columns. Above the vestibule there is a balcony for the choir, which leads to a spiral staircase located to the left of the main entrance. The nave is separated from the altar with a semicircular chancel. On the east side of the altar, two walls are forming an enclosed hallway.

At that time the church of the “Assumption” was the only church with a spire in the city. The three bells were placed in 1792 and in 1917 two of them, were removed and replaced by others in 1925. On the largest bell weighing 1303 kg there is the following inscription: “The bell was constructed in the year 1803, month of August for the sacred temple of “the Assumption” of Oradea-Mare, with the expenses of the Greek and Romanian population, among which, Püspöki Mihai and Dimitrie Driva. Ad die gloriam fusam per Franciscum Millner, Buda, Anno 1803. The second and third bell bear the inscription: “The bell was constructed in the year 1804 with the expenses of the Greek, Serbian and Romanian population, Francisc Millner, Buda” (Firu 1934: 67).

In 1793 a clock was placed on the bell tower as well as a two-color sphere (half black and half yellow) that represents the Moon and rotates around a shaft connected to the mechanism of the clock, depending on the phases of the moon, hence the name “Church

\(^5\) The church is called in romanian Catedrala Ortodoxa “Adormirea Maicii Domnului” and it is known as “Biserica cu Luna”. The main part of the description and the information concerning the church is based on the fieldwork and visits of the second author in the month of July 2011 and on interviews with the priest of the church Cristea Teodor – Dinu as well as on the book: Firu Nicolae 1934.
In the bibliography it is often mentioned with the Slavic name Balgrad.

The name of the church is in the romanian language Biserica Greaca “Bunavestire”. The description of the church is based on fieldwork and visits of the second author during the month of August 2011, on interviews with the priest of the church Pr. Dumitru Vanca as well as the book of Gheorghe Fleşer (2001).
Apostles. At the top of the altar there are scenes from the Old and New Testament and especially from the lives of the saints.

Apart from some religious books (greek donations of 1793), other indicative objects related to the greek element, that have survived until today, are three silver (gold-plated) candlesticks engraved with the name of the greek family Karantoni (Karanton) and the year 1768, a silver tablet with engraved greek letters and the silk embroidered handmade fabric that covers the epitaph the day of Good Friday.

In the yard of the church there is a small cemetery but no greek graves are saved. The church has been repaired in the years 1901, 1938, 1956 and 1970 without having changed its original aspect.

It has been characterized a Historical Monument listed in 2004 with serial number 231 and registration code A8-II-m-B-00116.01 (Institutul Național al Patrimoniului, http://www.inmi.ro/lmi/alba.pdf).

4. The protection of cultural heritage in Romania

Monument preservation is a determinant feature of contemporary culture. Romania as a quite recent member of the EU had to adopt in the principles of the strategy of accession to the European Union in the field of the territorial development, a long-term approach which would exploit the natural, economic, social, cultural and historical potential of the country. The approach to the development of the national territory is based on a series of fundamental principles. According to this approach a prerequisite of integration into the European territorial policies, was on one hand, to exploit the country’s potential, and on the other hand, to diminish the internal unbalances and disparities on the regional and local level. The National Physical Development Plan (NPDP) provides the conceptual framework and the perspective for the strategy of territorial development (Popescu 1998).

The National Physical Development Plan (NPDP), as the main policy instrument on the national level, has a guiding character and comprises integrated sections – dedicated to the problems of the national territory (Dumitru 1998) namely the Transportation Networks Section, the Water’s Management, the Settlements Network and the Section for the Natural and Cultural Heritage of National Importance. The latter one identifies the main areas of outstanding natural and cultural value, establishing a hierarchy as a basis for the involvement of public authorities (central, regional and local) in their preservation (Gavra et al 2006).

The guidance and control of the architectural heritage is the responsibility of the Ministry of Culture and the National Commission for the Historical Ensembles. In Romania the first law of protection of historical Monuments was created in 1892 (Opriş 1994). Law no. 56/1998 is the specific legal framework concerning the National Cultural Patrimony Protection. Complementary to this legal framework, we can also mention Law no.151/19988 of the Regional Development and Law no 50/1991 for urban and spatial development planning drawn up in Romania (Alexandru 1998: 92) as important instruments for spatial development planning (central, regional or local). As already

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8 Mention is made of Law No. 151/1998, regulating cross-border cooperation in cultural matters. This cooperation concerns one of the most important instruments for the enhancement and promotion of cultural and architectural heritage, especially focused on its management through tourism development.
observed, on all the levels of spatial planning mentioned above (central, regional or local) in Romania, the protection and upgrading of the natural and cultural reserve-environment is faced as a main importance value – an instrument for the sustainable development of the country and each particular region. Regarding the legal framework, Romania’s legal frame for its cultural patrimony falls into three domains: laws on historical monuments, laws on archeology and other legislation. In the domain of historical monuments that are subject of the present the most typical are (Council of Europe 2008):

- Law 5/2000 on the approval of protected areas of national interest
- Law 422/2001 on the protection of historical monuments as it has been completed and amended by Law no. 259/2006.

Among other relevant laws the most characteristic is:


At the same time there are more than (43) other laws, regulations, decisions and guidelines for the protection of cultural heritage in Romania today (Grigore et al. 1994). Regarding the institutions and the planning and political implementation organizations, especially for the culture in Romania, within the framework of European integration, we can mention the Ministry of Culture and Religious Affairs. It is a specialized body of the central public administration of Romania and has the mission of applying the governmental policies in the sector of arts, culture and religious matters. There are many cultural organisms collaborating with the Ministry of Culture and Religious Affairs: the National Theaters, the National Library, the National Museum, and the institute for the cultural memory (CIMEC) (European Commission 2006, http://ec.europa.eu/culture/portal/sites/candidate/romania).

The agencies dealing with the management of anthropogenic (urban and cultural), as well as with the natural reserve at national level, apart from the Ministry of Culture, are the Ministry of Public Works, Transport and Housing as well as the Ministry of Tourism, along with a number of associations of National Planning and Programming. The latter belong to some ministries or the Academy of Romania (Kaukalas 2000). As a characteristic example we can mention the National Society of Regional Development, the National Institute for Research and Urban Development and Spatial Planning (URBANPROJEECT), the National Commission of Historical Monuments and the Institute of Geography (Gavra 2007).

The process of decision making, approval and spatial planning occurs at different levels. Except from spatial planning governmental and public agencies, scientific and research agencies subordinates of some Ministries or the Romanian Academy, we could mention...
the National Commission for Historical Monuments. Its role is to formulate strategies for urban and spatial development planning, to draw up plans and maps at the national level, to identify monuments, to define natural and built up protected areas of national or greater –international- importance (Gavra 2006).

Alois Riegl first pointed out the relationship between Monument and Historical Monument. While monuments are made from the very beginning to fulfill their memorial function, historical monuments acquire in time this quality as a result of a complicated cultural process (Brandi 1996: 53).

The list of Historical Monuments in Romania includes major sites from the National Register of Historical Monuments in Romania which was created in 2004–2005. The National Register contains 29,540 historical monuments entered in the National Cultural Heritage of Romania and it is maintained by the Romanian National Institute of Historical Monuments, part of the Ministry of Culture and National Patrimony in Romania. As mentioned above, according to the 2.361/2010 decree the Catalog of Historical Monuments that was approved with the decree 2.314/2004 has been reviewed and it also the Historical monuments that are not saved until today (Ministerul Culturii și Patrimoniului Național, http://www.cultura.ro/page/17).

5. Conclusions

Through the study of the Greeks in the cities of Romania and especially in the region of Transylvania, it is obvious that after the concession of privileges to them, they tend to construct buildings of public character. Among them, the most characteristic is the building of religious character. The church represents and functions as a source of identity for the orthodox Greek. The Greek people as a minority validated their identity through the building of churches that until today are representative of their remarkable presence during the examined period.

Nowadays, in Romania, the protection and upgrading of the natural and cultural reserve-environment, at all the levels of spatial planning (central, regional or local), is described as a main importance value – instrument for the sustainable development of the country or every region.

One of the main assets of Romania at this stage is its cultural and architectural heritage. This heritage could be the solid basis for the development of the Romanian tourist sector. However this endeavour entails a number of tasks both managerial and financial. The restoration and reuse of the cultural reserve could constitute important revenue for the tourist industry, which demonstrates an increasing interest in special forms of tourism (cultural tourism), in the SE European countries, Romania is one of these.

The problem that existed regarding the promotion of the cultural heritage, and especially the Historical Monuments apart from the inadequate financial capacity for maintenance and thus, for utilization, was the lack of devolved administration. The National Committee of Historical Monuments was until recently directly dependent from the Ministry of Culture of the country, which is based in Bucharest and decides for the entire geographical territory (Gavra 2007).

However, according to the decree Nr. 2126/07.03.12, the Ministry of Culture approved the establishment of local Committees for the Historical Monuments that are departments of the National Committee of Historical Monuments (http://www.cultura.ro/uploads/files/OMCPN_nr.2126_2012_CNMI.doc).
On the other hand, a small number of historical monuments are actually listed; one of the reasons for this is the lack of proper legislation for their management. The local communities can foster their cultural and economic development through an appropriate management of their natural, built and intangible heritage. International cooperation programs and projects bring the benefit of different European experiences concerning heritage, understanding and adapting in the mean time these experiences to local contexts, realities and needs (Gavra 2008).

Within this framework, since the greek memory/ presence is still very intense in the country, the promotion of bilateral between Greece and Romania cooperation regarding protection, enhancement and management of cultural – architectural heritage and especially of the buildings built by Greek people and characterized as Historical Monuments through supportive joint projects is considered absolutely necessary.

References


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Dr. Eleni G. Gavra was born in Serres-Greece. Graduated from the Faculty of Engineering, School of Engineering, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki. She holds a Ph.D. degree in Architecture and
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