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ABSTRACT
This study attempts to investigate the influence of the economic crisis in Greek Education. Only OECD in 2009 stated the application of educational reforms in Greek education due to the crisis, without investigating the direct impacts on education. Data of our research were obtained in 2012 from a questionnaire administrated to 60 parents, 60 teachers and 180 students, which involved questions regarding the impacts from the economic crisis on: the educational process, the teachers-students relations, the typical school functions, the complementary/supplementary education, the decisions and family planning concerning their children’s educational and professional future and the organization and administration of education. Results showed that apart from the complementary/supplementary education, other fields have been affected by the financial crisis. It is necessary the re-conduct of the research during the coming years, as the financial crisis continues and the size of its impact on education cannot yet be estimated.

Keywords: Economic crisis, Education, Greece.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Economic crisis in Greece
The term economic crisis signifies the phenomenon in which an economy has sustained and significant decline in economic activity. The concept of economic activity refers to all macroeconomic aggregates, like employment, GDP, prices, saving, consumption, investment etc. Economic crisis is divided into national,
Economic crisis in Greece should be viewed as a consequence of USA’s financial crisis and crisis in Eurozone, not as an isolated fact. In May 2009, despite resistance was demonstrated at pressures of global economic crisis, Greece was entering a period of recession (IMF 2009). “New fiscal data” of 2009 indicated that deficit was 12.7% of GDP, instead of 6%, presented by previous government in Council the same year (Hardouvelis 2011:68).

The seven-month delay in EU, contributed to the unprecedented and repeated downgrades credit rating of Greece (Wolf 2010). On May 3, 2010, when fear of spreading crisis within Eurozone was visible, Greece signed Memorandum of Economic and Financial Policies, Memorandum of Understanding on Specific Economic Conditionality and Technical Memorandum of Understanding, which constitute the stabilization program of Greek economy until 2013.

1.2. Impacts of the economic crisis on education

In a literature review was found that the majority of researches concerning the impact of the economic crisis on education were conducted in countries in Asia and South America, and dealt with the crisis over the past decades. In Europe, most of the researches were conducted over the last five years from national organizations, such as OECD and UNESCO.

The research of Filmer & Sayed (1998) in 600 schools in Indonesia, identified as major impact from the crisis, the reduction of enrolments, especially in private schools and in the lower level of secondary education in urban areas, while reductions in the salary of teachers, in the operating costs of schools and in expenditures for text books and educational programs were also implemented. Similar results were found by Mok, Lawler και Hinsz (2009), who studied the impacts from the crisis of 1997 in countries of East Asia and the Pacific. They additionally
discovered worsening of pre-existing educational inequalities between boys and girls, and urban and rural areas.

From a social point of view, the crisis could lead to expenditure cuts as incomes fall and domestic fiscal revenues drop sharply. The impact of rising unemployment is already registering on educational systems as household budgets come under pressure. There may be pressure for children and youth to help augment family incomes, resulting in more school absences or higher dropout rates. The impact on education may be significantly different in urban and rural areas, with urban suffering more (World Bank Organisation no date, UNESCO 2010a).

On 2009, UNESCO (2010b) in a research in Mongolia and the Democratic Republic of Congo identified significant effects on the provision of education, at the expense of the vulnerable population, resulting in increased absenteeism of students, early school leaving and increasing pressure on poor households to cover education costs. The purchase of teaching materials from teachers on their own cost, resulted in reduced motivation and performance. Allowing enrollments and learning to deteriorate will weaken developing countries’ ability to be competitive when the global economy recovers (World Bank Organization no date).

A political facet of the impact of the economic crisis in education includes: On the demand side, school revenues from students and contributions from the community could decline as employment and family incomes fall, making schools more dependent on transfers from the government. On the supply side, teacher salaries may be delayed more than usual, vacant teacher posts may remain unfilled, and allocations for school repairs and school inputs may be greatly reduced, with undesirable consequences on learning. (World Bank Organisation no date) Most cuts to teachers’ salaries, redundancies and non-salary compensation cuts have taken place in countries in Central and Eastern Europe and in the Western European countries most severely affected by the crisis (Iceland and Ireland). The closure and merging of small public schools (particularly in rural areas), has been noted in the majority of European countries (Education International 2010).

According to ETUCE (2012), significant declination in teachers’ salaries and absence of higher financial rewards, resulted in suppressed interest in extra-curricular use of sources in preparing their teaching work and in upgrade of their qualifications (Heyneman 1990). The result was the revision of the selection of the teaching profession, marked depreciation of the educational system and encouragement of students to choose a future profession based on vocational rehabilitation, ability of finding a job easily and higher financial rewards (Biggs 1987). Significant salary reductions can also have a negative impact on a country’s attempt to attract the best students to the teaching profession. As a consequence, countries will find it more difficult to maintain the quality of learning in the future (OECD 2013).

According to Heyneman (1990) parents were redefining their finances and needs because of the crisis, while reducing or stopping tuition due to inability to buy teaching materials for the study of their children at home. Inability to cover the cost
for school activities was also identified (The Forum on Education Abroad 2009).

OECD’s survey in 2009 (Damme & Karkkainen 2011), defined the main effects of the economic crisis on education:

1. Significant increase in demand for non-compulsory education as a result of increased unemployment,
2. Budget cuts in education in some countries,
3. Argeted explicit or implicit stimulus measures to reduce the negative impacts in schools and universities. Vocational education and training, higher and post-secondary education benefit more,
4. Significant effects on private investments.

Only four OECD countries, Greece, Hungary, Iceland and Ireland, where funding and reforms in all sectors of education is public, reported to have been affected in some way by the crisis. Moreover, only Greece and Poland reported that stimulus spendings have somehow benefited all sectors of education.

In an OECD’s survey in 2010 (Damme & Karkkainen 2011) was indicated that education consists a political priority for economic recovery, benefits from the stimulus and social measures and governments seem to be rather successful in protecting education spending, while only in few countries which have been severely hit by the crisis a more general expenditure cut has occurred. The alleviation of unemployment, the meeting of increased demands, the preparation of future growth and the fostering of innovation, consist policies to enhance the educational system's efficiency. A marked increase in demand for non-compulsory and vocational education and training, tertiary and upper-secondary education was observed in many countries as a result of rising unemployment. However, higher demand is not systematically transformed into more training places due to reduced capacity of enterprises to uphold their training investments. In conclusion, the impact of the economic crisis depends on the context of the country and may vary over time, within and between sectors of education in a particular country.

1.3. Impacts of the economic crisis in education in Greece

Concerning the Greek reality, most researches about the impacts of the economic crisis in education, come from national organizations, such as OECD, while the majority of existing researches, focus on the domains of medical care (Kiriopoulos & Tsiantou 2010) and mental health (Bouras & Likouras 2011).

In a research of OECD in 2009 (Damme & Karkkainen 2011), is stated that in Greece, the application of educational reforms has accelerated due to the crisis, in lower and upper secondary and pre-school educational reform. Additional impetus was provided to the reform concerning the promotion of skills and the investments in ICT. Greece reports extensive cuts in education budgets in 2011 as a result of the crisis.
2. METHODOLOGY

2.1. Purpose of the study

The primary aim of the research was the investigation of the views of students, parents and teachers regarding the impacts from the economic crisis on education.

Secondary aim of the research was the investigation of the views of students, parents and teachers regarding the impacts from the economic crisis on: a) the educational process, b) the relations between teachers and students, c) the formal school functions (i.e. logistical shortcomings, personnel shortages, reductions in salaries), d) the complementary and supplementary education (private schools/frontistiria and extracurricular activities), e) the decisions and family planning on the educational and professional future of children and f) the organization and administration of education.

2.2. Participants

Our sample consisted of 300 participants: 60 parents, 60 teachers and 180 students (60 from 6th Grade of Primary School (PS), 60 from 9th Grade and 60 from 3rd Grade of High School (HS)). A questionnaire was excluded from the sample of students of HS as invalid, due to insufficient completion. The selection of the sample was made by the method of simple random sampling from the population of parents, teachers and students in the region of Macedonia, Greece.

Of the 60 parents, most (51.7%) were aged from 41 to 45 years. The majority of fathers (39%) and mothers (39%) were civil servants. Regarding the educational level of fathers and mothers, the largest percentage (37.3% and 36.7%) respectively stated to be university graduates. As for the monthly income, the same percentage (20%) stated an income from 2400€-2800€, from 2000€-2400€ and 1600€-2000€ respectively. Finally, as for the number of children, the majority of both fathers and mothers (58.3%) stated that they have 2 children.

Of the 60 teachers, the largest percentage (75%) was women. From the total, the majority (30%) were aged 41-45 years. With regard to years of service, the same percentage of teachers (26.7%) answered that they had from 21 years of service or more and from 1-5 years respectively. The majority (66.7%) was employed in the sector of Primary Education. Regarding the area of the school unit service, the same percentage of teachers (20%) worked in the area of Thessaloniki, Kilkis, Kastoria and Kozani respectively. Finally, as for the specialty, the majority of teachers in the survey (66.7%) were primary school teachers.

Of the 60 PS students, 29 participants were female and 31 were male and all in total were aged 11-12 years. Of the 60 9th Grade students, 32 participants were girls and 28 were boys, all aged 14-15 years. Finally, of the 60 HS students, 40 participants were female and 20 were male, aged 17-18 years. Participants from all three groups came from Greek families of average socio-economical standards.
2.3. Data Collection Tools

As data collection tool was used the questionnaire. Questions were adjusted according to the target group, which corresponded to the questionnaire. Nevertheless all thematic axes of questions were common. Specifically, questions related to the impact of economic crisis to the educational process, the relations between teachers and students, the formal school functions, the complementary and supplementary education, the decisions and family planning on the educational and professional future of children and the organization and administration of education. The questionnaire of the students showed a good internal validity ($\alpha=.67$), as well as the respective questionnaires of the parents and the teachers ($\alpha=.71$ and $\alpha=.69$ respectively).

Questionnaires had four parts. First part consisted of closed-ended questions: partitionists and multiple choices. Second part was in a Likert-type format that contained 24-27 statements. Participants could choose from five different answers on a scale from “I completely disagree” to “I completely agree” or from “not at all” to “very much”. Third part had two open-ended questions. Forth part included demographic questions.

2.4. Procedure

Initially, a pilot study carried out in a small sample for testing the questionnaire. After the necessary corrections, questionnaires were distributed in paper form by the researchers. Period of distribution and collection of questionnaires was from May 2012 to July 2012.

3. RESULTS

For the analysis of the data derived from the close-type questions, methods of descriptive statistics were used.

3.1. Parents’ answers

From the answers received in the context of this research, we can generally argue that parents still support their children’s supplementary education, although these costs have decreased, compared to the year before and advise their children to pursue a career with immediate job prospects. Furthermore, they argue that the local community should contribute donations to schools and they claim that cut offs in education adversely affect the level of education.

To begin with, it seems that the majority (78.3%) still has the financial ability to provide supplementary education to their children, with reduced fees compared to the year before (51%) and most of them (67.3%) have already asked for further reduction in fees; the answers given regarding the first question have shown significant variation for the factor “educational level of wife” ($F_{5,54}=4.021$, $p=.004$).

Parents argue that these reductions would help, in order to cope with the costs, as well as that the choice of the supplementary educator is made in terms of
quality/low prices (81.6%); the answers given regarding the former one have shown significant variation for the factor “wife’s profession” \( (F_{5,43}=2.475, \ p=.047) \) and “number of children” \( (F_{2,45}=5.903, \ p=.005) \). The majority of parents (90%) stated that until the year before, their children attended supplementary courses and that compared to the year before, the hours of these courses have been decreased (71.7%); the answers given regarding the former one have shown significant variation for the factor “educational level of wife” \( (F_{5,54}=2.872, \ p=.023) \). Finally, they believe that their children’s extracurricular study is good to be supported by a specialist (28.3%).

Thereinafter, the parents claim that they purchase all materials requested by the teacher (41.7%); these answers have showed significant variation regarding the factor “educational level of wife” \( (F_{5,54}=3.802, \ p=.005) \). Up to the year before, they tended to buy helping/supplement educational material (42.1%), and they still do so (61.7%). They disagree that teachers/professors are currently less willing to discuss with them (88.3%), they claim that they have noticed, in a very large degree, delay in starting a course, due to lack of teaching staff; in this case the given answers showed significant variation \( (F_{5,54}=2.644, \ p=.033) \) regarding the factor “educational level of wife” and “number of children” \( (F_{2,54}=6.287, \ p=.004) \). Parents moderately agree that the teacher/professor assigns the same size of workload compared to the year before (31.7%), the financial contribution to the parental association has not been raised (45%) and in a small degree, their children make more frequent complaints about unfair teachers’ attitudes, compared to those of the year before (38.3%). Finally, parents do not often visit their children’s school, in order to be informed about their progress/behavior (43.3%).

Additionally, they agree (40%) that due to the school mergers, the state needs more money for the students’ transportation and they believe that the school should ask for donations (33.3%) from the local/wealthy community (31.7%). They agree that these mergers are due to financial crisis (56.7%) and not for pedagogical reasons (66.7%). Parents will be forced to reduce other costs in order to ensure their children’s studies (48.3%), argue that the cuts in the educational sector are not necessary (78.3%) and that these cuts affect the teachers’ efficiency (28.3%); in this last question the given answers showed significant variance for the factor “wife’s profession” \( (F_{6,53}=2.492, \ p=.034) \). Finally, they agree that cutting off the national expenditures of the educational sector affects negatively the education (31.7%).

Furthermore, parents urge their children to choose a profession, based on the “finding a job easily” criterion (38.3%), a faculty that will provide immediate job prospects (51.7%), but not a technical education due to the low costs (46.7%). The majority of parents (38.3%) claim that the educational system offers, in a moderate degree, the stepping stone for the children’s future; significant variation is observed in the answers given in this question \( (F_{8,51}=2.667, \ p=.016) \) regarding the factor “monthly income”. Parents’ also argued that they do not have, in a moderate degree, the financial ability to help their children to study (43.3%) and that in absence of economic crisis, their decisions about their children’s education would
be different (36.7%); significant variation is also observed in the answers given in this question ($F_{8,51}=3.754$, $p=.010$) regarding the factor “monthly income”. The means and the standard deviations concerning the parent’s answers are depicted in table 1 shown in Appendix.

### 3.2. Teachers’ answers

To begin with, from the teachers’ answers, we can conclude that despite the cuts in their wages, they still make efforts to improve their courses and that they are willing to participate in training programs. They also claim that the local community, due to the financial crisis, should support the schools and that, in general, wages’ cut offs are not necessary. Teachers perceive that some students cannot now continue their studies and that many students quit their extracurricular/supplementary courses, promoting thus inequality within the class.

The majority of teachers (78.3%) claim that their wages’ reductions would be an incentive to be involved in extracurricular/supplementary, educational tuition, while they are not willing (35%) to participate in Solidarity Schools, beyond their working hours and by not been paid; significant variation is observed in the answers given in this question ($F_{6,53}=3.135$, $p=.011$) regarding the factor “age”. They agree (56.7%) that students who need supplementary education/assistance are now forced to quit those lessons, further promoting thus the inequality in class.

Additionally, the teachers claim that they haven’t noticed a delay in course starting, due to lack of teaching staff (30%). For conducting their course, they claim that they use additional educational material, in a moderate or large degree (40%) and furthermore, (26.7%) that the parental contribution to the parents’ associations has only been increased in a small extent. Subsequently, the time currently devoted for the lessons’ preparation has not been decreased (65%) and they state that there are no tensions/conflicts among colleagues, resulted directly or indirectly from financial crisis (28.3%); regarding the former question, the given answers had significant variance ($F_{2,27}=4.132$, $p=.027$) regarding the factor “location of the school”. They also disagree that schools are not heated as well as the year before (30%); significant variation is observed in the answers given in this question ($F_{2,27}=11.604$, $p<.001$) regarding the factor “location of the school”.

Furthermore, the majority of teachers (30%) claim that the cut offs in their wages do not affect their efficiency and that they are interested in acquiring additional expertise certificates, even though those do not provide them further financial earnings (35%).They argue that their wages’ reductions during the current year, have not impelled them to reconsider their profession’s choice (60%).

Moreover, they agree that their students bring all the materials requested (26.7%), they notice that many students do not have the financial ability to continue their studies after graduating (60%) and that due to the financial crisis and in order to help them more, they have made efforts to improve the quality of their lessons (59.3%). They claim that the number of students/class has not been increased(55%), although that kind of increase generally affects negatively the teaching/learning
pace (48.4%). The majority of teachers discuss about current, national issues with their students (88.3%) and they do not think that due to financial difficulties, their students are less studious (65%); significant variation is also observed in the answers given in this question ($F_{2,27}=6.727$, $p=.004$) regarding the factor “location of the school”. They argue that students are more pessimistic, compared to the beginning of the year (66.7%) and they argue that their students have enormously limited their extracurricular activities (30%).

Thereinafter, they neither agree nor disagree with the argument that their students choose a technical education due to lower cost (36.7%), although they might choose faculties with immediate job prospects (56.7%); significant variation is observed in the answers given regarding both the former and the latter question for the factor “location of the school” with $F_{2,27}=3.976$, $p=.031$ and $F_{2,27}=7.723$, $p=.002$ respectively and for the factor “teacher’s specialization” with $F_{5,54}=3.425$, $p=.009$ and $F_{5,54}=2.732$, $p=.028$ respectively too. The teachers agree that in case of the absence of financial crisis, their students' decisions about their studies would be different (50%); answers here depict significant variation ($F_{2,27}=4.931$, $p=.015$) regarding the factor “location of the school”. Finally, they also moderately argue that the current educational system provides the necessary stepping stone for the future (36.7%).

Furthermore, they seem to believe that because of school mergers, the state needs more money for the transportation of pupils (33.3%) and agree that the local, wealthy community should provide financial/materialistic support to schools (36.7%). They claim that the abolition of the Pedagogical Institute aimed money restoration (40%) and agree that school mergers are due to the financial crisis (45%) and not due to educational reasons (55%); significant variation ($F_{5,54}=2.458$, $p=.044$) regarding the factor “teacher’s specialization” is also depicted in the latter question. Finally, they argue that the cuts in their wages, which are not considered necessary (76.7%), affect their efficiency, only in a small degree (26.7%). The means and the standard deviations concerning the teacher’s answers are depicted in table 1 shown in Appendix.

### 3.3. Students’ answers

Despite the financial crisis, it is proved that students insist on attending tutorial courses and participating in extracurricular activities. They prefer to choose a future profession based not only on vocational rehabilitation, but also on their abilities and their interests. It is stated that the financial crisis has affected the educators’ efficiency enough and the formal functions of secondary education schools. They present the non-necessity of cuts in education which modestly equips them with adequate qualifications in order to meet the difficulties of the economic crisis.

In particular, the majority of PS students (50%) mentioned that the number of their classmates has increased compared to last year and that this increase did not affect the conduct of the course in the classroom. In contrast, the majority of both 9th Grade (59.3%) and HS students (76.3%) stated that number has not increased.
Significant variation \((F_{2,62}= 4.756, p=.012)\) regarding the factor “age” is depicted in question about the effect of increase. Most of PS (41.7%), 9th Grade (33.9%) and HS students (40.7%) said that the reductions in education affected the efficiency of teachers in moderate; answers here depict significant variation \((F_{2,175}= 11.692, p<.001)\) regarding the factor “age”. The majority of PS students (33.3%) said that at the beginning of the school year teachers used additional educational material, modestly. Most of 9th Grade students (28.3%) observed this behavior in a great extent, while most of the HS students (28.8%) stated that it was to a small extent; significant variation is also observed in the answers given in this question \((F_{2,176}= 9.146, p<.001)\) regarding the factor “age”.

Subsequently, the majority of PS (88.3%), 9th Grade (83.3%) and HS students (81.4%) held the view that teachers were more interested in the students’ problems in relation to the beginning of the school year; significant variation is observed in the answers given regarding the latter question for the factor “gender” \((F_{2,177}= 23.360, p=.019)\). The majority of PS (31.7%) and 9th Grade students (40%) did not observe that educators were more moody in the end of the school year than they were at the beginning of the year, while most of HS students (47.5%) observed this bad mood modestly; answers here depict significant variation \((F_{2,176}= 10.951, p<.001)\) regarding the factor “age”. Similarly, the majority of PS (45%) and 9th Grade students (43.3%) did not observe that teachers shouted at them more than they did at the beginning of the year, while most of HS students (37.3%) observed it in moderate; answers here depict significant variation \((F_{2,176}= 3.970, p=.021)\) regarding the factor “age”.

In addition, the majority of PS students (41.7%) stated that there was no delay in starting a school course due to the lack of teaching staff. On the contrary, the majority of HS students (27.1%) declared that it happened largely. The majority of 9th Grade students were ambivalent, since 25% said that there was a delay due to the lack of teachers to a great extent and the other 25% said that there was no delay. Significant variation is observed in the answers given in this question \((F_{2,176}= 6.668, p=.002)\) regarding the factor “age”. The biggest percentage of 9th Grade (30%) and HS students (39%) agreed that their schools are not heated as well as last year, while most of PS students (31.7%) disagreed; answers here depict significant variation \((F_{2,176}= 4.157, p=.017)\) regarding the factor “age”. Most of PS (76.7%), 9th Grade (55%) and HS students (37.3%) stated that the Parents’ Association did not demand as much money as they did last year; regarding the former question, the given answers had significant variance \((F_{2,176}= 6.224, p=.002)\) regarding the factor “age”.

Furthermore, the majority of PS students (61.4%) stated that they attended tutorial courses in foreign languages to the same extend as they had attended last year, the majority of 9th Grade students (45.8%) attended more hours, while the HS students (88.1%) did not attend tutorial courses, regardless of the economic crisis. As we can see, answers here depict significant variation \((F_{2,176}= 141.907, p<.001)\) regarding the factor “age”. Most of PS (76.7%) and 9th Grade students (63.3%)
mentioned that they did not have lessons with tutors in school subjects, regardless of the economic crisis, while most of HS students (84.3%) attended this kind of lessons more consistently this year. Significant variation is observed in the answers given in this question \((F_{2,175} = 38.064, p < .001)\) regarding the factor “age”. The majority of both PS (91.7%) and 9th Grade students (66.7%) stated that participated in extracurricular activities in their spare time this year, while the majority of HS students (64.4%) was not involved in extracurricular activities, regardless of the financial crisis; in this case the given answers showed significant variation \((F_{177} = 74.300, p < .001)\) regarding the factor “gender” and “age” \((F_{2,176} = 33.380, p < .001)\).

In addition, the biggest percentages of PS (43.3%), 9th Grade (40%) and HS students (47.5%) asserted that they would pursue a profession that could offer them vocational rehabilitation; answers here depict significant variation \((F_{7,170} = 2.303, p = .029)\) regarding the factor “father’s profession” Simultaneously, the majority of all three age groups with respective rates of 96.6%, 61.7% and 62.7% said they would choose a profession based on the ambitions and interests; in this case the given answers showed significant variation \((F_{177} = 10.426, p = .041)\) regarding the factor “gender”, “age” \((F_{2,176} = 4.375, p = .014)\) and “father’s profession” \((F_{7,170} = 2.152, p = .041)\). When they were asked about whether the economic crisis affects the choice of study, the majority of PS students (33.3%) didn’t have a clear point of view, the majority of 9th Grade students (26.7%) agreed slightly, while most of HS students were divided over this issue. The 32.2% maintained a neutral position and the same percentage disagreed. The majority of PS (36.7%), 9th Grade (45%) and HS students (37.3%) stated that they could afford the studies after school. Most of PS (55%), 9th Grade (61.7%) and HS students (50%) would not choose technical education despite the low cost; significant variation is also observed in the answers given in this question \((F_{176} = 25.089, p < .001)\) regarding the factor “gender”.

Subsequently, the majority of all three age groups with respective rates of 80%, 53.3% and 52.5% said they were more sensitive about the problems people face because of the economic crisis. On whether the school has to find donators from the elite of local community, the majority of PS (30%) and 9th Grade students (36.7%) maintained a neutral stance, while most of HS students (45.8%) agreed. Significant variation is observed in the answers given in this question \((F_{2,176} = 8.433, p < .001)\) regarding the factor “age”. The biggest percentage of PS (40%) and 9th Grade students (41.4%) said they would try to reduce the hours of tutoring/private lessons and they would try studying by themselves, while most of HS students (36.8%) answered neutral. The biggest percentage of PS (30%) and 9th Grade students (28.3%) did not answer clearly, if they are willing to cut other expenses so as to ensure their studies, while most of HS students (33.9%) indicated clearly that they were willing; in this case the given answers showed significant variation regarding the factor “father’s profession” \((F_{7,170} = 3.055, p = .005)\).

The majority of PS (45%), 9th Grade (65%) and HS students (62.7%) mentioned that the mergers of schools were not for educational reasons, but they stated (46.7%, 58.3% and 64.4% respectively) that they were due to the economic crisis. In

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addition, in this case the given answers showed significant variation regarding the factor “age” ($F_{2,176} = 9.030, p<.001$) and “father’s profession” ($F_{7,170} = 4.494, p<.001$). On whether the state needs more money for transferring students because of the mergers, the majority of PS (33.3%) and 9th Grade students (41.7%) maintained a neutral stance, while most of HS students (33.9%) partially agreed. Significant variation is observed in the answers given in this question ($F_{2,176} = 3.737, p=.026$) regarding the factor “age”. Most of PS (58.3%), 9th Grade (51.7%) and HS students (64.4%) stated that the cuts in education were unnecessary. Significant variation is also observed in the answers given in this question regarding the factor “father’s profession” ($F_{7,170} = 2.313, p=.028$) and “mother’s profession” ($F_{7,171} = 2.125, p=.043$). Finally, the majority of 9th Grade (45%) and HS students (37.3%) said that the school provided students with the necessary skills in moderate, so as to enable them to face future difficulties the economic crisis brought the last two years and the majority of PS students indicated that it happened largely (36.7%) and in moderate (36.7%); answers here depict significant variation ($F_{2,176} = 26.251, p<.001$) regarding the factor “age”. The means and the standard deviations are depicted in table 1 shown in Appendix.

### 3.4. Answers from open-ended questions

For the first open-ended question, “How do you perceive the concept of economic crisis” participants’ responses were categorized into 7 categories, in political causes, in moral and spiritual crisis, in optimism for a hopeful future, in the impacts from the economic crisis on the economic and labor field, the psychological and emotional field, at the social level and on many fields. Most parents’, teachers’ and students’ related to the impacts from the economic crisis on the economic and labor field. Specifically, 43 parents’ statements were referred to effects on the economic and labor sector for example [Shutdown of businesses – Reduction of jobs, Increase of unemployment - Salary reductions, Unmet families’ expenses – needs.]; 32 teachers’ statements were referred to the same field for example [Cuts in heating, entertainment, clothing, footwear, transfer and generally impacts on quality of life.]; 50 PS students’ statements were referred to the same field, such as [People have no money, job and salaries for livelihood]; 45 9th Grade students’ statements were referred to the same field for example [The economic crisis has affected all people. Many of them chucked out, or their salaries were decreased while the cost of living was increased.] and 37 HS students’ statements were referred to the same field for example [The economic crisis means austerity measures, i.e. layoffs, salary reductions.].

For the second open-ended question, “How do you think the economic crisis affects the functions of the education system” participants’ responses were categorized into 8 categories, in the impacts on: the formal school functions, the organization and administration of education, the psychological field, the relations education - students, the educational process, on the complementary and supplementary education, the decisions and family planning on the educational and
professional future of children, the value of education and in the impacts from financial crisis generally on education. Most parents’, teachers’ and students’ related to the impacts from the economic crisis on the formal school functions. Specifically, 37 parents’ statements were referred to effects on the formal school functions with examples [Teacher’ salaries were reduced, money for the formal school functions are minimal.]; 36 teachers’ statements were referred to the same field for example [Lack of teaching staff - less instructional materials.]; 35 PS students’ statements were referred to the same field, such as [There is lack of text books and teaching staff in some schools. Fortunately, in my school there is not this lack. My school is heated, but other schools are not heated.]; 38 9th Grade students’ statements were referred to the same field for example [Even the state is cutting the education so there are not maintainable school buildings. In many schools there are not enough classrooms.]; 33 HS students’ statements were referred to the same field for example [Schools do not have the necessary instructional materials due to cuts and the function’s school conditions impair. The number of pupils rises, while the number of educators is reduced.]

4. DISCUSSION-CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this research is to investigate the students’, parents’ and teachers’ views concerning the impact of the economic crisis in education. Thus, we can conclude that aside from the complementary/supplementary education, which is not largely affected, the financial crisis has negatively affected the educational process, relationships between teachers and students, the typical school functions, decisions and family plans about the educational and professional future of their children and finally, the organization and administration of education.

Specifically, the economic crisis seems to affect the educational process in general, through the increase of student population, the reduce of educational programs’ and events’ number, as indicated by the teachers, results that also agree with the findings of Mok, Lawler and Hinsz (2009) research. Although the 9th Grade and HS students observe that the use of additional educational material has been decreased, a finding that is in accordance with the Heyneman’s view (1990) that is resulted from the teachers’ wages reduction, teachers claim that they continue to use additional educational material. Furthermore, teachers claim that they haven’t regretted their profession choice and are of the opinion that the financial crisis has not affected their motivation and their performance, findings that do not agree with the UNESCO research (2010).They also, claim that financial crisis has not affected the students’ studiousness, in contradiction to previous research that claim that studiousness has been affected, due to the fact that families are unable to financially support their children's education (Heyneman 1990, UNESCO 2010, Shafiq 2010).

Thereinafter, the financial crisis affects the relationships between teachers and students (UNESCO 2010). The HS students observe that their teachers are more moody and scold them more, compared to the beginning of the current year;
teachers point out that their emotional/psychological state has been adversely affected, a fact that Biggs (1987) attributes mainly to the uncertain professional future.

The financial crisis, as indicated by previous research (Mok, Lawler & Hinsz 2009, Education International 2010, UNESCO 2010, Damme & Karkkainen 2011) leads to reduction of educational expenses, which seems to negatively affect the typical school functions. This reduction, in the context of Greek education, led to lack of high school teachers and to insufficient heating of schools, based on participants’ answers.

In contradiction, the supplementary/complementary education does not seem to have been largely affected. The majority of parents continue to provide learning opportunities to their children, through complementary-supplementary education, looking, though, for low prices and fees reductions; significant variation for the factor “educational level of wife” has been depicted in this case. Students confirm their attendance of complementary-supplementary education. This finding may be correlated with the fact that public education is not sufficient to meet children's needs/requirements; as a result, the contribution of supplementary/complementary education and other entities (music, sports) is essential, but it can also be correlated with the fact that there have been reduces in supplementary education tuition fees. According to the Federation of Supplementary Educators of Greece, reductions in fees reach up to 20% (Papoutsaki 2011, November 6). However, there are families that are unable to pay the tuition fees of supplementary education and extracurricular activities resulting thus in decreasing them, (Heyneman 1990, The Forum on Education Abroad 2009, Patrianakou 2012); this view is also espoused by the teachers in our research.

Furthermore, the economic crisis seems to have affected the family decisions and plans concerning the educational and professional future of their children. The key criterion for the profession selection, according to parents’ and teachers’ views, is the immediate job prospect, which according to Biggs (1987) is due to the fear of unemployment, while students identify as additional, important criterion their aptitudes and interests; significant variation in the given answers, regarding the factor “father’s profession” has been depicted in this case. Economic crisis does not seem to shift parents’ and students’ interest to technical education, due to low cost. Teachers, however, claim that the students’ admission in technical education has been increased, one of the financial crisis’ impact, according to OECD 2010 survey (Damme & Karkkainen 2011).

Another field affected by the financial crisis is the Organization and Administration of Education (Education International 2010). Our participants seem to understand that school mergers are due to financial and not educational reasons, while teachers recognize that the same factors led to abolition of the Pedagogical Institute.

Finally, according to the participants, it is not certain that education can contribute in crisis overcoming. Except the PS students, the other claim that
education only moderately offers a stepping stone in order to face the difficulties of the economic crisis in the future. However, according to OECD, education must be identified as a political priority for financial recovery (Damme & Karkkainen 2011).

5. EPILOGUE

Identifying the economic crisis impacts on education is a difficult research project due to the complexity of the educational process. As a result, it is observed that some findings are contradicted to findings of previous researches, which can be explained by the fact that those researches have been conducted abroad, and as OECD supports, the impact of the financial crisis is highly dependent on the country’s context and can vary over time, within and between countries and sectors (Damme & Karkkainen 2011). Additionally, the lack of a representative sample constitutes a limitation in our research and as a result the conduct of this research during the coming years, with a representative sample is considered essential, as the economic crisis continues and the size of its impact on education cannot yet be estimated.

REFERENCES


Table 1. Means and Standard Deviation of parents’, teachers’ and students’ answers in 33 items.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ITEMS</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>MIN</th>
<th>MAX</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Financial ability regarding supplementary education for my children</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This year, the extracurricular activities' expenses are:</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Request for cost reduction regarding the supplementary education</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costs reduction in supplementary education could facilitate financially</td>
<td>1.63</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Criteria for choosing tutor</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Up to the previous year my child had supplementary education</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hours of supplementary educations have been decreased</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Up to the previous year I used to buy additional educational material for my child</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I buy additional educational material for my child</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers are not willing to discuss with me</td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Due to merges, additional money for students’ transportation is needed</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I advise my child to choose a profession that will offer immediate job prospects</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I buy all the material asked by the teacher</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I advise my child to follow technical education due to low cost</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will reduce other expenses of my child in order to ensure his/her studies</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I advise my child to choose a profession with immediate vocational rehabilitation</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School should request donations from the rich, local community</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School merges are due to financial crisis</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extracurricular studies should be supported by a specialized tutor</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My child’s school is not heated as well as last year</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School merges are due to educational reasons</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The rich community should offer material and</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITEMS</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>MIN</td>
<td>MAX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>-----</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>money support to schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Money reduction in the educational field affect teachers’ performance</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Money reductions in the educational field are needed</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The educational system offers the stepping stone to students regarding facing future difficulties</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delay in course’s start was observed, due to lack of teachers</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Money supply reduction in the educational field affects negatively the educational level of my children</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the absence of the financial crisis my decisions regarding my children's studies would be different</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher assigns the same workload to my children</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial contribution to parental association has been increased</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My children make more complaints regarding unfair and distant behavior of the teachers</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I go more often to school in order to be informed about my children’s progress and behavior</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do not have the financial ability for my children to study in the university</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wages’ Reduction raise extracurricular/supplementary pursuit</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efforts to improve the quality of their lessons</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number increase of students/class</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This kind of increase affects negatively the teaching/learning pace</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discuss about current, national issues with their students</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Due to financial crisis students are less studious</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Due to financial crisis students are pessimism</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Due to school merges more money for students’ transportation is needed</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No financial ability to study students in university</td>
<td>4.48</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students bring all the materials requested</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students choose technical education due to not</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITEMS</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>MIN</td>
<td>MAX</td>
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<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
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<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>increased cost</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students choose a profession that offers professional rehabilitation</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the absence of the financial crisis students would choose other profession</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abolition of the Pedagogical Institute aimed money restoration</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School should search for local community's donations</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School merges improve courses</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heat in school is not as good as last year</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School merges improve courses</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School should search for local community's donations</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cut offs in their wages affect their efficiency</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduction in money supply in education is necessary</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School provides the stepping stone in order to face future difficulties</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delay in the beginning of a course due to lack of teachers</td>
<td>2.47</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of additional educational material</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Willing to participate in Solidarity Schools</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cut offs in their wages affect their efficiency</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decrease of time for the lessons’ preparation</td>
<td>1.63</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tensions/conflicts among colleagues due to financial crisis</td>
<td>2.48</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students have limited their extracurricular activities</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest in acquiring additional expertise certificates without further financial earnings</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wages’ reductions have impelled them to reconsider their profession’s choice</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental contribution to the parents’ associations has been increased</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tutorial in foreign languages this year</td>
<td>1.74</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tutorial in foreign languages this year, compared to the previous</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITEMS</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>MIN</td>
<td>MAX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tutorial in school subjects this year</td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tutorial in school subjects this year compared to the previous one</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extracurricular activities in free time this year</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of students in my class has increased compared to the previous year</td>
<td>1.66</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased number of students hasn’t influenced the course conduct</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tutor more unconcerned compared to the beginning of the year</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Willing to choose a profession that offers professional rehabilitation</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Willing to follow a profession based on my interests</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More sensitive for other people’s problems</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School should search for local community’s donations</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Willing to increase my effort in studying and decrease the tutorial’s hours</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the absence of the financial crisis I would choose other profession</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No financial ability to study in university</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional rehabilitation affects the profession’s choice</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School merges improve courses</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schools merges are due to financial crisis</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Due to school merges more money for students’ transportation is needed</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heat in school is not as good as last year</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Choose technical education due to not increased cost</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rich local community should offer money and material</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Money reduction affects teachers’ performance</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduction in money supply in education is necessary</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School supplies the needed in order to face future difficulties</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delay in the beginning of a course due to lack of teachers</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher has bad mood in class compared to the</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITEMS</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>MIN</td>
<td>MAX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beginning of the year</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher yells more compared to the beginning of the year</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the beginning of the year teacher used additional educational material</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the last 2 months teacher uses additional educational material</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extracurricular activities have been decreased due to financial crisis</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More money are requested from the parents</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Willingness to reduce the expenses in order to study in the university</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
EDUCATION FOR EXCELLENCE AND LEADERSHIP IN GREECE.
THE “NATIONAL SCHOOL OF ANAVRYTA” FROM A
HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT

Looking into the subject of education for excellence and leadership in the history of Greek education, the “National School of Anavryta” seems to be a specific case of educational institution, which has hardly been studied in the relevant literature. Founded ad hoc to educate the Crown Prince Constantine, the school of Anavryta applied the educational ideas and school practices instituted by Kurt Hahn in Salem, Germany and Gordonstoun in Scotland, addressing descendants of rich and powerful families of Greek society and, to a limited extent, gifted students from lower social strata. Character building, community service, experiential learning, activities with elements of adventure and danger, public speaking, theatrical performances, physical education and outdoor experiences, all formed a series of extracurricular opportunities that went beyond the realm of the normal curriculum. Those educational innovations, in tune to the educational ideal of Kurt Hahn, placed the Anavryta School in the Round Square group. Though, the “National School of Anavryta” was eventually an expensive educational borrowing based on a foreign innovative educational experiment. A public school that allegedly occurred, to respond to the educational needs of the royal family and the upper socio-economic class in impoverished Greece. A public elitist school heavily criticized for its incongruity with the needs and priorities of Greek people.

Keywords: Education for excellence, Education for leadership, experiential learning, history of Greek education

1. THE FOUNDATION OF THE “NATIONAL SCHOOL OF ANAVRYTA”

The foundation of the “National School of Anavryta” took place in 1949 and was directly related to the desire of the Greek royal family to create a safe educational
and socializing environment for Crown Prince Constantine. From the beginning, the founders, surpassing even at a communicative level the practice of isolating the “blue-blooded” during the educational process, gave the school a strongly elitist profile, which was considered an essential for students embarking on a journey towards excellence.

The institutional framework of the “National School of Anavryta” was dictated by its founding law 1956/1950, which in its first article defined the model status of the school, which targeted boys from the upper classes, of primary or secondary school age, i.e. from about nine to eighteen years old, the age at which they prepared to enter University (Ethnos, 6/12/1950). The school would include two fields of study, of a practical and theoretical nature, while its diplomas would be equivalent to those issued by the public schools (The Royal National Foundation, 1961: 15-16).

The educational aims and objectives of the school were outlined in its first Internal Regulation as follows: “a) the integral development of a virtuous character, b) an overall healthy physique, c) the development of the students’ intellectual and other abilities in the framework of the Greek-Christian tradition, for the good of society and the country” (Anavryta, 1969: 7). By incorporating the constitutional demand for education in the ideological framework of the Greek-Christian culture, the school of Anavryta was proclaiming its intention to provide young people with challenges related to their character, and to religious and physical education.

In any case, a school in which the Crown Prince Constantine would receive his education should not be a common school. The glare of publicity would be focused upon it. Besides, the school was expected to cultivate the Crown Prince’s intellect, his sentiments and his will, and mould his thoughts and actions according to the principles determined by the ideal of kalos kagathos (the ideal of an integrated personality, harmonious in mind and body), as in ancient times. A third important point was dictated by the necessity for the school to provide a Greek-inspired model of education, which would have to combine the enhancement of the glorious past with the perspective of the present. These were all essential preconditions which, according to the founders of the school, could altogether be satisfied by applying the educational ideas and school practices instituted by Kurt Hahn in Salem, Germany and Gordonstoun in Scotland. There were several arguments in favor of adopting such a model of education. The schools in question had been in operation for at least thirty years and presented good results. Addressing the social elite, these schools had already included members of European royal families among their students. Additionally, from a pedagogical perspective, their operation was influenced by Plato’s idealism, which prevailed in Greek educational theory.

It was the King’s National Foundation, which launched the initiative of the “National School of Anavryta” (Empros, 25/5/1949). It is obvious that the Greek royal family were largely affected by Hahn’s educational ideals. Several of its members

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1 Kurt Hahn’s significant influence on the fields of outdoor and experiential learning and adventure education made him a key figure in the development of progressive education (McLachan 1970).
had been sent to Salem in the past to continue their studies, and in 1948, Prince George of Hanover, Frederica’s brother, had become the headmaster of the Salem School. This may therefore explain the idea of founding Anavryta School and also why the royal family supported the educational system of Kurt Hahn. Various sources claim that Frederica was the driving force behind the establishment of the school². Whatever the case may be, the members of the school’s educational and administrative staffs have indicated the active role played by Frederica as regards the school’s operation (Georgountzos, 1969: 12, Tsoukalas, 1969: 8, Winthrop-Young, 1970: 116). Within that sense, yet another special group of children were to become “Frederica’s children”³.

The first headmaster of the “National School of Anavryta” was Goffrey Winthrop-Young⁴ from Britain, a man who enjoyed the trust of the Palace, and a graduate of Gordonstoun himself. Winthrop-Young was closely related to Kurt Hahn and he undertook to organize the school on the basis of Hahn’s pedagogical principles. The school, in correlation with the Salem and Gordonstoun schools, wanted to become the third European institution that would faithfully apply the pedagogical vision of the German educationalist (Empros, 21/1/1950). The first teachers of Anavryta School were sent to Gordonstoun, in order to acquire a proper understanding of the educational system they were going to apply.

The school’s building complex was located in the grounds of the Syngros estate, on the pine-covered slopes of Anavryta forest (The Royal National Foundation, 1961: 17). It was a boarding school for boys. The vast majority of boarders were obliged to pay tuition fees, while a quarter of the pupils were said to be granted scholarships by the Royal National Foundation (The Royal National Foundation, 1956: 24-25). Winthrop-Young claimed in an interview in 1950 that “we didn’t choose geniuses, nor perfect characters; if we had done that, the school would now have no purpose” (Empros, 21/1/1950). However, the school mainly addressed descendants of rich and powerful families in Greek society. It was an elite school, which merely included children from other social classes, in order to meet the educational concept that “the sons of the powerful were to be emancipated from the prison of privilege” (Wilson, 1981: 11). This framework of academic coexistence of students from

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² “The initiative belongs to the Queen who has appointed Mr Young as general headmaster” (Empros, 21/1/1950).
³ “Frederica’s Children” have been the tens of thousands of the Greek children, who either were caught up in the maelstrom of the Greek Civil War (1946–1949) or became subjects of political expediency and experiments in political socialization within the Cold War. During the last few years a multitude of published studies contribute to a better understanding of the issue from the historical and sociological point of view. Exploiting the perspective of the History of Education, Andreou, Iliadou and Mpetsas investigate the involvement of the Greek royal institutions in the education and socialization of those children and highlight the royal initiatives in dialectical counterpoint to the “Communist peril” within the context of the Cold War. The remarkable and innovative educational projects presented in their survey seem to be an organic part of the anti-Communist agenda and of the overall reconstruction programmes originated, funded and implemented by the American factor (Andreou et al. 2012).

⁴ Goffrey Winthrop-Young, a former pupil of Kurt Hahn at Salem and Gordonstoun, served as headmaster of Anavryta School from 1949 to 1958. He later became the second Headmaster of Salem in Germany and the founder of the Round Square Conference, a global association of boarding schools, organized according to Hahn’s legacy (Bagnall, 2008: 39).
different social strata had been dictated by Kurt Hahn himself, who advocated that: “any school cannot build a tradition of self-discipline and creative and enjoyable effort, unless at least 30% of the children come from a home where life is hard” (Warren, 2005: 91).

2. PEDAGOGICAL PRINCIPLES AND EDUCATIONAL PRACTICES

2.1. The daily routine of the school

During the first school year of its operation (1949-1950), the Anavryta school had 3 classes and 29 boarders (10 students per class) (Ethnos, 24/5/1949, Empros, 21/1/1950). Gradually, more classrooms were added to the school and by the end of 1957, 180 students were attending classes there. The students came from various regions of Greece and from Greek communities’ overseas (Winthrop-Young, 1970: 116). They included the Crown Prince Constantine and other members of the royal family who were educated as boarders at the school. Scholarship students of the Royal National Foundation were selected from the poorest provinces of Greece, after being recommended by their schoolmasters and examined by committees set up by the Foundation. The scholarship project began in the school year 1952-1953. It was aimed at top students from Greek rural areas, who were singled out because of their intellect, unblemished morals, good health and excellent physique (Eleftheria, 8/5/1952) -which contradicts the claims of Winthrop-Young, in his interview to the newspaper Empros in 1950.

The school curriculum was set by the Greek Ministry of Education. However, the charter of incorporation of the “National School of Anavryta” allowed for certain modifications, compared with the regular public schools of the same level (Royal National Foundation, 1968: 53). The students’ timetable, on a typical school day, was as follows (Anavryta, 1969: 7):

Table 1: The students’ timetable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>06.30</td>
<td>Wake-up call, cold shower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06.40</td>
<td>Morning call, wash and tidy up, make bed, get dressed, polish shoes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07.10</td>
<td>Inspection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07.20-07.40</td>
<td>Breakfast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07.50</td>
<td>Prayers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07.55-08.35</td>
<td>Lessons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08.40-09.20</td>
<td>Lessons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09.30-10.10</td>
<td>Sports for 1st &amp; 2nd grade of high school, lessons for the rest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.10-10.25</td>
<td>Mid-morning break</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.25-11.05</td>
<td>Sports for 5th &amp; 6th grade of high school, lessons for the rest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.15-11.55</td>
<td>Sports for 3rd &amp; 4th grade of high school, lessons for the rest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.05-12.45</td>
<td>Sports for primary school students, lessons for the rest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
12.55-13.35  Lessons
13.40        Inspection
13.50-14.15  School Lunch
14.15-15.00  Leisure time - Mentoring / Tutorials for weak students
15.10-16.00  Various activities
16.05        Washing with hot water
16.20        Tea break
16.35-19.45  Study period (with 10-minute breaks at 17.40-17.50 and 18.50-19.00)
19.50        Inspection
20.00-20.25  Supper
20.25-21.15  Studying, recreational activities, English or French night, as well as lectures and various hobbies
20.35        Bedtime (primary school students)
21.30        Bedtime (high school students)

Military order and discipline seem to have pervaded the daily routine of students at Anavryta. Discipline, as a crystallized precept of Hahn’s educational program, even from the Salem period (Ewald, 1970: 37), was considered a prerequisite in order to implement the objectives of the curriculum. In general, the principles of the school were not merely based on knowledge. Character building, experiential learning, activities with elements of adventure and danger, public speaking, physical education and outdoor experiences, all held an important position in the school’s curriculum.

2.2. Extra-curricular activities towards experience-based learning

The extra-curricular activities were considered a surrogate which would help students take charge of their lives. Kurt Hahn’s famous quotation “I regard it as the foremost task of education to insure the survival of these qualities: an enterprising curiosity, an undefeatable spirit, tenacity in pursuit, readiness for sensible self denial, and above all, compassion” (McLachan, 1970; 8), was implemented through a multidisciplinary curriculum, which assigned substantial responsibilities to students, and gave them the opportunity to meet realistic situations from an early age.

The extracurricular activities of Anavryta combined cultural and sports interests. At every opportunity, the royal presence in those activities ensured the involvement of specialized persons and specific professional groups, such as the army, drama schools, sports clubs etc. Athletics was a predominant type of extra-curricular activity. Anavryta school was one of the first Greek schools to attach due importance to the education of youth in sports and athletics and considered them a priority. Hockey, which was the most important team game according to Hahn (Ewald, 1970: 29), and a sport totally unknown in Greece, was one of the centerpieces of the sports program. Swimming, running, basketball, climbing, alpine and cross-country skiing were some of the many sports activities promoted by the
Among the cultural extracurricular activities, the most prominent were the theatrical performances given by the students. The students rehearsed frequently, putting on dramatic performances in their original language, with plays by Shakespeare (A Midsummer Night’s Dream), Molière (Le Médecin malgré lui), Sophocles (Antigone), Bernard Shaw (Androcles and the Lion) etc. presented at the end of the school year. An open-air theatre was built in the forest of Anavryta to house the students’ extracurricular drama activities (Winthrop-Young, 1970: 119).

Claiming that personal responsibility was one of the major objectives of the school, Winthrop-Young organized a community life for the boarders, and a monitoring system of cadets, ranks and assistants was used to organize the daily routine of the students. The elements of civics were also taught at Anavryta School, through active citizenship within a self-governed community, with the boys themselves electing the new members of the Student Council. Students were responsible for several aspects of the school’s daily operation. In addition, the principles of self-respect, a sense of responsibility and doing service for the community were demonstrated at every opportunity (Winthrop-Young, 1970: 121).

As far as experience-based learning is concerned, which was regarded as a character-building exercise, based on adventure and testing experiences (Andresen, 1995: 227), this was mainly pursued at Anavryta through excursions organized each weekend, which offered students the opportunity to follow orders, test the limits of their endurance and succeed in extreme situations (Winthrop-Young, 1970: 119).

Another aspect of the experience-based learning method, was related to community service, which was “a part of the school ethos” at Gordonstoun (Arnold-Brown, 1962: 40). In addition, for Hahn himself “service meant primarily Samaritan service, directly linked to immediate and dramatic life saving in order to provide for a moral equivalent to war” (Richter, 1970: 210). Such service could appeal to the juvenile soul, by softening and directing aggressive instincts towards more peaceful channels (Röhrs, 1970: 135). Within the framework of community service, students at Anavryta undertook initiatives to provide their services at hospitals, asylums, helped families in need, and even participated in rescue missions involving natural disasters or complex emergencies. A well-known example of this community service was the intervention made by the Anavryta students, in cooperation with students from Salem and Gordonstoun, shortly after the earthquake that destroyed the islands of Cephalonia and Zante in the early summer of 1954 (Frederica, 1971: 214). Prince George of Hanover, Frederica’s brother, led a team of young students to Cephalonia, in order to offer their services to the desperate locals and rebuild the islands from the ruins. About one hundred students from France, Germany, Switzerland, U.S.A., India, Great Britain and Sweden, together with 45 boys from Anavryta School, volunteered to do relief work for a full month. Among the projects undertaken was the reconstruction of the entire coast of Argostoli, which was essential for supplies to reach the island, as well as the rebuilding of elderly people’s homes in the city of Argostoli (The Royal National Foundation, 1961: 41-42).
The students’ intellectual growth was another pivotal objective of the Anavryta curriculum, in accordance with the Greek educational tradition. Along with providing intensive and effective training, the school also offered students extra support teaching in order to help them deal with highly challenging tasks and to improve their chances of achieving excellence. The teaching of foreign languages was also intensive, in order for graduates to have a degree of proficiency in English, which would enable them to study at a University abroad; music was also high on the list of priorities.

3. THE TEACHING STAFF

Extremely impressive is the list of teachers who taught at the National Educational Institution of Anavryta. In general, they were professional educators with a high level of formal and substantial qualifications. Several of them later became University chairpersons, or reached the top of the administrative and educational hierarchy of the Greek educational system. More specifically, the list of supervisory and teaching staff, during the first twenty years of the school’s operation, found in the pages of Anavryta magazine (Anavryta, 1969: 16-21), includes, inter alia, the late Archbishop of Athens, the Heads of the Advisory Boards of the Ministry of Education, during that period and later on, as well as professors who chaired the Departments of Pedagogy, Ancient History, Byzantine History, Greek Literature and Theology at various Greek universities. Furthermore, a search on the Internet shows that most of the teachers at Anavryta presented significant scientific or artistic work, in their own field of specialization.

The vast majority of teachers were employed through the Greek public education system, via the procedure known as “placement for the needs of the department”. At the same time, however, foreign, internationally-renowned teachers were also employed at Anavryta School, mainly to teach foreign languages and music. To claim that some of the most significant and capable teachers from the Greek public education system of that period were gathered at Anavryta school, would not be an exaggeration. The personal testimony of Linos Benakis, a member of the teaching staff, supports this view. Benakis describes the process through which he was appointed at Anavryta, from a school in Epirus where he was teaching. He was approached for this purpose by Linos Politis, a university professor. Benakis also points out that Alexandros Delmouzos⁵, a well-known Greek pedagogue, had asked for Politis’ mediation, “as a request from the Palace”, in order to find a suitable teacher from public secondary education to teach at Anavryta (Benakis, 2000: 26).

In the school year 1949–1950, twelve teachers (Theology-1, Greek Language-1, Mathematics-1, Physics-1, Physical Education-1, Technical Courses-1, Primary Education-2, English Language-3, Music-1) were teaching the 29 students attending

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⁵ The relationship between Delmouzos and Anavryta School is yet unclear. Xerotyris claims that, in the mid 50s, Frederica had asked Delmouzos to inspect the School of Anavryta to identify shortcomings and make suggestions about its operation (Xerotyris, 2000: 256).
the school’s three classes. With respect to the number of students attending the school, the student-teacher ratio was 2.4. In the school year 1957-1958, there were 31 teachers for 180 students and the ratio changed to 5.8 (Anavryta, 1969: 16-21). This was obviously an extremely favorable figure in order to improve the quality of the education provided, which was in direct contrast with the mainstream Greek educational system in the 50s. As regards the latter, there is no statistical data and no case studies referring to the number of students and teachers for the school year 1949-1950. There is however a lot of documented evidence, which speaks of an educational system that was inadequate in meeting the needs of its students because of the lack of teachers and the destroyed school buildings after a decade of war (Unesco, 1949: 150, 1950: 105). As regards the school year 1957-1958, data derived from the Statistical Service of Greece refers to a student-teacher ratio of 46 to 1 in primary education (National Statistic Service of Greece, 1960a: 7). In secondary education, there were 37 students per teacher in public schools and 11 students per teacher in private schools (National Statistical Service of Greece, 1960b: vii).

4. CRONYISM AND LACK OF TRANSPARENCY

At the same time, the amount of money spent on the students studying at Anavryta was completely disproportionate when compared with the poverty experienced by students in the public school system. The regular budget and the special budget (Public Investments Account) of the Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs for the school year 1961-1962 were less than 1.5 billion drachmas for primary and secondary education. As there were 920,309 pupils attending public schools, the total amount for each pupil was about 1,629 drachmas (Unesco, 1965: 105). The situation at Anavryta was totally different however. The institute’s balance sheet for the year 1960 clearly shows that a total amount of 4,001,562 drachmas had been allocated for the school’s operation (obviously, the salaries of teachers who were civil servants and were paid for by the state were excluded) (Minutes of Administrative Board Meeting of the Royal National Foundation, 25th Meeting, 18/9/1963). The total amount for each of the 180 students at Anavryta reached 22,225 drachmas, over thirteen times more than the amount allocated to each pupil in public education.

From the above, it is clear that the critical fields of education, administration and organization favored the effectiveness and quality education of Anavryta School. Its well-defined and tested pedagogical approach, the high-level specialists asked to apply it, its gifted and studious pupils capable of remarkable achievements and competition, the working conditions which resembled a laboratory, the enviable facilities and abundant funding, were all elements which potentially guaranteed the school’s success.

It is mentioned that when Kurt Hahn visited Greece in 1954, he gave a very positive view of the school’s operation, and stated that: “he was happy because he could characterize Anavryta as the best school of the Round Square group”
(Potamianos, 2000: 18). The same view seems to be shared by a large proportion of the school’s alumni -240 students had graduated by 1969 (Tsoukalas 1969: 8), and formed an active alumni association. It is also important to point out that at the turn of the turbulent years, before the imposition of the dictatorship in Greece, the then King and graduate of Anavryta made concerted efforts to apply the Anavryta model in other parts of the country (Kozani, Thessaloniki) (Macedonia, 11/8/1966 and 26/1/1967, Minutes of Administrative Board Meeting of the Royal National Foundation, 44th Meeting, 5/10/1966, & 46th, 10/2/1967), an initiative which did not materialize however, due to the political changes that occurred.

From the mid 50s onwards, the school was criticized by the opposition press and members of Parliament, who raised specific questions about the cost of the school, its sources of funding, its status, and the purported scholarships (Eleftheria, 13/9/1956). Accusations were made of squandering the money of the Greek people, as the Royal National Foundation was subsidized by the state budget and had access to a specific section of the state’s revenue (Ethnos, 25/9/1958). Furthermore, accusations of favoritism and of catering to the personal needs of Crown Prince Constantine were launched, which were fully justified.

Unlike Salem or Gordonstoun, which were fully private schools, the school at Anavryta had been funded to a large extent by the Greek people, and therefore the status of the school was not clear. In fact, at a time when extreme poverty was widespread throughout the country, the establishment of such an extravagant school could be considered an excessive luxury. There had never been any kind of public accountability regarding its financial management, and furthermore, the names of students who had been granted the Foundation’s scholarships had never been published. In actual fact, the establishment of this specific school seems to be associated with the priority given to the fact that the Crown Prince Constantine had to be educated in accordance with a tried and tested educational system, which was quite popular among the royal circles of Europe at that time. Furthermore, several references made to Anavryta School, even by its former teachers or students, characterize Anavryta as the school of the aristocrats or the illuminati.

5. EPILOGUE

From 1949 to 1969, the “National School of Anavryta” had been an educational and pedagogical project of special interest in the history of Modern Greek education. Not only as a model school but also because it applied pedagogical ideals which connected knowledge with nature, with one’s practical needs and inclinations, and with a sense of adventure, since it was a Greek school included in the group of “experiential learning” institutes (Röhrs, 1966). The school had intended to function as a cluster of excellence and to overcome the rigidities of the state educational system regarding the education for excellence and leadership. However, its

6 On the contrary, in a letter sent to the domestic press, Potamianos claimed that the Royal National Foundation had set up a model school in Anavryta “to provide education for gifted poor students, preferably war victims!” (Ethnos, 25/9/1958).
educational approach did not follow a “Greek pattern” and couldn’t even be characterized as a “conservative experiment” (Royal National Foundation, 1956: 24-25). It was an educational borrowing based on a foreign innovative educational experiment, which allegedly occurred, because it was considered appropriate for training a successor to the throne and the upper socio-economic class in impoverished Greece. In any case, the “National School of Anavryta” had been among a limited class of schools pointing toward the reproduction of the social and political elites of the Greek society via their education for leadership.

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EFL PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS’ SELF-BELIEFS AND PERCEPTIONS ABOUT TEACHING ENGLISH

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ABSTRACT
This paper describes some preliminary data from an on board research that concerns 86 Greek pre-service teachers’ beliefs and key issues involved in the teaching of English. The data were drawn with the administration of online questionnaires followed by 10 interviews. The findings indicate that native speaker oriented beliefs are entrenched only in relation to the participants’ accent. Nevertheless, they show open-mindedness towards their status as non-native teachers of English and feel rightfully entitled to teach a language that is not their mother tongue. The paper aims to contribute to the on-going research concerning pre-service teachers’ beliefs in expanding circle countries and discuss implications for pre-service teacher education programmes.

Keywords: Greek pre-service teachers, beliefs, self-beliefs, English as a lingua franca

1. INTRODUCTION
In this new era of globalization, human activities and relations are characterized by interconnectedness. The advance of technology and Internet and the global diffusion of English have transformed social relations enabling communication between different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. This global spread of the English language has shaken the equilibrium and led to the massive increase of non-native English speakers who currently exceed native speakers (Crystal 2003). The exponential growth of English makes its role as today’s lingua franca. English as a lingua franca can be thought of as “any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option” (Seidlhofer 2011: 7). Despite the strong positive and negative reactions that this evokes among scholars and decision makers, the global dissemination of English is a fact widely accepted by its supporters and detractors alike.

As English language competence is nowadays essential for participation in contemporary society, so is the need for English language teachers who are non-
native in their majority (Canagarajah 2005; Prodromou 2003). Pre-service teachers of English, who outnumber native ones (Llurda 2005; Medges 1999), are the future stakeholders in English language teaching (ELT). It becomes more than necessary to examine the way pre-service teachers perceive communication and the English language, its teaching, and the status of the non-native English language teacher.

In expanding circle countries\(^1\), teaching practices focus on structure and form, while teachers’ beliefs are in agreement with the traditional mono-lingua-cultural view of English (Sifakis & Sougari 2010). The aims and objectives of ELT need to be reassessed and sketched within new frameworks (Cogo et al. 2011; Dewey 2011; Seidlhofer 2011). To contribute to the ongoing research, this paper examines the perceptions of Greek pre-service teachers of English, focusing on exploring their self-beliefs and their self-perceived abilities to teach English in today’s globalized world.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Teachers’ beliefs

When looking into the literature of teachers’ beliefs there is a profusion of definitions. Teacher beliefs are often defined as “unconsciously held assumptions about students, classrooms and the academic material to be taught” (Kagan 1992: 65). Research supports the view that teacher beliefs play a key role as they can (a) act as a “filter through which new knowledge and experience are screened for meaning” (Zheng 2009: 74), and (b) be responsible for teachers’ adoption of new approaches in their teaching techniques and practices (Breen et al. 2001; Donaghue 2003; Sifakis 2009). As a means to keep abreast with developments in ELT, pre-service teacher education should consider teachers’ beliefs and help them be more aware of their own dispositions as well as the impact on their future teaching practices.

Previous studies on pre-service teachers’ beliefs and attitudes towards English have addressed many issues. Some studies have induced perceptions about the status English holds and have shown an overwhelming acknowledgement that English is the world’s lingua franca (Coskun 2011; Ozturk et al. 2010). As far as English language teaching is concerned, native speaker (NS) norms are prevalent in pre-service teachers’ beliefs (Coskun 2011; Ozturk et al. 2010; Drljaca & Širola 2010; Shibata 2009; Shim 2002; Uygun 2013). For instance, in a study of 102 prospective teachers of English in Turkey, Uygun (2013) found that the overwhelming majority (90%) of her participants agreed on the importance of having a NS accent themselves, though a smaller percentage (70%) agreed on that in relation to their learners’ pronunciation.

Differences were also found in their perceptions of their own accent in informal

\(^1\) According to Kachru’s (1985: 12-17) three-concentric circle model of English, the Inner circle countries (i.e. the U.S.A., the U.K.) are countries where English is spoken as the first language, the outer circle countries (i.e. India, Hong Kong) are countries where English is spoken as a second language and finally in the expanding circle countries (i.e. Brazil, Greece) English is spoken as a foreign language.
communicative situations juxtaposed with teaching situations (Uygun 2013). Furthermore, with regard to the incorporation of cultural-related issues in teaching practices, in Asian contexts there is fondness for teaching the western culture in general, focusing mainly on the American culture (Shibata 2009; Shim 2002).

When it comes to their self-beliefs, non-native pre-service teachers still consider NSTs\(^2\) as better-qualified in relation to them (Medgyes 1994; Tang 1997). Particularly, “NNSTs opt for a NS identity, as expressed in a native-like accent” (Jenkins 2005: 541). Pre-service teachers often feel like ‘impostors’ (Bernat 2008) as the ELT market values more native speakers of English as experts of a language that is their mother tongue. On the other hand, the findings of certain studies (e.g. Samimy & Brutt-Griffler 1999) demonstrate a sense of confidence and self-esteem on behalf of NNSTs. Overall, it appears that despite acknowledging the lingua franca status of English, pre-service teachers remain attached to the native speaker ideology “in which British or American norms have to be followed and native speakers are considered the ideal teachers” (Llurda 2004: 319).

Studies on in-service primary and secondary teachers’ beliefs in Greece (Sifakis & Sougari 2005, 2010; Sougari & Sifakis 2007, 2010) have shown that teaching abides to native speaker norms (McKay 2003) and display a consequential influence from their own teachers’ methods and teaching practices (Lortie 1975). More recently, though, Greek in-service teachers are more open to finding ways of using the language “as a means of understanding native and non-native cultures alike” (Sifakis 2011: 396). In the same study (Sifakis 2011), 76.5% of the participants endorse the notion of English as a language used for communication with both native and non-native speakers. In a different study (Karavas & Drossou 2010) on how Greek EFL student teachers’ beliefs are amenable to change after their teaching practice, the majority (61%) believed that it was important for their learners to develop native-like pronunciation. However, the percentage dropped to 40% at the end of their teaching practice. The researchers attributed this change in the student teachers’ beliefs in their school mentors’ non-native pronunciation, which revealed how unrealistic would be to set a native-like pronunciation as a goal for their future learners.

**2.2. The role of English in Greece**

Greece is a predominantly (99%) monolingual country. English does not hold an official status in Greece. It is taught as a foreign language from the 3\(^{rd}\) grade at primary level, though in a small number of primary schools, it has been introduced from the 1\(^{st}\) grade onwards on an experimental basis since 2010. It is the first foreign language taught in schools and in many cases the *de jure* lingua franca of the country (Sifakis 2012). In fact, the majority of the population acknowledges the utilitarian nature of the language. According to the Special Eurobarometer (386) survey on Europeans and their languages, which was carried out in spring 2012, 92%

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\(^2\) The terms ‘native speaker teachers’ and ‘non-native speaker teachers’ will henceforth be used as NSTs and NNSTs respectively.
of Greek people think that English is one of the two most useful languages for children to learn for their future (Special Eurobarometer (386) 2012: 80).

3. THE STUDY

This paper will (i) look into Greek pre-service teachers’ beliefs about the English language, (ii) explore pre-service teachers’ self-beliefs as NNSTs in an expanding circle country, and (iii) detect their beliefs about teaching the language in question. To be more specific, the concept of self-beliefs refers to the pre-service teachers’ own estimate of their capabilities to teach the English language.

3.1. Participants

The participants were 86 undergraduate students in their final year of studies, pursuing an undergraduate degree in English Language and Literature at the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, Greece. Studies at the School of English provide undergraduate students with advanced knowledge in a variety of core and specialized-elective courses taught in different areas (i.e. theoretical and applied linguistics, English and American Literature and translation and intercultural studies). Graduates become fully-fledged teachers of English in both the private and state sector.

The participants of this study were registered in the Practice in Teaching English as a Foreign Language course and as such were required to complete an 8-week internship in primary and secondary schools. Of these, 93% were female (N=80), while the rest 7% were male (N=6). They were all of Greek origin. As learners the vast majority (76%) had attended a private language school, whereas 8% had private tutorials in English and 13% had both.

3.2. Data collection and instruments

The participants were asked to complete an online questionnaire, written in English, once they had completed their eight-week internship. They indicated their answers on a five-point Likert scale (from 1: strongly agree to 5: strongly disagree) and additionally selected the most suitable answer in other items. For the purposes of the present study the sets of items that were investigated are as follows:

1. beliefs about the role of English
2. self-beliefs concerning the status of the Greek NNSTs and ELT training
3. beliefs about the teaching of English

A particular section also looked into the participants’ profile, where students provided demographic information. The questionnaire was pilot tested and the feedback received was incorporated in the final version. Only the items that relate to the purposes of the present study are presented and discussed. Upon completion of the questionnaire survey ten informal semi-structured interviews were conducted with some of the respondents to clarify or explain some parts that

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3 German comes second mentioned by 34% of Greek people
needed particular attention. The interviews were held in any language they felt most comfortable (i.e. English or Greek) and were tape-recorded.

3.3. Data analysis

The quantitative analysis of the questionnaire data pertained to the calculation of those features that were necessary for the identification of the overall pattern of the participants’ beliefs. The first set of items (i.e. beliefs about the role of English) rendered a Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of .732, whereas .627 was offered in the case of the second set (i.e. self-beliefs concerning the status of the Greek NNSTs and ELT training). As for the third set of items, the five items received a Cronbach’s alpha reliability of .603.

Regarding the interview data, the interviews were transcribed and analyzed. Some basic themes arose within those interviews and served as an additional source of information to supplement the questionnaire survey and clarify some points further. After careful examination of the data gathered, some areas of commonality or recurring patterns were traced.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Pre-service teachers’ beliefs about English

When asked to assert their level of agreement to statements concerning their beliefs about English, the bulk of participants (97%) agreed to the fact that English is an important language and also that it is the most useful foreign language (93%). This finding is in accordance with the Eurobarometer survey mentioned earlier in this paper according to which the majority of Greek people had attested the importance of knowing English for their children. 73 participants (87%) believe that it is necessary to have a global language and that English serves that function. At the same time the respondents endorse the promotion of English tuition in Greece, because English is a global language spoken all over the world (88%) (see Table 1). Greek pre-service teachers of English embrace the changing role of English as the world’s lingua franca. These findings are in agreement with similar studies (Coskun 2011; Ozturk et al. 2010). Moreover, the utilitarian nature of English is supported by a 75% of the participants according to whom English language competence promotes employability and career opportunities.

Table 1: Pre-service teachers’ beliefs about English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>To what extent do you agree with the following statements?</th>
<th>SA/A</th>
<th>NAND</th>
<th>D/SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English is an important language to know</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English is the most useful foreign language to know</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is necessary to have a global language</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is necessary to have a global language and</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
English serves that function
In Greece, tuition in English should be promoted, because English is a global language spoken all over the world
In Greece, tuition in English should be promoted in order to ensure better job opportunities

*SA/A: Strongly agree/Agree, NAND: Neither agree nor disagree, D/SD: Disagree/Strongly disagree*

4.2. Pre-service teachers’ self-beliefs

In table 2 we see that more than half of the respondents believed that they were offered the necessary background methodological and pedagogical knowledge so as to cope with the classroom reality in the primary sector. Regarding the secondary context responses were quite ambivalent. Nearly half of them agreed that they had been adequately prepared to teach English in secondary schools, while 29 respondents (34%) were not certain about that.

The majority (79%) of the pre-service teachers were confident about their competence in English. Our results indicate that Greek pre-service teachers consider themselves able to cater for their learners’ needs, a finding that contradicts previous findings (Bernat 2008). This is significant in the sense that Greek pre-service teachers of English feel empowered by their self-perceived competence and possibly more eager to adopt another perspective in their language teaching. Moreover, 67% declared their satisfaction with their pronunciation. That is in contrast with other studies (Uygun 2013) in which though the majority (68%) accepted their accent for teaching English, only 29% were found to be completely satisfied with their pronunciation.

Table 2: Pre-service teachers’ self-beliefs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>To what extent do you agree with the following statements?</th>
<th>SA/A</th>
<th>NAND</th>
<th>D/SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I think that the courses taught at the university had adequately prepared me to teach English in the primary classroom</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that the courses taught at the university had adequately prepared me to teach English in the secondary classroom</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am confident about my competence in English</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am satisfied with my English pronunciation</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When asked to describe their pronunciation in English in a subsequent open-ended question, 50% of the respondents said it sounds American, while only 12% said it is British and 22% characterized it “intelligible”. They feel content with their accent probably because they perceive it as American, which reflects an attachment to the native speaker accent as the one and only acceptable for an English teacher. The tendency towards the American accent possibly mirrors their previous tuition
and the pronunciation models they had as English language learners.

The context where these future teachers reside in should be considered as well. Obviously they are more exposed to the American culture as well as accent via the American movies that are so popular in Greece. As foreign movies are not dubbed in Greece, people are acquainted with the American accent and therefore more likely to adopt it rather than any other native English accent.

4.3. Pre-service teachers’ beliefs about teaching English

Table 3 shows that pre-service teachers’ beliefs towards the development of a native-like accent by English learners are diversified. This contrasts a clearer consensus for the development of learners’ native-like pronunciation found in a different study in Greece (Karavas & Drossou 2010). With regard to the teachers’ accent they support that it is important to have a perfect accent in English (54%) and imitate a native speakers’ accent (47%), though they did not expect the same from their English learners. Presumably, native speaker norms are fundamental for the teachers’ pronunciation, as shown previously, though not so crucial for their learners. That finding is in accordance with previous research (Sifakis & Sougari 2005; Uygun 2013), though in Uygun’s study the emphasis on native speaker norms is accepted by a greater number of participants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>To what extent do you agree with the following statements?</th>
<th>SA/A N</th>
<th>N %</th>
<th>NAND N</th>
<th>N %</th>
<th>D/SD N</th>
<th>N %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It is important for learners of English to develop a native-like accent</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The teaching focus should be on standard English grammar</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When teaching English, learners’ awareness of aspects of other cultures should be raised</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers of English should have a perfect accent in English</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is necessary for Greek teachers of English to imitate native speakers’ accent</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most of them (65%) agreed to the incorporation of other cultures in the English subject. It probably suggests that future Greek teachers of English are aware of the changing role of English as well as the repercussions that entails for the teaching of the language in question. In other words, they seem to reject the previously held belief that English teaching should be targeted for communication with NSs only. Learners should be aware of the possibilities of involving themselves in NNS-NNS interactions and as such they should be prepared for successful communication.

With regard to the teaching of Standard English grammar as the main teaching focus, the respondents were not strongly in favour of implementing such practices. It seems that the once pivotal role of grammar seems to be losing ground to an
intelligible use of language. Maybe that echoes an influence of the methodological courses offered during their undergraduate studies. However, the extent to which they put their beliefs into practice could be the scope of future research.

4.4. Interviews

As a means to illuminate the unresolved dilemma regarding pronunciation, ten interviews were conducted. While pre-service teachers were more tolerant of their learners’ non-native accent, despite the diversification of the results, they desired to maintain a standard of correctness for their own accent. Therefore, participants were asked whether and why it was important for them to speak English with a native speaker accent. The majority (49%) agreed on the importance of sounding like a NS in their own pronunciation. The reasons behind this were not clearly explained by the participants. In fact, they just stated that they “like it” and that it is “better” and “more beautiful” or smiled and said they could not explain why. However, participants elaborated more on that when asked about their previous language learning experience.

When asked about their experience as learners of English, concerning the teacher’s accent, they claimed that they had tried to imitate their NS teacher’s accent. The reasons behind this varied. For some participants it was important to sound as “more native-like as I could” because “I fancied it”. They also described the NS accent as “correct”, “natural”, “perfect” and “proper”. One participant (P2) stated “I knew that imitating my teacher’s accent...the...native speaker’s accent that would make me more comprehensible and perhaps better accepted in a conversation with native speakers. Plus, I always enjoyed the sound of the British accent”. Perhaps that reflects a prejudice that they still hold about the teachers’ non-native accent in English and the importance of being accepted by native speakers.

Another (P5) asserted that she always wanted to sound like a native speaker and added, “If you learn English, you should also try to sound like an English”. Apart from placing a particularly high value to the native speaker accent characterizing it as “perfect” and claiming that they liked how words sound, they saw this competence as necessary for another reason. To be more specific a participant’s (P7) account for that was “because foreign language acquisition involves such an imitation as well as our native language acquisition does”. That brings to the fore, Medgyes’s (1992) claim about non-native speakers’ implicit aim to sound like and be native speakers in linguistic terms and the characterization of their own English as “an imitation of some form of native use” (Medgyes 1992: 343). This assertion seems to be in line with Cook in that “it is the L2 users themselves who want to be native speakers” (Cook 1999: 196).

What emerged from the participants’ comments is a belief that a pronunciation, which is not native, stands little chance of being adopted or equally validated. While they may be tolerant of their learners’ non-native accent, as shown previously, they

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4 P stands for ‘participant’ and the numbers correspond to different interviewees.
desire to retain a standard of correctness for their own accent. Greek pre-service teachers of English regard themselves as the custodians of English (Sifakis 2008) and as such they are expected to obey the NS norms and be the right “native-like” role models for their future students.

5. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we have presented the findings from an on-going investigation concerning Greek pre-service teachers’ self-beliefs and beliefs about English and their teaching practices. The importance of the present study lies in that it gives voice to future Greek teachers of English thus assisting them to become more aware of their own perceptions. Our participants manifest their confidence about their linguistic competence and exhibit no feelings of inferiority to NSTs as they accept that they are well-equipped and qualified to teach English at all levels. Nevertheless, pronunciation remains a thorny issue as they feel obliged to espouse a native speaker accent and act as role models for their future learners.

Greek pre-service teachers are acquainted with the lingua franca role of English today and the consequences that entails for ELT. Hence, they consider the importance of implementing aspects of other cultures in their future teaching practices and focus on intelligibility rather than on accuracy and form. This finding is significant in that it shows that future English language teachers in Greece are ready for a change that would entail a shift from a traditional norm-bound teaching of English to a more-ELF aware teaching.

The challenge for teacher education programmes is to become au courant with current research on issues in question in both overseas and local contexts. Future Greek teachers of English, though aware of those issues, need to be prepared to meet the requirements of a globalized world. As a means to educate language teachers, the university curriculum ought to revise and incorporate ELF-aware courses. Those could possibly include readings about ELF-related issues (i.e. norms, intelligibility, accuracy, etc.) with particular emphasis on pronunciation issues as that seems to be a very important aspect for Greek pre-service teachers. Discussions and viewpoints exchange on specific topics could follow. Greek pre-service teachers may benefit from additional training on how to put into practice those matters in question and therefore lead the way to better outcomes for EFL learners in Greece.

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**BRIEF BIOGRAPHIES**

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ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION: WHY, WHAT, HOW AND WHEN

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ABSTRACT

Entrepreneurship should be treated as a general attitude, which could be functional not only for professional activities but also for everyday life. The key to improve young people’s perceptions and attitudes towards entrepreneurship lies in education. It is being supported that the best way to achieve entrepreneurial awareness and thinking is to introduce entrepreneurship at an early age in primary education through active learning based on children’s natural curiosity. The purpose of this paper is first to underline the importance of entrepreneurship education (why) and its contribution to the development of entrepreneurial spirit starting with young people at school. Second to consider what should be taught and how should it be taught and finally to explore the level of education it should be introduced in (when).

Keywords: entrepreneurship education, primary education, entrepreneurial spirit

1. INTRODUCTION

Entrepreneurship is an important factor for the economy, due to its effect on macro and micro economic level (Henry et al., 2003; Bruyat & Julien, 2000). Changes in the economy and labour markets have raised the profile and the significance of entrepreneurship (Minniti and Arenius, 2003). Moreover, its importance is also attributed to giving birth to new ideas, creating new enterprises and jobs, and fostering the economy in general (Hisrich and O’Cinneide, 1985).

The need for further promoting the entrepreneurial spirit has been recognized from the European Union not only as a means of creating new firms and promote business growth. But also Entrepreneurial skills have been identified as beneficial for the society beyond their use into business activity. Entrepreneurial skills are vital regardless of a person’s desire to become an employee or self-employed because they can be used in all aspects of our personal and working life (European Charter for Small Enterprises, 2001). The enhancement of entrepreneurial skills and associated behaviors provide social benefits that go beyond these skills in new business ventures.
The potential entrepreneur needs not only knowledge (science), but also new ways of thinking, new skills and new ways of behavior (arts). The traditional teaching methods include learning by doing and giving opportunities for students to act (Fiet, 2000a; Gorman et al., 1997). The entrepreneurial approach gives students the opportunity to take a new role and find their other hidden aspects, encouraging simultaneously, seeing from new perspectives (Sogunro, 2004). Moreover, it is important to know that, we may all be capable for entrepreneurial activity; all we have to do is give our self the “permission” to be free, creative and innovative. The culture of entrepreneurship among young people is necessary, not only for the enhancement of employment, growth, competitiveness and innovation but also for their everyday lives for example, at work and in various forms of participation in the society. Entrepreneurship needs to be understood in its widest sense since the personal qualities involved - creativity, initiative, responsibility, risk-taking and independence- have an importance far beyond the strictly business environment (Petridou & Sarri, 2011). During the last decade, Entrepreneurship education has become an issue of high priority on the European Union Education Policy Agenda. In light of this, various programs in all levels and types of education and especially secondary and tertiary education have been designed and introduced in most European countries. (kuratko, 2005). However, in most cases curricula interventions and related actions rely on the initiatives of schools and teachers and the support of local business communities (European Commission, 2006).

To investigate the issue of entrepreneurship education, this paper will try to look into why should “entrepreneurship” be incorporated in education, when should it be introduced, and what should be taught and how should it be taught.

The paper consists of four major parts in addition to the Introduction. In the first part, an attempt is made to clarify major definitional issues. Then, the four major questions – why, what, how and when – are presented and finally, the last part serves as a capstone for the paper and suggestions for future research.

2. DEFINITIONAL ISSUES

There is a debate on whether entrepreneurs “are made or born” (Galloway and Brown, 2002; Garavan and O’Cinneide, 1994). While a certain flair or attitude towards taking risks is required, many of the aspects of entrepreneurship can be taught (Fiet, 2000a; Hynes, 1996). And as Peter Drucker, said, “The entrepreneurial mystique? It’s not magic, it’s not mysterious, and it has nothing to do with the genes. It’s a discipline. And, like any discipline, it can be learned” (Drucker, 1985). Another support came from Gorman, Hanlon, and King, (1997), who said that “... most of the empirical studies surveyed indicated that entrepreneurship can be taught, or at least encouraged, by entrepreneurship education”. Furthermore, according to Plaschka and Welsch, (1990) the question of whether entrepreneurship can be taught is “old”. Ronstadt (1987) went further, and support that the relevant question for entrepreneurial education is, “What should be taught and how should it be taught?”. Nevertheless, there is a close relationship between learning and...
entrepreneurial achievement in which learning is the dynamic process, which enables entrepreneurial behaviour to be enacted (Rae and Carswell, 2000). The key to improve young people’s perceptions and attitudes towards entrepreneurship lies in education.

Looking back to the definition of entrepreneurship, Entrepreneurship comes from the French verb entreprendre and the German word unternehmen (Okpara and Halkias, 2011; Schaper and Volery, 2007; Sarri & Trihopoulou, 2005; Swedberg, 2000). These words mean, “to undertake” something (Okpara and Ohn, 2008). However, Schumpeter has introduced the “modern” definition of entrepreneurship in 1934, saying that, the creation of business combinations is named enterprise and individuals are the entrepreneurs.

By the time, a lot of definitions have been given for Entrepreneurship. Timmons (1994) defines entrepreneurship as a creation and value building from something that almost does not exist. According to other scholars, entrepreneurs create and follow the opportunity independently by the sources that they have (Schaper and Volery, 2007; Hisrich et al, 2006). Venkataraman (1997) supports that search of entrepreneurship aims to understand how the opportunities have been discovered and from whom and with what consequences, while Carton et al. (1998), define entrepreneurship as the opportunity for creation followed by the willingness of value creation of participants whereas, entrepreneurs are the individuals that identify the opportunity, find the appropriate resources and create the business. According to David Audretsch and Max Keilbach (2004), entrepreneurship is crucial in driving the process of selecting innovations, hence in creating diversity of knowledge, which operates as a mechanism spilling out the knowledge. Mark Casson (2005) also defines entrepreneurship as a key to the growth and survival of firms in an unstable environment, because entrepreneurial judgment is necessary for making complex decisions under uncertainty. Additionally, Minniti and Levesque (2008), support that entrepreneurship matters for individuals, organizations and countries. In a broad sense one could say that entrepreneurship is identifying opportunities and innovative ideas and transforms them into value (financial, cultural or social) for others (Sarri, 2013).

Some definitions relate entrepreneurship to education, especially educational attainment. According to Bates (1990) and Dolinsky et al. (1993) the initial entry to entrepreneurship is increased with the increasing level of educational attainment. Cowling and Taylor (2001), support that education is positively associated with the probability of self-employment, while, Borjas and Bronars (1989) suggest that self-employed are more likely to be college-educated. Moreover, it is recognize, that the entrepreneurial role can seemingly be culturally and experientially acquired, while it is also supported that it is influenced by education and training interferences (Petridou et al., 2011). And, entrepreneurship in education can contribute by creating a more entrepreneurial spirit for young people.

At this point it should be stressed that education and entrepreneurship education are not synonyms! There is a distinct difference between general education and entrepreneurship education. Education focuses in supporting the
development of knowledge and the “mind”, while entrepreneurship education focuses in human beings and their feelings, values and interests, even if they take no logical decisions (Kyrö, 2003b). OECD clearly bases its definition of entrepreneurship education on individuals’ self-development: “education for entrepreneurship is concerned with the inculcation of a range of skills and attributes, including the ability to think creatively, to work in teams, to manage risk and handle uncertainty” (OECD, 2010).

3. ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION: WHY, WHAT - HOW AND WHEN

3.1. Why

Much of the teaching in entrepreneurship deals with the “classic” understanding of the term and focuses on exploiting opportunities and stimulating the start of a new business. Surveys findings related to the effects of entrepreneurship education in the context of starting a new business are both favorable and less favorable (McNally et al., 2010; Weaver et al., 2006). Among positive findings is the enhancement of optimism (Souitaris et al., 2007; Fayolle et al., 2006; Dyer, 1994) and entrepreneurship intentions (Athayde 2009; Galloway and Brown, 2002) and a positive impact on attractiveness and feasibility of new venture initiation or on actual startup activity (Souitaris et al., 2007; Fayolle et al., 2006; Peterman and Kennedy, 2003; Tkachev and Kolvereid, 1999). Whilst among negative aspects is a lowered intention to create a start-up (Oosterbeek et al., 2010; von Graevenitz et al., 2010). Nevertheless, even these studies reported an increase in students’ self-assessed entrepreneurial skills.

Entrepreneurship education is a form of education with practical aspects, which includes community and encourages pupils and students to be active and learn about entrepreneurship and develop their entrepreneurial abilities (Young Enterprise Danmark, 2011). It is about students receiving incentives and acquiring knowledge about entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial thinking and developing their abilities to act entrepreneurially since taking action and starting something new are important features of the entrepreneur. Entrepreneurship Education refers both to the content and the pedagogical and didactic methods. In terms of content, it induces domain specific knowledge while in terms of the methods used it develops and strengthens students’ entrepreneurial behavior in a more practice oriented way by encouraging them to act, feel, and do things on the basis of acquired knowledge and experience (Fayolle and Verzat, 2009). Entrepreneurship education is a “practice-oriented” teaching. Furthermore, “pedagogy and didactics imply a high degree of involvement by the students. The pupils and students get the drive and motivation needed for the learning process, when they experience how they can use what they have learned in school in other contexts, namely when they get real assignments from someone other than the teacher in the real world outside of school” (The Danish Foundation for Entrepreneurship, 2012).

The culture of entrepreneurship among young people is appropriate for progress in the area of employment, growth and innovation and at the same time
entrepreneurship education can contribute to create a more entrepreneurial spirit in the society. According to Matlay and Carey (2006), over the last few decades, entrepreneurship education has flourished in most industrialized economies. Thus, it is expected that more and better entrepreneurship education might increase the number as well as the quality of entrepreneurs. Additionally, it might contribute to various stages of entrepreneurial activities, such as start-up activities of nascent entrepreneurs and established business ventures (Edelman et al., 2008; Matlay, 2008). Through entrepreneurship education, entrepreneurs have the opportunity to obtain valuable skills and capabilities in order to identify new entrepreneurial paths as well as to avoid various obstacles and challenges (Oviawe, 2010).

Furthermore, it provides individuals with the ability to identify business opportunities and develop their self-esteem, knowledge and skills. It also involves training in traditional business disciplines such as management, marketing, information systems and finance (Jones and English, 2004). According to Laukkonen (2000), entrepreneurial education could be considered not only as a task of producing entrepreneurially oriented individuals but also as a social mechanism which supports and promotes business growth.

As already mentioned, entrepreneurship education, as a broader concept is important not only for entrepreneurial achievements as a career opportunity but also for everyday life. Therefore, among its objectives should be personal skills’ development for young people, such as creativity, initiative, independence, ability to cope with risk and independence. Entrepreneurial skills are developed in both formal and informal framework. The objectives of entrepreneurship education are many. Some of these are:

1. Encouraging the development of personal skills, such as creativity, initiative, independence, risk taking and accountability.
2. Providing early knowledge, contact with business world, and development of understanding the role of businessmen in the community.
3. Increasing the awareness of students about self-employment as a career option.
4. Organization of learning activities through practice, such as creation of small enterprises or virtual companies by the students.
5. Providing specific training for the establishment of a new business (especially in technical or vocational schools and university level).

Consequently, it has been found that entrepreneurship graduates have more possibilities to start a new business and have stronger entrepreneurial intentions than other graduates (Rasmussen and Sorheim, 2006).

### 3.2. What – How

It is very significant to stress that teaching entrepreneurship should not be confused with teaching general principles of economics. Teaching entrepreneurship could aim both to encourage the development of certain personal skills from an early age,
which are also the basis of entrepreneurial behavior and to encourage self-employment. There may be areas where, these two could overlap. For example, when giving in primary school the basic knowledge for the function of the economy and the role of business, or when teaching business administration in higher education, entrepreneurship has to be seen as an innovative approach to teaching methods or as autonomous course, depending on the level of education (European Commission, 2004). Already in primary school, some programs successfully combine these qualities with a simple concept of business activity. At secondary level, pupils can experience entrepreneurship in practice, while at university and in technological institutions; students can be taught how to draft business plans and spot commercial opportunities.

Methods of promoting an open “attitude” towards entrepreneurship include working on projects, playing games, case studies and visits to local businesses. These activities support the motivation of students who learn better with practical activity. Especially, at later stages of primary education programs that are associated with entrepreneurship combine successfully creativity, innovation and a concept of business. Examples include selling products in school markets, creating virtual businesses, role-playing etc. An example of good practice is the "Young Inventors Competition". These programs runs in primary schools and lower secondary schools in several European countries, such as, Finland, United Kingdom, Iceland and Norway for children aged 6-16 years and aims to encourage students' creativity develop their ideas and participate in a competition.2

The presence of programs promoted by international networks and NGOs such as the network of Junior Achievement-Young Enterprise in Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania, Czech Republic and Hungary are by far the most important activities related to entrepreneurship in primary education. In Greece, there is almost no central planned action by educational authorities at the moment, but there are schemes introduced in primary schools by universities as part of related research projects such as the University of Western Macedonia.

In some European Countries, the practical experience of entrepreneurship has been set in the form of structured courses. For example in Ireland, within the curricula, «Transition Year», «Leaving Certificate Vocational Programme» and «Leaving Certificate Applied» give students the opportunity to learn about entrepreneurship in practice. In Luxembourg, the program for 6th grade (pupils aged 11/12 years) of Francophone education includes a section dedicated to the creation of a business, based on the animated film «Boule et Bill créent une entreprise» used in all primary schools. The cartoon is also used in the mathematics program for basic financial analysis (European Commission, 2006).

Furthermore, in Germany, there is the “dual system”, in which training takes place at school, in a firm, and in the final stage, and young people are taught how to establish their business. In Finland, in 2002 has been established a steering committee for entrepreneurship, to develop and coordinate entrepreneurship at

2 In COM 33 Final (European Commission, 2006)
different levels of education, with members of different ministries, organizations and educational institutions. In Norway, the “Young Enterprise Norway” is a partner of the Government for entrepreneurship education. Due to their contribution in 2004, 14% of all students leaving upper secondary school had participated in the “Student Company Program”. The objective of this intervention was to help students develop a real economic activity on a small scale, or to simulate the way that companies work in a realistic way through mini-companies that they run at school. They also learned how to work in groups and developed their confidence. It is estimated that each year more than 200,000 students participate in these programs in the EU 25 and Norway.

In universities, the training in entrepreneurship provides specific preparation on how to start and run a business, encouraging students’ business ideas. For example, at the University of Macedonia in Greece students who have chosen entrepreneurship courses are expected to formulate their innovative business ideas and prepare a feasible study acting as potential entrepreneurs. These help students to develop skills and competences required in the process for creating business start-ups, and influence their general attitudes towards a useful and respectable career prospect positively (Collins et al., 2004; Kolvereid and Moen, 1997).

Moreover, to further encourage entrepreneurial behavior, a supportive environment fostering entrepreneurship is needed. Business plan competitions are an effective way to bring students in contact with investors whilst incubators and Science Parks are some other important actors as well as the support and creation of spin-offs, aiming to stimulate the local economic development. The projection of role models is also very important (European Commission, 2006).

Furthermore, the introduction of various modules and courses in universities regarding social, leadership, negotiation and solving-problem skills, critical thinking and time-management capabilities might be beneficial for students in order to develop their business as well as their personal skills (Rae, 1997)\(^3\).

Although, teaching entrepreneurship is feasible generally, is neither considered, nor promoted. There are many obstacles that hinder the development of entrepreneurship education, such as the lack of teaching materials, specific training for the teachers as well as unawareness of its importance (Gustafsson-Pesonen and Remes, 2012). Additionally, entrepreneurship education programs are called to deal with low spirit of competition, poor enterprising culture, lack of financial resources (Oviawe, 2010). Therefore, the change of the national curriculum to embed entrepreneurship is not the main problem for most countries. Priority should be given to providing incentives and training for teachers, because they are, the “machine”. The above should be empowered by the adoption of additional support measures in order to encourage educational institutions to engage in activities related to entrepreneurship such as the funding of pilot projects, connections between schools and business, teaching material and the supporting of networks and NGOs.\(^4\)

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3 In Matlay (2008)
3.3. When

Given the importance of entrepreneurship in everyday life as well as in its economic dimension and the fact that it can be taught, it is being supported that entrepreneurship should be introduced into education systems in the early school years. This is the best time for the skills that lead to better management of every individual’s life, and the foundations to be developed. This view is also shared by the European Union, which identifies primary education as the starting point for introducing entrepreneurship education.

At the primary level, the support of creativity and the spirit of adoption initiatives help the development of entrepreneurial attitudes. The best way to achieve it is through active learning, based on children’s natural curiosity. In addition, the better knowledge of society must include the early knowledge and contact with the world of work and business, and the understanding of the role that entrepreneurs play in the community. Some programs successfully combine these qualities with a simple concept of business activity. Also, in some Member States, curricula encourage schools to “drive” children towards taking initiatives and responsibilities. However, there are not many examples of specific training on entrepreneurship. The programs imposed by authorities on education, are rare in primary education and often the stakeholders are “external”, such as, non-profit organizations (NGO’s) supported by private sector. At secondary level, pupils can experience entrepreneurship in practice, while, at university, students can be taught how to draft business plans and spot commercial opportunities.

With regard to the secondary level, education should raise students’ awareness of self-employment and help them consider entrepreneurship as an option in their future career. Furthermore, entrepreneurial attitudes and relevant skills should be promoted through learning in practice; that is through acquiring practical experience on entrepreneurial issue, with specific projects and activities. At this point, it is worth mentioning that entrepreneurship education in this educational level is particularly important and more spread in Europe.

There are countries that have revised, or are revising, their national curriculum in order to identify and enhance entrepreneurial competences. Although only in a few cases, reforms were on different levels and types of education, there are positive examples worth highlighting. For example, in Poland the course "Basics of Enterprise" is obligatory in all schools of general secondary and vocational education. Learning objectives include the development of entrepreneurial attitudes and learning of how to start a business. On the other hand, in Austria entrepreneurship is part of the curriculum of technical and vocational secondary education, in the form of managing a “fake” firm from the pupils (European Commission, 2006).

Still, in most European countries, curricula have broad objectives and include courses that allow learning about the entrepreneurship (for example, social and economic studies, geography, etc.). However, the implementation relies on the

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5 In COM 33 Final (European Commission, 2006)
initiative of schools and teachers and the support of the local business community whilst the entrepreneurship programs developed are mostly offered as extracurricular activities, for both primary and secondary education.\(^6\)

Nevertheless, it is being supported that the curricula of secondary schools do not provide adequate incentives for teachers to develop entrepreneurship education. For this reason, public authorities and policy makers should promote entrepreneurship education among schools and teachers.\(^7\)

With regard to entrepreneurship education in higher education institutes, it is important to underline, that the entrepreneurship chairs in universities in Europe, are less than one quarter of the ones in the United States. At the same time, entrepreneurship education is mostly offered to students in economic and business studies whilst it remains primarily an elective course. Assumed the importance of entrepreneurship education, universities and technical institutes should incorporate entrepreneurship in distinct courses as an important element of curriculum, and encourage students to take these courses. Moreover, the combination of entrepreneurial attitudes and skills with scientific and technical studies will give students the ability to commercialize their ideas.

Additionally, in some countries such as Greece, where current efforts focus mainly on higher education level (universities), through training on how to create a business, the awareness about the importance of teaching entrepreneurship at lower educational levels should be strengthened.\(^8\) This can be developed through teaching from primary education using more active learning instead of simply absorbing knowledge. Education has long-term prospects, because students of primary and secondary schools will be active citizens, and some of these entrepreneurs in future.

4. EPILOGUE

Entrepreneurship constitutes a critical factor for economic growth, innovation job and wealth creation. It concerns individuals, organizations and countries, as it is important not only for entrepreneurial achievements as a career path but also for everyday life. In order to further promote entrepreneurial behaviors, policy makers in Europe and the United States argue that higher levels of entrepreneurship can be reached through education, and more specifically entrepreneurship education (European Commission, 2006).

Entrepreneurship education is different from education itself since it forms a “practice-oriented teaching” which encourages young people (pupils and students) to acquire knowledge about entrepreneurship and develop their entrepreneurial skills and attributes. Through this learning process, pupils and students experience are introduced real world with a hands on approach.

In recent years, there has been a growing interest in entrepreneurship and

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\(^{6}\) In Final Report of the expert group (European Commission, 2004)

\(^{7}\) In COM 33 Final (European Commission, 2006)

\(^{8}\) In Final Report of the expert group (European Commission, 2004)
entrepreneurship education, especially in higher education, as an increasing number of entrepreneurship courses and seminars are offered (Henry et al., 2003; Katz, 2003; Solomon et al., 2002; Klofsten, 2000; Vesper and Gartner, 1997).

Moreover, it is argued that in primary as well as secondary level of education the implementation of entrepreneurship programs is mostly associated with the development of pupils’ entrepreneurial spirit though learning in practice. Educational programs seem to play an important role for the development of entrepreneurship education in these levels of education worldwide, especially in European countries.

However, many obstacles have been identified, such as the insufficiency of teaching materials, lack of teachers, poor societal and entrepreneurial culture, and limited financial resources.

The present study provided insight into the role of entrepreneurship education for individuals and society, giving answers to four main questions; why should entrepreneurship be incorporated in education, what should be taught and how should it be taught, and when should it be introduced (level of education).

Furthermore, an attempt was made to discuss through literature the definition of entrepreneurship education and whether it is feasible to be implemented in each level of education separately. According to recent studies, entrepreneurship education has a vital role to all levels of education, as it is important not only to students in universities and technological institutions but also to pupils in secondary and primary education level since it contributes to the development of skills such as creativity, innovation, initiative, responsibility, ability to cope with risk and independence through learning in practice.

However, entrepreneurship education is an emerging concept as the majority of empirical studies does not apply to all levels of education. Instead, they have been mainly emphasized on the university level of education.

The paper serve as an introductory attempt to the debate about the significance of entrepreneurship education and its central role to the development of young people’s entrepreneurial attitudes and skills at all levels of education. Literature review revealed that the impact of entrepreneurship education is an arena that lacks systematic examination. Therefore it is suggested that this concept needs further theoretical as well as empirical development.

A suggestion for future research is the investigation regarding the impact of entrepreneurship education on the development of entrepreneurial characteristics to all levels of education as well as on entrepreneurial outcomes related to self-employment and the development of individual skills and capabilities. Finally, a supportive environment fostering entrepreneurship education is required for the benefit of current and future entrepreneurs. Hence, it is proposed that despite the existing challenges, investment in the development of entrepreneurship education, and more specifically in primary level of education, might deliver positive outcomes in the long-term.
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INTERNATIONALIZATION OF PEDAGOGICAL THEORY AND THE REFLECTIONS ON THE GREEK CASE, 1830-1930

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ABSTRACT

In Greece, the Pedagogy as a theory and as a science, from 1830 until to 1930, is affected to the degree that the Greek students, the educators or the teachers were trained at French, German and other European universities and, after their returning to Greece, were applying those theories in the framework of educational policy as well as in teaching. This paper aims to investigate these influences on Pedagogical theory and science in Greece into the wider framework of the internationalization of pedagogical theory during the 19th and at the beginning of the 20th century. Whenever necessary, the examples derive from the arguments about the ‘child’ and ‘childhood’.

Keywords: pedagogical theory; childhood; Herbartian Pedagogy; New Education movement; Modern Greek educators

1. INTRODUCTION

This paper aims to present the influences on pedagogical theory in Greece during the 19th and early 20th century and to place those influences in the broader context of the internationalization of pedagogical theory. Whenever necessary, this paper focuses on the way that ‘child’ is considered by the Greek educators and, consequently, what affect it has on making the objectives of education and teaching methods. The present paper is following the issue over time and is based on historical - hermeneutics method.

2. THE DOMINATION OF HERBART’S AND FRÖBEL’S PERSPECTIVES IN GREECE IN THE 19TH CENTURY

The Pedagogy, as a theory and as a science in Greece from 1830 until to 1930 is affected to the degree that the Greek students were trained, mainly, in French or German universities and, after their returning to Greece, were applying those theories at the level of educational policy or at the level of educational practice.

During the 19th century in Modern Greek pedagogical thought, the ‘child’ is presented in Pedagogic Handbooks as wax, clay, marble or a sponge, a fact which affects the aims and the methods of teaching (Ziogou, Foukas, Chatzimpe, 2010).
Meanwhile, the views of Rousseau\(^1\) and Basedow\(^2\) undergo criticism and are viewed with some suspicion. However, the pedagogues who emphasize and re-signify the term ‘childhood’, thus creating new pedagogic trends, are not completely absent at this time. In 1802, Joachim Heinrich Campe’s book titled *Morality of Children or Moral Discussions for Children* translated from French by Spyridon Destounis is published in Greece. In this book the translator, addressing the reader, highlights the importance of reading in the moral education of children and stresses that the most appropriate time for the molding of the spirit and the cultivation of the mind is childhood. Neofytos Doukas, in *Children’s Depository* (1814), notes that books are the means of improving the relationships between children, as well as a way to educate and entertain. Dimitrios Darvares, in his book *First Experience in Simplified Greek for Little Children* (1818), an extra-curricular recreational and educational book for young children, expresses his disagreement with the anti-educational books that are published at this time (Darvares, 1881: vi-xii).

Kostantinos Koumas, despite citing J. J. Rousseau’s *Emile* among other sources in the introduction of his book *Syntagma Philosophias* [Constitution of Philosophy] (1820), does not appear to have been influenced by it in any great or explicit way. Koumas relies on German influences, according to which Pedagogy is approached as a self-contained science, according to the terms of the era. In this context, Pedagogy now constitutes a distinct discipline of Philosophy. Further, the individual categories are recorded, the functions of nurturing and education are clearly distinguished and the object of study as well as the teaching methodology becomes systematic. Koumas’s Pedagogy is based on a naturalistic ethical argument, which concludes that a science which will cultivate the sum of all spiritual faculties of human beings – that is, mental, emotional and physical faculties which are necessary for the attainment of these goals – is necessary, and that this science can be none other than Pedagogy. Koumas defines pedagogy as a science of principles and rules which are addressed to the child and aim to mold the child’s mentality and spirituality in such a way so as to create “virtuous” people and “virtuous” citizens (Koumas, 1820: 297-298).

It thus becomes clear that Pedagogical theory in the newly-established Greek state, in the beginning of the 19th century, focuses primarily on the profile and the role of Primary School teachers and, secondarily, from 1877 onwards, on Secondary School teachers. In Greek Primary School education from 1830, the monitorial method, which is transferred from its French version by pedagogue Ioannis Kokkonis through a translation of his teacher’s works (Charles Sarazin), is dominant. Kokkonis’s role is decisive in the organization and form of Greek Primary School Education up until the middle of the 19th century (Tzikas, 1999). Thus, in the first

\(^1\) J. J. Rousseau (1712-1778) declares the child’s autonomy and believes in *Emile* that from the age of two the child needs education and knowledge. Its initial education, however, according to Rousseau, should be negative. This consists of teaching neither the good nor the true, but in order to protect the child’s heart from bad habits and its spirit from mistakes (Kitromilides, 2004\(^5\): 122-123).

\(^2\) J. B. Basedow (1723-1790) is the main supporter of the Philanthropists movement in Germany, affected by Rousseau’s work. (Reble, 2002\(^5\): 242-243; Kitromilides, op. cit., 111-112).
years of independence of the Greek state, the instilling of ethics in people and, by implication, in society, constitutes a dominant element of pedagogical theory and the role of the teacher is multifaceted and crucial. In this context, education, since it relies on the monitorial method, takes on a strictly penal character. It begins with the careful monitoring of students and, after a series of punishments, can reach their public humiliation (Demaras, 1973: 19-20). To this we should add a series of punishments involving the hanging of signs on the neck, which is anticipated by the Guide to the Monitorial Method by Ch. Sarazin. The student is obligated to follow his teacher’s orders closely and through these orders it becomes clear that the child is viewed as a ‘little adult’ and is expected to act as such by both the teacher and the state. Anything that befits the individual character and mentality of children is forbidden. A typical example is play, which is viewed as an almost forbidden activity for the pupil (Kokkonis, 1960: 292). Every action of the child is watched closely by the teacher, as opposed to what Rousseau argues. The account of pedagogue Grigorios Pappadopoulos is illuminating in Practical Pedagogic Instructions addressed towards teachers in 1866, he notes that all student movement must be orderly and the students must never be without teacher supervision (Pappadopoulos, 1866: 42-43).

The first pedagogical journal entitled Pedagogos [Pedagogue] and published in the newly-established Greek state in 1839 by Kokkonis, is in the same vein. In this journal, the fact that Rousseau’s and Basedow’s pedagogy are detailed and promising is emphasized, as well as that this pedagogy cannot train future citizens (Pedagogos [Pedagogue], 1839: 76; Tzikas, 1999). These particular education policies are criticized, of course, by some pedagogues, with little effect. Neofytos Vamvas’s view is enlightening; he highlights that teachers, rather than behaving in a sweet and humble manner towards their students, act like tyrants. Indeed, he criticizes teachers, arguing that by following such pedagogic methods, students are made to hate both learning and teachers themselves (Demaras, 1973: 9).

In 1873, pedagogue Konstantinos Xanthopoulos underlines that pedagogical teaching aims towards the perfection of human beings, thus identifying the term ‘child’ with the term ‘human being’. The aim of Pedagogy, according to Xanthopoulos, is to introduce the notions of virtue, justice, decency and duty into the students’ consciousness. Through the Xanthopoulos work, the notion of love in the pedagogical relationship between teacher and student is introduced in Greek education in the last quarter of the 19th century. Influenced, perhaps, by Pestalozzi, the exemplary “pedagogue of love”, Xanthopoulos notes that the teacher should not dominate but mold, should not order but guide, should not punish but aim to improve, should not seek revenge but love (Xanthopoulos, 1873: 9).

Meanwhile, from 1837 in the Normal School of Athens – a school which trains teachers – German Pedagogy is taught. Georgios Pagon translates and teaches the pedagogic work of D. A. H. Niemeyer, Axioms of Education and Teaching, which was published in 1796 for the first time. Influenced by Niemeyer and Fichte, he attempts to turn theory into practice and in this effort, self-action constitutes a dominant
During the last quarter of the 19th century, the influence of German Pedagogy, and mainly of Herbart and his students, T. Ziller, K. Stoy and W. Rein, on Greek Pedagogical thought are strong in Primary as well as Secondary Education, either through translations of German Pedagogy texts and through the creation of original essays influenced by German Pedagogy or in education practice, influenced by Herbart’s stages of teaching. The Association for the Propagation of the Greek Language proves conducive towards this direction, since, from 1871, the Association sends graduates of the Faculty of Philosophy of Athens to Göttingen, to Leipzig and to Jena for further pedagogical studies, on scholarship. These recipients of scholarships are obligated, upon their return to Greece, to undertake the direction of a Normal School and impart the new pedagogical principles and methods. In 1880 the monitorial method is officially abolished by law and is replaced by the Herbartian method of teaching (Kyprianos, 2004: 336; Foukas, 2005: 63-72; Demaras, 2013: 62-63).

In Greek Secondary and Higher Education, Herbartian ideas initially become known through philosophy professor Christos Papadopoulos, who translates General Pedagogy [Allgemein Pedagogy in German], in which the pedagogical principles of Herbart are presented, by G. A. Lindner, professor at Prague University. Papadopoulos, influenced by Herbartian Pedagogy, notes that the most important aspect of education is the malleable nature of the student’s mind. The ‘child’ is treated as susceptible to external influence and is likened to clay, which takes any form it is given. He does however add a modifier: The form the child can take from childhood is directly dependent on its natural predispositions (Papadopoulos, 1892^2: 3). It is within these limits that Papadopoulos locates the sensitive and particularly important role of education (Papadopoulos, 1892^2: 4). However, he does not refrain from addressing child punishment measures, which the teacher must take since the nature of the child is inclined towards destruction (Papadopoulos, 1892^2: 105-106).

In time, the Herbartian orientation of Pedagogy, through the translation of relevant works as well as their application in education practice, is diffused and prevails with its major proponents being pedagogues Dimitrios Zaggogiannis, Dimitrios Georgakakis, Nikolaos Kapetanakis, Dimitrios Lampsas, and, mainly in the 20th century, professor of Pedagogy of the School of Philosophy of Athens, Nikolaos Exarhopoulos (Foukas, 2005).

I should note here that in the Pre-school education, Pestalozzi’s student, Fröbel, plays significant role in its pedagogical establishment and propagation in Greece. Fröbel’s ideas become known in Greece after 1860. Particularly, an important factor for the diffusion of the Fröbelian method within the Greek space is the pedagogical and teaching work of Aikaterini Laskaridou (Ziogou, 1986: 177-178; Charitos, 1998: 168-180; Ziogou & Chatzistefanidou, 2009: 207-250; Betsas, 2010: 251-265), who, from 1880, through lectures, articles and practical application in her girl’s school, commits herself to the propagation of the Fröbelian method (Kyprianos, 2007: 81). During this period of time, in 1865, the Filekpaideftiki Etaireia [Learned Society]
sends Ifigenia Dimitriadou to Paris to study the operating practices of French asylums (salles d’asile). Upon her return, she translates Marie Pape-Carpantier’s method and introduces it in the Nursery Schools of *Filekpaideftiki Etaireia* (Ziogou, 1986: 176; Kyprianos, 2007: 78).

Studying the pedagogical texts of the 19th century, I observe that two dominant trends take form:

a. A conceptual identification between the terms ‘child’ and ‘person’. The child is treated by pedagogues in the 19th century as a ‘little adult’. Herbart’s proponents emphatically stress Rousseau’s fallacy with respect to the specific nature of the child and attempt to justify their identification between child and adult on a theoretical level as well. Adult characteristics are attributed to the image of the “good student”. The good student is tidy, respectable, courteous, disciplined. And a good teacher is one who can control his students and impose discipline in the classroom through punishments and other penal measures (Pantazides, 1879: 214-265). It is within this framework that Pedagogical theory and educational practice unfold.

b. From the second half of the 19th century, I observe a turn towards the education of children through the establishment of Nursery Schools, the training of their teachers, the designation of moral models for children and young people and the outlining of a specific social organization. With respect to this parameter, an especially important factor is the publication of the first children’s journals3, and particularly that of the magazine *Diaplasis ton paidon* [Children’s Edification] from 1879 until to 1948, the most long-lived children’s journal in Greece. Amongst the journal’s associates, key figures are pedagogue Aristotle Kourtides until 1894 and writer and literary author Gregorios Xenopoulos until 1948. The pedagogical aspect of the journal is found in the designation of moral models and the outlining of a specific social organization (Patsiou, 1986: 517-522; Katsiki-Givalou, 1995: 17).

3. THE “NEW EDUCATION” MOVEMENT AND THE INFLUENCES ON GREEK CASE AT THE BEGINNING OF THE 20TH CENTURY

In the beginning of the 20th century, the science of Pedagogy places emphasis on the child, which now constitutes the center of attention as well as the starting point of education. Familial education is given special attention, which connects pedagogical theory and educational practice with the views of Pestalozzi, Key and Montessori. In Preschool education the Fröbelian method is questioned and

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3 During the 19th century the following children’s journals are published in Greece: *Paidiki Apothiki* [Children’s Depository] (1836), *Filostorgos Mitir* [Loving Mother] (1862-1866), *I Efimeris ton paidon* [The Newspaper of Children] (1868-1893), *Athinais* [Athenian] (1876-1882), *Periodiko ton Mathiton* [Student’s Magazine] (1891, 8 issues), *Paidiki Efimeris* [Children’s Newspaper] (1896, 2 issues). The contents of these magazines and journals, supplementary to the school curriculum, deals with mythology, history, physics, religion and encyclopedic knowledge, and they reflect the general attitude of the time in regards to education, which is briefly stated in the magazine *Diaplasis ton paidon* [Children’s Edification]: “entertain as well as teach”.

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Montessori’s method begins to prevail. The likening of the child as a “plant” which grows presupposes the appearance and propagation of new pedagogic notions.

The dominance of Herbart’s pedagogical views lasts for roughly fifty years in Greece and starts to be questioned in the first decades of the 20th century by Greek Pedagogues, who, again, study in Germany (Alexandros Delmouzos, Dimitrios Glinos, Miltos Kountouras, Michalis Papamavros) (Kontomitros, 2006). Herbart’s ideas have, of course, been questioned and abandoned long ago in Anglo-Saxon and Germanic countries. In Greece, however, developments exhibit certain “inertia”; thus, while Herbartianism was being criticized and abandoned in its cradle, Nikolaos Exarchopoulos continues to teach with the Herbart’s method (Demaras, 2013).

Exarchopoulos, the only professor of Pedagogy in Greece in the beginning of the 20th century, had studied beside W. Rein in Jena, W. Wundt in Leipzig, and Fr. Guex in Lausanne. In 1923, he establishes a “Workshop of Experimental Pedagogy” at Athens University, influenced by German pedagogues, E. Meumann and W. A. Lay. In this Workshop he places emphasis on pedologic research, conducts body measurements, examines the anatomic physiology of children and introduces intelligence testing in Greece. The aim of the education, according to Exarchopoulos, is to contribute to the progress of culture and the ethical progress of society (Antoniou, 2011: 143-145). In order to achieve these aims, the teachers must mold the child’s will and refine the child’s personality. The ‘child’ is now viewed not just as soul, but as body as well. Thus, Experimental Pedagogy and the Psychology of the child are emphasized (Ziogou, Foukas, Chatzimpei, 2010).

Meanwhile, however, the liberal views of the so-called “Laboratory School” or “New Education” begin to appear. These views are initially adopted in Greece by a small group of pedagogues and teachers, the demotics -those in favour of the use of the spoken, everyday Greek language becoming the official state language (Terzis, 2013: 282-293). In the first decades of the 20th century the contact, as well as, the dependency of Greek Pedagogy from the Germanic countries continues, given that a large number of Greeks studies beside German professors. The ideas of E. Spranger, G. Kerschensteiner, P. Natorp and H. Lietz spread through their students in Greece and create a new orientation in Pedagogy (Kontomitros, 2006).

These ideas however, are neither created nor adopted in a sudden or random manner. At a theoretical level, the development of the science of Psychology, and particularly, Child Psychology, propels these ideas forward. The notion of the human soul is replaced by the notion of the soul of the child. Psychology is considered a necessary supplementary science for Pedagogy (Hofstetter & Schneuwly, 2005: 73-99). The developments brought on by Charles Robert Darwin’s theory signal a widespread interest for the child, in conjunction with Emile Durkheim’s socialization theory, the developmental theories of Jean Piaget and Lev Vygotsky, and Sigmund Freud’s theory of psychoanalysis (Kyprianos, 1997: 99). In 1920, Papamavrou, in an

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4 We indicatively mention Alexandros Delmouzos, Dimitris Glinos, Miltos Kountouras and Michalis Papamavros, whose contribution was significant to the diffusion of the ideas of ‘New Education’ movement in Greece.
article in the journal Pedologia [Pedology]⁵, argues that

...It is mainly within two worlds in Pedagogy that its contents are exhausted: the culture of the society into which the child must be introduced and the child itself, which must be molded for this aim... (Pedologia, [Pedology], 1920: 28).

Within this context, the pioneers of the education reform of 1917-1920 in Greece, publish two new school books and transcribe or edit another eleven, in which the focus is the child and his/her interests. The school atmosphere now becomes saturated with images of everyday life, with a radically different – compared to the past– process of instruction and learning, and with a child-centric pedagogic relationship (Terzis, 2013²: 310; Demaras, 2013: 156-161). All this discussion culminates in 1923, when Dimitrios Glinos, philosopher and pedagogue, argues that the correct simile for education is no longer the potter, who gives form to clay, nor the sculptor, who carves the image in his mind on marble. The child is rather a “plant” which will grow and blossom and contains within himself/herself his future power. Within the child there is the fundamental potential, the general force and the main directions for his/her development (Glinos, 1971).

Alexandros Delmouzos, professor of Pedagogy at the Faculty of Philosophy of the University of Thessaloniki from 1928, includes a unit relating to the psychology of the child, his/her spiritual development, physical growth and interest in learning, in his teaching. He further includes pages from John Dewey’s book, Laboratory School, which is translated into Greek by Kostas Sotiriou, in his course’s required reading (Foukas, 2010: 265-289). These views, however, do not prevail, since the traditional ideological structure of the Modern Greek society resists innovations (Terzis, 1993: 56-59).

In the first decades of the 20th century the emphasis given by the Greek government to issues of school hygiene contributes to the study of Pedologia [Pedology] and its development as an independent science. Child mortality, which in Greece in 1920 reaches 10.6% for children aged 6 to 10 and 6.7% for children aged 10 to 15, is due mainly to the ignorance of parents about the importance of hygiene in the feeding and care of babies. For this reason the state makes provision for the establishment school doctors and emphasis is placed on the hygiene of both students and schools (Theodorou & Karakatsani, 2002; Theodorou & Karakatsani, 2010). Despite the initial fears and doubts of teachers, the school doctor becomes their basic co-worker and assistant and contributes to the child’s physical and mental development (Ziogou, Foukas, Chatzimpei, 2010). On 1920 the Greek Pedologic Association is established. Among the members of the association’s board of directors there are some well known Greek educators. President of the association is the professor of pediatrics, Chr. Malandrinos who notes after his

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⁵ The influence, even in the title, of the journal from a similar journal published in England in 1889 is obvious. The publisher of the Greek journal in the first issue refers to the efforts made in Europe, America and Japan (April 1920).
election:

...The child needs a lot of attention. The child is the father of the human being and we must study it, take care of it and protect it...
(Pedologia, [Pedology], 1920: 72-73).

4. CONCLUSION

Pedagogy in Greece for a long time intended to cover practical purposes. Most Pedagogical Handbooks titled General Pedagogy and Teaching. Pedagogy as a science begins to acquire prestige in Greece during the last decades of the 19th century (1899), when established chair of Pedagogy in Faculty of Philosophy at the University of Athens.

At the level of pedagogical theory: During the 19th century, the views of Rousseau and Basedow are viewed with suspicion since they do not cater, to a satisfactory degree, to the practical needs that emerge in the newly-established Greek state. The views of Pestalozzi find a partial application during the first years of freedom of the Modern Greek state, mainly, that is, during the Kapodistrian era (Mavroskoufis, 1996: 141). From the period of the Regency up until the final quarter of the 19th century, the influence of Frenchman Ch. Sarazin’s monitorial method is clear. From the end of the 19th century, German Pedagogy and, mainly, the views of German Pedagogue Herbart and his students’, assume a predominant position in Greek pedagogical theory. In the beginning of the 20th century, Modern Greek pedagogical thought is influenced by the principles of the “New Education” movement and of the “Laboratory School”, a movement which positions the student at the center of the education process, is interested in his/her interests and aims towards his/her development and evolution based on his/her personal experiences.

At the level of educational practice: During the 19th century there is a liberty of pedagogical measures. ‘Child’ is still treated as a “little adult”, which confirms the plethora of penalties imposed on students of the Greek educational system (see i.e. The Guide of Monitorial System). The publication of many ministerial circulars for the prohibition of corporal punishments (1848, 1854, 1867, 1884) expresses this reality (Lefas, 1942: 162-164). The school memories of students of the time, which are published in the printed media of the time, are illuminating. A single indicative example from an 1899 student’s description follows;

...The teachers...having learned a few things, which they were called upon to impart, they imparted them as best they could, according to their degree of ability, always reinforced with the help of the stick, the ruler, and hardly rarely, the whip...Punishment prevailed in that education system. Above all, punishment... For this reason, all punishments had a spectacular component. All punishments, even if it was not always their direct aim, always resulted in the student’s humiliation...
(Ethniki Agogi [National Training], 1899: 129).

The ideas of the “New Education” movement will have to become diffused, before we can pass from child punishment to the ideology of rewards and
punishments.

Since the early 20th century Modern Greek pedagogical thought, along with the J. F. Herbart’s pedagogical theory, which still taught and diffused in Greek education, particularly through the professors of the University of Athens, is influenced by the principles of New Education’s movement, which locates the student at the center of the educational process, emphasizes on the interests and the aims in the development and evolution and finally based on his/her personal experiences. The 'child', therefore, viewed by educators as a vehicle for action and 'childhood' as a distinct phase of life.

Concluding, the different treatment of the 'child' affects on his/her education. Thus, the main characteristics of the child, as they are put forth by pedagogical theory, can be outlined in two main categories: on the one hand, the child is characterized by an ethical inexperience, a malleable character, innocence, weakness, and, on the other, by spontaneity, curiosity, joy and movement. Both these categories affect the process of education: The pedagogues of the first group view the child as an object of care and tenderness and believe that the interpersonal relations between parents and children, as well as teacher and student, should be defined by tenderness, though mainly by ethical punishment. On the other hand, the pedagogues of the second group argue that the child is his/her own teacher. In this context, the teacher simply provides the proper environment which will motivate the child’s curiosity and appetite for exploration. The child reacts actively and his/her needs are approached and satisfied based on the present.

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PRIMARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS’ AND VICE-PRINCIPALS’ PERCEPTIONS OF COMPETENCE IN COMMON ADMINISTRATIVE ROLES: AN EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS FOR IDENTIFYING SUB-SCALES OF A QUESTIONNAIRE

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ABSTRACT

Objective: In education, the notion of competence has become central during the last four decades. The existing competence questionnaires for school principals are extremely limited. Despite the small number of available questionnaires, the particular one used by Kelly Glodt in Kansas in the USA in 2006 in order to determine the school principals’ perceived competence level in common administrative roles is considered a convenient, adequate and valid instrument. The aim of this study is to conduct an Exploratory Factor Analysis to the previously adapted, validated and applied Greek version of this questionnaire in order to identify a certain amount of sub-scales concerning the perceived competence level of elementary school principals and vice-principals in common administrative roles.

Rationale of the study: The identification of a certain amount of sub-scales could facilitate our future effort to extract findings regarding the comparison between the perceived competence level of elementary school principals and vice-principals in common administrative roles and some of their personality traits. The factors that will come up may result in outlining and preparing a full programme of professional...
Methodology: During the preliminary analysis, we examine the correlations among items, the factorability of the particular dataset via the Bartlett’s test of sphericity and the sampling adequacy on the basis of the Kaiser – Meyer – Olkin (KMO) measure. We perform an exploratory factor analysis by applying Principal Component Analysis with Varimax rotation in order to rotate the factor solution to a more interpretable structure.

Results: The preliminary analysis shows that all items correlate significantly with all others (p<0.001) and none of the correlation coefficients are particularly large (more than 0.9); the values of the correlation coefficients range from 0.541 to 0.781. The procedure of the statistical analysis leads to the selection of a five-factor model with overall explained variance equal to 63%. During the procedure of extracting factors, there are eight items that are deleted. The communalities of the remaining items range from 0.516 to 0.811 with a mean of 0.63 and a standard deviation of 0.075. The reliability analysis shows that all factors are reliable, since the Cronbach’s Alpha is above 0.70 for all factors. Finally, the correlations between each item and the total score of the corresponding factor range from 0.569 to 0.824.

Conclusions – Discussion: We conduct an Exploratory Factor Analysis on the Greek version of the Principals’ Perception of Competence Survey (PPCS) questionnaire to identify any possible sub-scales. The study revealed that a five-factor model is proposed so that it can be used in order to compare this questionnaire with some others in the future.

Keywords: Competences, primary school principals/vice-principals, exploratory factor analysis

1. INTRODUCTION

Human beings crave competence. Everyone wants to do well (Dean & Paterson 2010: 31). The assumption of competence, however, requires that leaders see each individual as capable of near maximum performance with minimum supervision (McAndrew 2005: 94). In education, the notion of competence has become central these last four decades, since education specialists have emphasised the importance of specifying the learning goals for guiding curricula designers and course developers, for aiding students to better understand their learning process, and for the better assigning acquisitions (Petroselli 2008).

In a school, the assumption of competence is written into the professional stance of teachers and administrators – professionals meaning competent (McAndrew 2005: 94). Competence in school leadership requires not only aspiring teachers in their commitment to students but also challenging and supporting teachers who fall short in their duty to improve their instructional practice. Adopting a trusting stance is not the same thing as taking a laissez faire, ‘anything goes’ orientation where teachers are not held accountable for their responsibilities to students. Principals would do well to address instances of unprofessional or untrustworthy behaviour on the part of teachers in a proactive but respectful development.
manner in order to foster strong collegial relationships among teachers (Dipaola & Forsyth 2011: 11).

The effectiveness of their leadership depends on whether they can facilitate the participation and involvement of members in decision-making and planning, communication between multiple school constituencies, coordination between different units, social interactions and relationships among members, development of school climate, and key learning and teaching activities (Cheng 2005: 246). The challenge and the opportunity for school leaders is to nourish the know-how of staff and students in their work, their thinking, and their daily actions. Through competence, expertise, and knowledge comes achievement (Dean & Paterson 2010: 31).

Currently, many people are concerned if school leaders in Hong Kong have sufficient leadership competence to re-engineer school progress and activities to meet the new school goals and challenges from the changing environment such that teachers and students can maximise their performance in teaching and learning (Cheng, 2005: 246). At the same time, schools in America are facing a new kind of crisis in leadership; it seems that almost nobody wants the job. For several decades now there has been much talk about a school leadership crisis, by which a crisis of competence is meant. We were convinced that American principals and superintendents needed to be more skilled, better trained, masters of turnaround and transformation. But the challenge is no longer just now to aspire and pressure them to perform, it is how to find –and keep– successors as they leave (Evans 2010).

Today, institutions as the European parliament in Europe, or the National Academies in the USA, officially recommend relying on competence for shaping training programmes and defining the objectives of lifelong learning. In France, the programme entries of IUFM (teacher training college) are based exclusively on general professional competencies (Petroselli 2008). Coaching teachers through new expectations and providing professional development to assist in resolving the inevitable conflicts inherent in joint work will assist teachers in fostering the strong relationships that promote both collaboration and a professional orientation in schools (Dipaola & Forsyth 2011).

In Greece, there is relatively little data on the perceived competence level of primary school principals and vice-principals. For example, we are at a loss to know how competent the administrative staff of this particular educational level perceives themselves to be. Moreover, we are at a loss to know whether the perceived level of competence concerning common administrative roles of elementary school principals and vice-principals relates to some of their certain personality traits. The aim of this study is to conduct an Exploratory Factor Analysis on a Greek version of the questionnaire used by Kelly Glodt in the USA in 2006 so that we can be capable of identifying a certain amount of sub-scales concerning the perceived level competence in common administrative roles as regards the elementary school principals and the vice-principals in the prefecture of Thessaloniki.
2. METHODOLOGY

2.1. The instrument

The Principals’ Perception of Competence Survey (PPCS) questionnaire adjusted in the Greek language consists of 52 items. Items 1-11 investigate demographic information of the survey participants, while questions 12.1 – 12.41 ask respondents to rate their perceived level of competence in connection to 41 administrative responsibilities principals commonly face throughout a school year. Response choices were: 1=Fully Competent, 2=Somewhat Competent, 3=Marginally Competent, 4=Not Competent and 5=Have Never Experienced.

An important characteristic of the PPCS questionnaire is that there are no sub-scales. This means that each of the 41 questions included in its second part constitute a separate issue – administrative role concerning the perceived competence level of the administrative staff. In our effort to correlate this particular questionnaire with some others with sub-scales pertaining personality traits, we are forced to conduct an Exploratory Factor Analysis so that the aforementioned correlation can take place.

2.2. Statistical analysis

We conducted all analyses using SPSS (Version 13.0.1). In all analyses, participants with missing data are excluded. The resulting sample includes 229 individuals and 41 items. The ratio of participants to items is between 5:1 and 6:1, which exceeds the suggested minimum that Hair et al. (2009) suggest. The demographics of the participants are presented in Table 1.

**Table 1:** The demographics of the participants

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<th>Percent</th>
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<tr>
<td>Vice-Principals</td>
<td>34.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years in the post</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3 years or less</td>
<td>41.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 years or more</td>
<td>58.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>36-45</td>
<td>14.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46-55</td>
<td>81.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56-65</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>70.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>29.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
During the preliminary analysis, we examine the correlations between questions, the factorability of the particular dataset via the Bartlett’s test of sphericity (Bartlett 1954) and the sampling adequacy on the basis of the Kaiser – Meyer – Olkin (KMO) measure (Kaiser 1970).

We perform an exploratory factor analysis by applying the Principal Component Analysis method, in order to identify a certain amount of sub-scales concerning the perceived competence level of elementary school principals and vice-principals in common administrative roles. Moreover, we apply the Varimax rotation criterion in order to rotate the factor solution to a more interpretable structure.

The exploratory factor analysis is carried out by fitting factor models in relation to the following criteria: First, we apply the Kaiser’s criterion, which retains factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 for the determination of the number of factors to be generated (Kaiser 1960). Second, we examine the loadings of each item to the
factors and retain those items with loadings of more than 0.4, in order to ensure their statistical and practical significance (Stevens 2009, Floyd & Widaman 1995). In addition, we investigate the cross-loadings in order to locate items that load highly onto more than one factor. For these items, we make decisions upon retaining or deleting them. Third, we require the percentage of the overall explained variance to be at least 60% in order to maintain the usefulness of the corresponding factor solution. Finally, we combine the previous criteria with the interpretability of the factors. After reaching a solution that fulfills the above criteria, we conduct an additional series of trials in relation to the number of factors in order to reach a more interpretable factor solution.

The reliability of the derived factors is investigated by estimating the internal consistency for each factor using Cronbach’s alpha analyses. The value of alpha is considered acceptable when it exceeds the value of 0.70 (Cortina 1993, Cronbach 1951).

3. RESULTS

The preliminary analysis shows that all questions correlate significantly with all others (p<0.001) and none of the correlation coefficients are particularly large (more than 0.9); the values of the correlation coefficients range from 0.541 to 0.781. Therefore, there is no need in eliminating any questions at this stage. The Bartlett’s test of sphericity provides a highly significant result (X²=6637.021, df=820, p<0.001), whereas the KMO measure of sampling adequacy is 0.943. Furthermore, the KMO measure for individual questions ranges from 0.871 to 0.971. These values of KMO fall into the range of being superb (Field, 2009). The above results indicate that the factor analysis is appropriate for our data.

The procedure of the statistical analysis described in the previous section leads to the selection of a five-factor model with initial eigenvalues ranging from 1.210 to 14.390 and with overall explained variance equal to 63.011% (Table 2). Although the Kaiser’s criterion suggests a six-factor model, the five-factor model is superior in terms of interpretability compared to any other number of factors. Following rotation, the explained variance is distributed fairly equally over the five factors ranging from 7.977 to 14.898 (Table 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PC</th>
<th>Initial Eigenvalues</th>
<th>Eigenvalues</th>
<th>% Of Variance</th>
<th>Cumulative %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.390</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>14.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.066</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>29.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.745</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>43.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.382</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>55.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.210</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>63.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
During the procedure of extracting factors, there are eight items that are deleted: 11, 12, 13, 18, 19, 26, 31 and 33 (Table 3).

**Table 3: Questions excluded from the factors**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions excluded from the Factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11. Learning Routine office tasks/procedures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Preparing for and Conducting Effective Faculty Meetings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Teacher Union Issues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Guiding the School Improvement Process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Analysing Student Data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Implementing District/Building Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. Developing Public Relations Skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. Creating an Effective Site Council</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The communalities of the remaining items range from 0.516 to 0.811 with a mean of 0.63 and a standard deviation of 0.075. This result ensures that the remaining items are sufficiently explained by the derived factor model.

All items load clearly onto a single factor each, apart from the items 1, 9 and 28, which load on two factors. Table 4 shows the loadings of each item to each factor. However, we notice that the primary loadings are greater than 0.5, while the secondary loadings are less than 0.5 (Costello & Osborne 2005). In addition, the corresponding differences between the primary and the secondary loadings range from 1.22 to 1.53. Regarding the above observations, and also for interpretation purposes, we decide to retain the items 1, 9 and 28.

**Table 4: Rotated Component Matrix**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Component 1</th>
<th>Component 2</th>
<th>Component 3</th>
<th>Component 4</th>
<th>Component 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12.21 Overseeing the Accreditation Process</td>
<td>.702</td>
<td>.291</td>
<td>.142</td>
<td>.152</td>
<td>.298</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.24 Staffing/Interviewing Skills</td>
<td>.668</td>
<td>.181</td>
<td>.154</td>
<td>.132</td>
<td>.311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.22 Completing Ministry of Education Reports</td>
<td>.646</td>
<td>.201</td>
<td>.158</td>
<td>.324</td>
<td>.250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.23 Handling Decentralised Management</td>
<td>.637</td>
<td>.222</td>
<td>.227</td>
<td>.244</td>
<td>.231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.29 Managing Special Education Laws/Issues</td>
<td>.630</td>
<td>.068</td>
<td>.382</td>
<td>.185</td>
<td>-.119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.30 Addressing Bilingual Issues</td>
<td>.597</td>
<td>.290</td>
<td>.311</td>
<td>.137</td>
<td>-.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.9 Conducting Formal Evaluations</td>
<td>.592</td>
<td>.470</td>
<td>.047</td>
<td>.173</td>
<td>.126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.20 Leading Curriculum Development</td>
<td>.570</td>
<td>.165</td>
<td>.375</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td>.235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.5 Leading Effective Staff Development</td>
<td>.290</td>
<td>.722</td>
<td>.197</td>
<td>.110</td>
<td>.194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.8 Improving Staff Morale</td>
<td>.058</td>
<td>.696</td>
<td>.381</td>
<td>.129</td>
<td>-.082</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.7 Improving Overall School Climate</td>
<td>.169</td>
<td>.691</td>
<td>.373</td>
<td>.109</td>
<td>-.097</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
On the basis of the chosen factor model, the factors were interpreted as follows (Table 5):

**Table 5:** The questions of each of the 5 factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Component</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12.6 Creating an Atmosphere of High Expectations</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.2 Possessing Knowledge of Effective Instructional Methods (Best Practices)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.10 Supervising Staff</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.1 Possessing Instructional Leadership Skills</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.4 Assisting Teachers in Creating More Effective Lesson Plans</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.3 Instructing Teachers in Effective Instructional Techniques</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.37 Developing Decision Making Skills</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.36 Dealing with Concerned/Angry Parents</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.27 Effectively Handling Individual Student Discipline Issues</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.38 Developing Time Management Skills</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.35 Organizing and Supervising School Activities/Athletics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.34 Working with Parent Organizations and/or Committees</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.28 Interpreting and Enforcing School Law Issues</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.39 Possessing Mediation Skills (staff vs. staff and/or student vs. student)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.14 Addressing Building Maintenance Issues</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.15 Addressing Custodial Staff Issues</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.16 Addressing Fire Marshal Issues</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.25 Dealing with the Building Budget</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.17 Addressing Secretarial Staff Issues</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.40 Possessing Necessary Technology Skills</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.41 Developing and Preparing for Board Meeting Presentations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.32 Possessing Public Speaking Skills</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Planning - Evaluation of Educational Issues and Performing of Educational Policy**

21. Overseeing the Accreditation Process
24. Staffing/Interviewing Skills
22. Completing Ministry of Education Reports
23. Handling Decentralised Management
29. Managing Special Education Laws/Issues
30. Addressing Bilingual Issues
9. Conducting Formal Evaluations
20. Leading Curriculum Development

Factor 2 questions

**Instruction – Supervision of Human Resource and Creation of Positive School Climate**
5. Leading Effective Staff Development
8. Improving Staff Morale
7. Improving Overall School Climate
6. Creating an Atmosphere of High Expectations
2. Possessing Knowledge of Effective Instructional Methods (Best Practices)
10. Supervising Staff
1. Possessing Instructional Leadership Skills
4. Assisting Teachers in Creating More Effective Lesson Plans
3. Instructing Teachers in Effective Instructional Techniques

Factor 3 questions

**Organisation, Decision Making and Problem Solving**
37. Developing Decision Making Skills
36. Dealing with Concerned/Angry Parents
27. Effectively Handling Individual Student Discipline Issues
38. Developing Time Management Skills
35. Organizing and Supervising School Activities/Athletics
34. Working with Parent Organizations and/or Committees
28. Interpreting and Enforcing School Law Issues
39. Possessing Mediation Skills (staff vs. staff and/or student vs. student)

Factor 4 questions

**Addressing Custodial and Secretarial Staff Issues as well as Material Resource ones**
14. Addressing Building Maintenance Issues
15. Addressing Custodial Staff Issues
16. Addressing Fire Marshal Issues
25. Dealing with the Building Budget
17. Addressing Secretarial Staff Issues

Factor 5 questions

**Integration - Exploitation of ICTs in Presentations and Public Speeches**
40. Possessing Necessary Technology Skills
41. Developing and Preparing for Board Meeting Presentations
32. Possessing Public Speaking Skills

The reliability analysis showed that all factors were reliable according to the results presented in Table 3, since the Cronbach’s Alpha measure was above 0.70 for all factors. In addition, the value of Cronbach’s alpha did not increase by deleting any item from the corresponding factor for all factors. Finally, the correlations between each item and the total score of the corresponding factor range from 0.569 to 0.824, well above 0.3. The above results indicate a good reliability level of the scale.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FACTOR</th>
<th>Number of Items</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>Item – Total Correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.892</td>
<td>0.580 – 0.779</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.894</td>
<td>0.613 – 0.763</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.910</td>
<td>0.603 – 0.824</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.865</td>
<td>0.598 – 0.765</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.770</td>
<td>0.569 – 0.691</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

More specifically, the following measures came up after conducting the statistical analysis as far as these five factors are concerned:

1. Planning – Evaluation of Educational Issues and Performing of Educational Policy. This factor included eight items; its Cronbach’s Alpha measure was 0.892 and also the correlations between each item and the total score of the corresponding factor ranged from 0.580 to 0.779.

2. Instruction – Supervision of Human Resource and Creation of Positive School Climate. This factor included nine items; its Cronbach’s Alpha measure was 0.894 and also the correlations between each item and the total score of the corresponding factor ranged from 0.613 to 0.763.

3. Organisation, Decision Making and Problem Solving. This factor included eight items; its Cronbach’s Alpha measure was 0.910 and also the correlations between each item and the total score of the corresponding factor ranged from 0.603 to 0.824.

4. Addressing Custodial and Secretarial Staff Issues as well as Material Resource ones. This factor included five items; its Cronbach’s Alpha measure was above 0.865 and also the correlations between each item and the total score of the corresponding factor ranged from 0.598 to 0.765.

5. Integration – Exploitation of ICTs in Presentations and Public Speeches. This factor included three items; its Cronbach’s Alpha measure was above 0.770.
and also the correlations between each item and the total score of the corresponding factor ranged from 0.569 to 0.691.

4. DISCUSSION

The aim of this study was to conduct an Exploratory Factor Analysis on the Greek version of Kelly Glodt’s questionnaire in order to identify a certain number of sub-scales concerning the perceived competence level of elementary school principals and vice-principals in common administrative roles. The Principals’ Perception of Competence Survey (PPCS) adjusted to the Greek language included 52 items – questions. Items 1-11 investigated demographic information of the survey participants, while questions 12.1 – 12.41 asked respondents to rate their perceived competence level with regard to 41 administrative responsibilities principals commonly face throughout a school year. An important characteristic of the PPCS questionnaire is that there are no sub-scales. In our effort to correlate this particular questionnaire with some others with sub-scales pertaining personality traits, we had to conduct an Exploratory Factor Analysis so that the aforementioned correlation could take place.

The procedure of the statistical analysis led to the selection of a five-factor model, after having deleted eight items with low loadings. More specifically, the five factors that came up after conducting the statistical analysis were the following:

4. Addressing Custodial and Secretarial Staff Issues as well as Material Resource ones.
5. Integration – Exploitation of ICTs in Presentations and Public Speeches.

The titles of the factors came up after taking into account the four stages concerning the process of management. These are: programming, organising, leading and controlling. There is also another phase concerning the management science, the decision making one, which interferes separately to all the above four management stages. As we discuss the issue of educational management in this paper, the titles of the five factors were given mainly according to the phases of management.

Apart from that, another important matter that was taken into consideration in our effort to give a name to each factor was mostly the first and partially the second item of each factor. A lot of emphasis was given to these items as they presented the highest values. Except for the issues of management, some other issues such as ICTs, educational policy, school climate, problem solving, staff issues and recourse management were included in the title of the factors.
5. EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

The findings of the research may have implications for practice. Unfortunately, theories on the perceived competence level of primary school principals and vice-principals in common administrative roles and some of their personality traits include little corresponding empirical study of the phenomenon.

In general, the above results indicate a good reliability level of the scale. The aforementioned factors – sub-scales concerning the perceived competence level of elementary school principals and vice-principals in common administrative roles could be used to and even be compared to factors – sub-scales of other instruments, resulting in outlining and preparing a full programme of professional development. Such a programme should include not only teaching material for improving principals and vice-principals’ level of knowledge concerning administrative roles but it should also focus on elaborating personality features so that principals and vice-principals could be able to familiarise with themselves.

By following an organisational plan enriched with certain appropriate professional development programs we would hopefully develop a positive school environment which would in turn improve the growth of the primary schools’ administrative staff.

REFERENCES


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PRIMARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS’ ATTITUDES AND PERCEPTIONS TOWARDS THEIR ADMINISTRATIVE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

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ABSTRACT

Given that a) education is the key for the socioeconomic development of a country, b) school leadership is a key factor in the effective school performance and c) a school principal is effective when possesses administrative knowledge and skills, the analysis of administrators’ multifaceted roles is of particular importance for a deeper understanding of the professional and leadership development in education. The purpose of this paper is to investigate – through empirical analysis- the current degree of the Greek primary school principals’ administrative professional development and to assess their natural growth in administrative matters related to the operation of their schools. Results showed that knowledge and managerial abilities is the most important factor for the motivation of the teaching staff and the development of a positive and harmonious school climate. Moreover, the Greek school principals seem to satisfy the above factor.

Keywords: primary school principal, attitude, competence, administrative professional development.

1. INTRODUCTION AND AIMS OF THE STUDY

The institution of school management is of special interest at international level in terms of the research into, as well as the professional development and the training of, school principals - whether in primary or secondary education. This interest can be attributed to the scientific, socioeconomic and political developments apparent at all levels of social life, as well as to the fact that the contemporary school is characterized by much more complex management issues, in comparison with its earlier counterpart (Bush, 2008; Harris, 2005; Leithwood, et.al., 2004)

The following constitute some of the responsibilities/duties that a school
principals’ selection is based on criteria characterized by institutional instability (Andreou, 1997),
- it is questionable whether selection boards composed of education officials and elected representatives have the necessary knowledge and expertise in areas of educational administration (Saitis, 2007; Nika, 2008; Saiti, 2012; Saitis & Eliophotou-Menon, 2004),
- there is no exact and detailed job description (definition of responsibilities, duties, working conditions, etc.) and job specification (identification of the
knowledge, specific skills and competencies required for the particular post). Since qualifications such as a doctorate or a masters degree are not designed to provide an indication of the administrative capabilities of a candidate teacher / principal, as a result, the candidates selected are not necessarily the most appropriate candidates for the particular administrative post (Saitis, 2007; Saitis, 2012).

- Great emphasis is placed on the candidates’ years of service, even if it is scientifically accepted that an effective manager is neither the oldest nor the best teacher, but the one with the knowledge and skills required for a managerial position (Saitis, 2007; Saiti, 2012).

- The vast majority of school leaders lack special training in modern management (Zavlanos, 1981; Saiti & Michopoulos, 2005; Saiti, 2012), even though school administration is of strategic importance for the effective operation of the school unit. Of course, some efforts towards the training of directors in education have been made (Saitis et al, 2001) [such as the establishment of the School of Secondary Education teachers in 1910, the bills of 1913, the establishment of the Further Education School for Secondary Education Teachers (SELME) in 1978, the Further Education School for Primary Education Teachers (SELDE) in 1979, the Regional Training Centres (PEK) in 1985, and the proposals of various committees]. However, their fragmentary character and operation - due to the lack of continuity and perspective - did not allow the integration of these initiatives into a long-term plan for training.

Based on the above, this paper aims to explore the degree of administrative competence of school leaders in primary education in Greece, considering that school leadership is a very important factor for the effective functioning of school units. The research aims to:

- Explore Greek school principals’ attitudes and perceptions towards their administrative professional.
- Reach documented conclusions and proposals, according to survey results, and highlight the importance of developing competent school leaders for the smooth and efficient operation of primary schools.

2. The Importance of School Management and the Need for School Leaders’ Development

The role of the school manager is essential for the effective functioning of the school. Although school principals are at the lowest rung in the administrative organization of education, they assume an important communicative role, particularly in providing a link between the senior leaders in educational administration and school teachers. While the senior hierarchy designs the educational policies for schools, it is the school principal who has the responsibility for their effective implementation.
Educational innovation and the achievement of the objectives depend on the selection of the most skilled school leaders. Indeed, in a properly organized educational system, the school principal plays a key role in handling the human factor (Bettignies, 1975; Saiti, 2012; Hargreaves & Fink, 2008; Hopkins & Stern, 1996; Whitaker, 2003). Even if an educational policy is carefully and wisely designed, it cannot attain the expected outcomes if the most competent persons are not selected for school management (Saitis, 2007; Harris, 2005; Saiti, 2012).

The achievement of the teaching and learning goals, for example, requires the teaching staff to adopt a philosophy that emphasizes the usefulness and necessity of knowledge and not merely prepare the students for examinations. The philosophy adopted and applied by a teacher in the classroom reflects the belief of what education is. This belief and interpretation of the nature of education determines a teacher’s approach towards the teaching and learning process, the definition of the learning objectives, the selection of specific teaching methodology and their relationship with the students. As teachers’ approaches vary, it is the school principal who provides the necessary guidance to the teaching staff, so that they can better understand the pedagogical and social conditions of their particular school.

Ideally, an ongoing school manager development plan would be provided by the central administration of education to school principals, in order to cultivate the skills (intellectual, technical, etc.) that will boost their professional efficiency (Bush, 2008; Fullan, 2001, 2006; Saiti, 2012). In view of the above, the following question arises: Why is school leader development so crucially important?

First of all, the teacher/school principal is called to perform administrative tasks that are completely different in nature from the teaching task. The school principal also has to work harmoniously with all members of the school community, to communicate with senior management bodies of education, the students’ parents and the various social organizations such as the local authorities, etc., to effectively address potential conflicts between the teaching staff, and take decisions related to the smooth running of the school, etc. responsibilities which are not related or limited to the pedagogical tasks.

Secondly, the school environment is characterized, as already mentioned, by complexity, due to the pluralism of beliefs and attitudes of the collective bodies in education.

Thirdly, the need for the proper implementation of the educational legislation in schools presupposes administrative knowledge and skills, which calls for specific training on those aspects.

Finally, the need for effective state schools demands the enrichment of school leaders’ knowledge with the latest developments in management, technology and the social environment. This requires "an additional body of training" for school leaders (Xochelis, 2005:99), essential for a successful response to the needs of the modern school. In other words, in addition to their development as teachers, in parallel, it is necessary to further their development as managers (Fullan, 2001:261).

Summarising, it can be claimed that the administrative development of school
leaders is of strategic importance since the relationship between principals and the school working environment is constantly being redefined.

The key role of school leadership in the effective functioning of schools and the development of education as a whole is clear and undeniable. Successful school management, however, is accomplished only if the school leaders possess administrative efficiency, the acquisition of which should not be an arbitrary process but be the result of systematic training. For a development programme addressing school leaders to be effective, it must be methodical and tailored to the administrative needs of the trainees. Certain parameters should be set in place to facilitate the success of such a programme:

- Participation in a training programme should be driven by internal incentives (Koontz et al, 1982).
- The content of training should be adjusted to the needs of school leaders, since the conscious participation "stems from the relationship between the individual (school leader) and the given object of learning (Noye & Piveteau, 1999:104).
- Theory must be consistent with practice, i.e. training projects should include tasks for practical application, since the two modes of learning (experiential learning and theoretical presentation) “are complementary to each other” (Boukis, 1990:14).
- School principals’ trainers should be experts, they should have an excellent, thorough knowledge of their subject area, and be capable of identifying their trainees’ real needs.
- The teaching methodology should be based on the pedagogical principles of adult education (Kakavoulis, 1992, Galanis, 1993). School leaders should be treated as "capable, experienced, responsible, mature and balanced individuals” (Rogers, 1999:76).

Finally, any attempt at designing educational policy to accommodate training programmes for school leaders should first secure the necessary financial support for their implementation and focus on a) the proper structure and content of the programmes, based on a thorough study and research, and b) the evaluation of the processes and the outcomes of these programmes.

3. DATA AND METHODOLOGY

A survey was conducted to collect primary source data for the paper. Questionnaires were administered to 480 primary school heads (including deputies). Of those issued, 317 (response rate: 66.04%) were completed sufficiently for analysis. Greece administratively is divided into 13 regions and 54 prefectures which include municipalities and communes. Based on the latter, the sample would cover all the 13 regions of Greece. The first section of the questionnaire includes school size, the location of the respondents’ school as well as personal and professional characteristics of the primary school leaders. The second section of the
questionnaire asked respondents to reply to 31 statements that expressed perceptions relating to their current managerial abilities. The third section of the questionnaire asked respondents to reply to 32 statements that expressed perceptions relating to the significance of the managerial abilities. This particular questionnaire used in the current research was implemented in the Galbraith, Sisko & Guglielmino (1997). Hence, the same research instrument was adopted for this research with slight amendments. Primary school leaders were asked to rate the degree of actual or expected satisfaction by using the following scale: 1 = disagree very much, 2 = disagree moderately, 3 = average, 4 = agree moderately, 5 = agree very much. The statistical analyses used in this research provide the principal components for factor analysis and this method was applied to the original statements of current managerial abilities and the significance of the managerial abilities included in the questionnaire. All variables (statements) included in the last two sections of the questionnaire have been reduced to a number of factors which were rated by respondents. Thus, the factor analysis resulted in groups of statements in both cases. The specific research hypotheses are the following:

H1 Primary school principals in Greece face difficulties in exercising their administrative tasks.

H2 Primary school principals in Greece lack the necessary administrative competence to respond successfully to their tasks.

4. FINDINGS

4.1. Demographic characteristics

From the sample of 317 primary school leaders in question, 66.6 % were men and 33.4% were women. According to the results, 42.3% of the respondents stated that their schools were up to six post, 55.5% were from 7 post to 12 post and only 2.2 were above 13 post. Over half of the respondents 56.8% stated that their schools are located in urban areas, 25.6% in rural and 18.0% in semi-urban areas. The vast majority of the respondents (89.0%) were married and 11.0% were unmarried. Regarding the age of the respondents 53.0% were between 41 and 50 years of age, 31.9% were above 51 years, 8.5% were between 31 and 40 while 6.6% were below 30 years. To the question whether or not primary school leaders in question had a second degree or certificate in a different field, the majority 44.5% had stated that they followed a training course and hence received a certificate in a particular subject, 27.1% had received a second degree in a different field, 10.4% had followed postgraduate studies and only 1.3% and 4.7% had received a PhD and specific training on school management, respectively.

In terms of total teaching experience, overall, 58.7% had between 21 and 30 years’ in public primary education, 18.0% of the respondents had between 11 and 20 years’, 15.1% had over 30 years’ teaching experience in public primary education and 8.2% had between 1 and 10 years’ relevant experience.

The majority of the respondents in question, 77.7%, had served at the same
school between 1 and 10 years, 16.4% had served between 11 and 20 years, 6.3% had served between 21 and 30 years and just 0.3% had served at the same school for over 31 years.

With particular reference to school managerial experience as a school head 92.1% had stated between 1 and 10 years, 6.9% had between 11 and 20 years and only 0.9% had over 20 years managerial experience as a school head. Regarding the managerial experience as deputy head, 93.7% had served as a deputy head between 1 and 5 years, 5.0% had served between 6 and 10 years and only 1.3% had served as deputy head over 10 years. Finally regarding their managerial experience as a head of an Education Office and as a director of an Education Direction only 0.3% in both cases had served below 3 years.

4.2. Main factors of current managerial abilities

The application of factor analysis resulted in the extraction of six factors that have an Eigenvalue above 1. Of these, seven factors were selected (see Table 1) which provide an explanation for 62.076% of the total sample. The Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient was 0.938. Based on the empirical findings, the following factors are extracted:

- The first factor is related to educators’ work stimulation and implementation of the school climate. These were: Ability to carefully hear both educators and students; Staff motivation; Managing and Solving conflicts among teaching staff with mutual agreement; Managing effectively crisis in school; Understanding educators personal needs; Ability to implement positive culture in school; Ability to make rational decisions; Awareness the techniques needed in changing school climate; Ability to plan and allocate duties to the deputy head.

- The second factor is related to planning and programming school activities. These were: Plan the school activities for the whole school year; Ability to range in a hierarchical way the school needs; Plan and allocate of out-school activities among educators; Design school activities; Ability to prepare and use an induction plan for new appointed educators; Recognition of professional development of the teaching staff.

- The third factor is related to managing school financing. These were: Understanding the procedure of the management of school economics; Development communication with parents; Awareness of the school financing process.

- The fourth factor is relevant to capabilities of communication and appraisal. These were: Ability to attract grants and in the school; Plan and carried out appraisal; Design and implement effective interviews; Ability to plan an effective program of activities with the local community; Exercise effective monitoring among the school members; Understanding of the determinants for self and career development;
The *fifth* factor is related to technical and librarian capabilities. These were: Organising and managing the school archives; Organising and managing the school library; Ability to support the new teaching substructure; Effective use of the Information, Communication and technologies.

The *sixth* factor is related to understanding school legal and administrative issues. These were: Understanding the administrative principles; Understanding the educational legislative framework; Understanding school legal issues.

### 4.3. Main factors of significance of the managerial abilities

The application of factor analysis resulted in the extraction of six factors that have an Eigenvalue above 1. Of these, seven factors were selected (see Table 2) which provide an explanation for 64.54% of the total sample. The Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient was 0.951. Based on the empirical findings, the following factors are extracted:

- The *first* factor is related to educators’ work stimulation and the implementation of school climate. These were: Ability to carefully hear both educators and students; Staff motivation; Managing and Solving conflicts among teaching staff with mutual agreement; Managing effectively crisis in school; Understanding educators personal needs; Ability to implement positive culture in school; Ability to make rational decisions; Awareness the techniques needed in changing school climate; Ability to plan and allocate duties to the deputy head.

- The *second* factor included capabilities relevant to communication and appraisal. These were: Ability to attract grants and in the school; Plan and carried out appraisal; Design and implement effective interviews; Ability to plan an effective program of activities with the local community; Exercise effective monitoring among the school members; Understanding of the determinants for self and career development.

- The *third* factor is related to understanding school legal and administrative issues. These were: understanding the administrative principles; Understanding the administrative theories; Understanding the educational legislative framework; Understanding school legal issues.

- The *fourth* factor is related to technical and librarian capabilities. These were: Organising and managing the school archives; Organising and managing the school library; Ability to support the new teaching substructure; Effective use of the Information, Communication and technologies.

- The *fifth* factor is related to planning and programming school activities. These were: Plan the school activities for the whole school year; Ability to range in a hierarchical way the school needs; Plan and allocate of out-school activities among educators; Design school activities; Ability to prepare and
use an induction plan for new appointed educators; Recognition of professional development of the teaching staff.

- Finally, the sixth factor is related to managing school financing. This factor included three statements and these were: Understanding the procedure of the management of school economics; Development communication with parents; Awareness of the school financing process.

5. CONCLUSIONS

The results showed that knowledge and managerial abilities are considered to be the most important factors for the motivation of teaching staff and the development of a positive and harmonious school climate. Moreover, the Greek school principals seem to satisfy the above factors.

This paper has underlined the key issue of recruitment and selection while the empirical results revealed that the Greek school leaders consider the most significant factors to be the successful exercise of their duties, the appropriate knowledge and capabilities, the motivation of the teaching staff and the cultivation of a positive and harmonious school climate. At the same time, the research results showed that the Greek school leaders do indeed have the appropriate knowledge and abilities both to motivate school teachers and to create the supportive conditions in which to develop a creative and sustainable school climate. All these factors would inspire the school members to seek the maximum benefit from their education, thus helping the school to achieve its aims.

With reference to the second factor of significance, which concerns the design and planning of the school activities, school principals did not consider it to be important since factor analysis showed the second most significant factor to be managerial abilities, which are closely linked to the communication and appraisal of the teaching staff. Certainly, the cooperation of all members of the educational process, the coordination of all school activities and the school climate demand a smooth two-way communication process among educational members (Henkin, et.al. 2000; Middlewood & Abbott, 2012; Tourish & Robson, 2003, 2006). Irrespective of how the educational process is considered, a receptive learning environment is based upon good communication. A sound understanding of communication substantially facilitates the functioning of the school since, as a social phenomenon, communication is the principal factor of all interpersonal relations among the members of a typical organization.

In addition, communication is closely connected with the appraisal of teaching staff since appraisal (among other issues) requires the manager to liaise with staff members in order to objectively ascertain their scientific and pedagogical training needs. Of course, it is not always easy for a school leader to determine the most effective way for teachers to transfer knowledge and skills to students since the factors that affect human behaviour are rather complicated. However, among the essential managerial abilities for a school leader are the skills to effectively manage the human resources available (Bush, 2008; Hargreaves & Fink, 2008; Harris, 2005;
Saiti, 2012).

According to the empirical results the third factor of significance concerns an understanding of the school’s legal and administrative issues. Indeed, knowledge of the school’s legal issues and efficient administrative problem solving were considered the third most significant for the Greek school leaders. Moreover, the research results showed that the Greek school leaders are capable of managing school finances.

This result can be attributed to the fact that school management is a complex process where, together with all their didactical responsibilities, school leaders are also mainly responsible for the management of school mail and the correct implementation of the laws governing the school. This renders many of their activities and the decision-making processes being based upon the function of legislation. Hence, for a school leader, as well as key personal characteristics such as their spirit of cooperation, etc. - their knowledge and continuous information on school legislation is also considered to be essential, especially in the Greek context where many changes are taking place.

Finally, as concerns the training necessary for Greek school leaders, the fourth factor of significance, according to the results, was their technical abilities in terms of school organization and the functioning of school libraries. Indeed, the organization and the functioning of a school library is of crucial importance especially if one considers that the responsibility for its day-to-day running lies with the librarians whereas the coordination and management activities are restricted to the role of the school leader.

To conclude, the empirical results indicate that Greek school leaders appropriately rate both the significant abilities and the requirements needed to maintain those abilities in terms of managerial training. However, it seems that Greek school leaders do not appropriately rate the significance of the crucial managerial function of design and programming. This can be attributed to the fact that, due to the high and heavy centralization of the Greek school system, a school principal does not have the power to plan and programme school matters and activities, even for the short-term, since this managerial function is mainly implemented by the central administration. In fact, school management in Greece is mainly limited to distributing the didactical and out-of-school activities among educators. Even though this managerial function is essential for the effective performance of public education, planning and programming in this domain in Greece, it seems to be relatively low, both in terms of development and operation. In the particular case of Greek public education, and given the difficult economic situation that Greece has been facing for the last two years, there is a real urgency for continuous and systematic planning and programming in education so as to minimize inefficiencies and most importantly to achieve the development necessary to improve the prospects for Greece’s students in the highly competitive environment. Ultimately, the sustainability of any system can be achieved only through systematic, composed, coherent and continuous strategic planning in order
to maximize the development and the productiveness of its individual parts.

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Table 1. Variables included in each factor and factor Loadings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Loadings</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 1</strong></td>
<td>Ability to carefully hear both educators and students (19)</td>
<td>748</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educators’ work stimulation and the implementation of school climate.</td>
<td>Staff motivation (20)</td>
<td>699</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Managing and Solving conflicts among teaching staff with mutual agreement (21)</td>
<td>793</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Managing effectively crisis in school (2)</td>
<td>586</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Understanding educators personal needs (18)</td>
<td>547</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ability to implement positive culture in school (32)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ability to make rational decisions (6)</td>
<td>485</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Awareness the techniques needed in changing school climate (8)</td>
<td>378</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ability to plan and allocate duties to the deputy head (7)</td>
<td>299</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 2</strong></td>
<td>Plan the school activities for the whole school year (9)</td>
<td>674</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning and programming school activities</td>
<td>Ability to range in a hierarchical way the school needs (10)</td>
<td>628</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Plan and allocate of out-school activities among educators (14)</td>
<td>424</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Design school activities (11)</td>
<td>568</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ability to prepare and use an induction plan for new appointed educators (15)</td>
<td>474</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recognition of professional development of the teaching staff (16)</td>
<td>578</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 3</strong></td>
<td>Understanding the procedure of the management of school economics (12)</td>
<td>384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing school financing</td>
<td>Development communication with parents (22)</td>
<td>661</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Awareness of the school financing process (13)</td>
<td>714</td>
</tr>
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### Table 2. Variables included in each factor and factor Loadings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Variables</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Factor 1**                                 | Ability to carefully hear both educators and students (19)  
                                            | Staff motivation (20)  
                                            | Managing and Solving conflicts among teaching staff with mutual agreement (21)  
                                            | Managing effectively crisis in school (2)  
                                            | Understanding educators personal needs (18) |
| **Factor 4**                                 | Abilities relevant to communication and appraisal.  
                                            | Ability to attract grants and in the school (24)  
                                            | Plan and carried out appraisal (25)  
                                            | Design and implement effective interviews (17)  
                                            | Ability to plan an effective program of activities with the local community (23)  
                                            | Exercise effective monitoring among the school members (26)  
                                            | Understanding of the determinants for self and career development (27) |
| **Factor 5**                                 | Technical and librarian capabilities  
                                            | Organising and managing the school archives (29)  
                                            | Organising and managing the school library (30)  
                                            | Ability to support the new teaching substructure (31)  
                                            | Effective use of the Information, Communication and technologies. (28) |
| **Factor 6**                                 | Understanding school legal and administrative issues  
                                            | Understanding the administrative principles (1)  
                                            | Understanding the educational legislative framework (4)  
                                            | Understanding school legal issues (5)  |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Variables</th>
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</thead>
</table>
| **Factor 2**                                 | Financial and business capabilitiesManagement and Solving conflicts among teaching staff with mutual agreement (21)  
                                            | Managing effectively crisis in school (2)  
                                            | Understanding educators personal needs (18) |
| **Factor 3**                                 | Leadership and decision-making capabilities  
                                            | Managing and Solving conflicts among teaching staff with mutual agreement (21)  
                                            | Managing effectively crisis in school (2)  
                                            | Understanding educators personal needs (18) |

**Note:** Factor Loadings are indicated next to each variable for clarity.
Ability to implement positive culture in school (32)
Ability to make rational decisions (6)
Awareness the techniques needed in changing school climate (8)
Ability to plan and allocate duties to the deputy head (7)

Ability to attract grants and in the school (24)
Plan and carried out appraisal (25)
Design and implement effective interviews (17)
Ability to plan an effective program of activities with the local community (23)
Exercise effective monitoring among the school members (26)
Understanding of the determinants for self and career development (27)

Understanding the administrative principles 1)
Understanding the administrative theories (3)
Understanding the educational legislative framework (4)
Understanding school legal issues (5)

Organising and managing the school archives (29)
Organising and managing the school library (30)
Ability to support the new teaching substructure (31)
Effective use of the Information, Communication and technologies. (28)

Plan the school activities for the whole school year (9)
Ability to range in a hierarchical
### Factor 6
**Managing school financing**

- Understanding the procedure of the management of school economics (12)
- Development communication with parents (22)
- Awareness of the school financing process (13)

<table>
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<th>Activity</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
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<td>453</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Design school activities</td>
<td>733</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ability to prepare and use an induction plan for new appointed educators</td>
<td>347</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition of professional development of the teaching staff</td>
<td>269</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding the procedure of the management of school economics</td>
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<tr>
<td>Development communication with parents</td>
<td>278</td>
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<tr>
<td>Awareness of the school financing process</td>
<td>765</td>
</tr>
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</table>
THE AESTHETIC DIMENSION OF RHETORIC ACCORDING TO FRIEDRICH NIETZSCHE AND IMPLICATIONS IN EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT
Reflecting on Nietzsche's views we perceive his tendency to consider the aesthetic action of rhetoric, which its power can be found in the language that serves primarily rhetoric. The common point between literature and rhetoric - but also in the philosophy - is the language, which with its aesthetic dimension serves both arts. We will show that according Nietzsche in rhetorical style, as also in the literary, the means of speech should be used artistically. I will defend my view that Nietzsche delivers certain ways (verbal forms) in his treatise about Rhetoric. Having as a starting line these ways he shows that he uses the aesthetic dimensions of language, with aiming finally to intensify and increase what he says. From this position we comprehend that the conscious use of artistic means of speech leads in “turning rhetoric into literature”. The aesthetic relationship of rhetoric and literature has the implications in education. This relationship gives freedom to speech and helps the modern student to be led to the transmission of knowledge through literal texts.

Keywords: Aesthetic; rhetoric; literature; language; speech form; education;

1. STARTING-POINT AND PURPOSE OF THE QUESTION
By studying Steve Whitson’s and John Poulakos’ article "Nietzsche and the aesthetics of Rhetoric" in the Quarterly Journal of Speech my attention and my interest was caught by the sub-section "the Aesthetic Path" for the rhetoric. Both the authors claim that "for Nietzsche rhetoric is not an epistemological undertaking, but an artistic action that leads to order the chaos of life. This action produces symbols that do not function as a truth but as beautiful veils that cover the chaos in which the people live" (Whitson & Poulakos, 1993, p. 76). They base their opinion on the extensive work of Nietzsche Will for Force (§428) and they explain that with the above lines Nietzsche states that symbols are not referring to the reality of the things it selves, but in the call of aesthetic forms, that constitute undiscerning pieces in the ostensible Being. If, therefore, we consider that Nietzsche stresses the aesthetic action of rhetoric, which its power can be found in the language that serves primarily rhetoric; we conceived that the two authors in their article leave unanswered the question regarding the relation between rhetoric and literature, provided that both belong in the arts. I am referring to the specific relation, because in the literature the aesthetic dimension is quite obvious. Regarding the rhetorical and the literary style the means of speech are being skilfully used, but this does not
mean that there is no difference among them.

2. THE CONNECTION OF THE RHETORIC WITH LITERATURE

The rhetorician follows specific linguistic forms that beautify the speech as well as structured style in order to convince his audience. An able writer can create and devise verbal forms freely, without any restrictions. The common point between literature and rhetoric - but also in the philosophy - is the language, which with its aesthetic dimension serves both arts.

Nietzsche in his *Lessons of Rhetoric* (Nietzsche, 2004) - most of them are copies from various books of other, and our research will not be based completely on them - points out that the power of rhetoric does not lie in discovering the truth and the substance of things with the help of dialectic. The power of rhetoric is in the language, which "does not wish to teach but to transfer to the others a subjective stimulus and it acceptance" (Nietzsche, 2004, p. 107). The aim of the language is not just the transmission of knowledge, the language here is not simply a body of teaching, but something more and needed; is the carrier of a subjective stimulus from the speaker (the rhetorician) to his audience, that is able it involves the psychological support and sentimental rise of his listeners. However, how this psychological support is going to be achieved?

The degree of psychological support will be recognised through the use of linguistic means, like the metaphor, the metonymy, the exaggeration, the comparison, and etcetera by which the rhetorician achieves the intensification and the increase of what he says. For Nietzsche each word constitutes an artistic way, a turn from the things in the speech. We could refer to the “turning” of the literature into rhetoric. With one only small difference Nietzsche that points out, saying that: "Generally, we as empiric users of the language, we consider the entire ancient literature, and mainly the roman, as something artistic and rhetorical" (Nietzsche, 2004, p. 106). If we do not know the rules of the language and the style of rhetoric, and by just having an empirical - daily - knowledge of the language, then of course the ancient and the roman literature will be considered as something artistic and therefore rhetorical.

The use of common artistic means does not declare directly also the identification of rhetoric with the literature, neither their complete distance. However does Nietzsche, based on the description and the mentality that was established in the antiquity and in his time regarding the use of artistic means in the rhetoric; proceeds radically beyond, and seeks - if not in the absolute degree and along with the literature - more freedom in the linguistic use? Does he seek in presenting rhetoric as a artistic action, that deviates from the chaos of life and brings order, and as an art that functions "as an empowerment of feelings about life, as the life’s stimulant"? (Nietzsche, 2001, §802, p. 370).

The above pointing out gives us the fuse to refer to the reasons, by which Nietzsche was guided to the use of the various speech forms in his work.
3. THE REASONING OF THE EMPLOYMENT OF THE SPEECH FORM

We could state that rhetoric for Nietzsche is art and as he claims in his work his Will for Force "each art functions accentually, increases the force, turns on the wish and stimulates all the detail recollections of intoxication..." Moreover, he points out that each art elects an aesthetic state and "each aesthetic state has an overabundance of communication means, with a extreme receptivity for stimuli and points" (Nietzsche, 2001, §809, p. 374). The use of artistic means of speech is an important aesthetic criterion, that reflects, according to Nietzsche the way to turn rhetoric to literature and that is why "... the reader and the listener wish for a completely different representative form and for this the ancient literature sound to us as "rhetorical". It addressed to our ears in order to impress them" (Nietzsche, 2004, 107; Pernot, 2005, p. 302; Vickers, 1988, pp. 340-374). The above lines show that according to Nietzsche the language is not based on metaphysical symbols or non linguistic references but to the language itself; that means that the ways, the artistic means do not have a literal importance, but are considered as more artistic means (Bitzer, 1978, pp. 67-98). Rhetoric as an art attempts through the verbal forms to penetrate in the depth of reality. It is not about the reality of truth but the one that the rhetoric creates itself, in order to stimulate the sentimental and emotional world of the person.

On the occasion of what has already been reported we will show that according Nietzsche in rhetorical style, as also in the literary, the means of speech should be used artistically. I will defend my view that Nietzsche delivers certain ways (verbal forms) in his treatise about Rhetoric. Having as a starting line these ways he shows that he uses the aesthetic dimensions of language, with aiming finally to intensify and increase what he says. Nietzsche elects the aesthetic linguistic delight the rhetoric offers in his work The birth of Tragedy (Nietzsche, 1983), which is distinguished for the artistic linguistic means. From this position we comprehend that the conscious use of artistic means of speech leads in “turning rhetoric into literature”. The particular term declares the process through which forms and parts of rhetoric are being transferred to the literature. The relation of rhetoric and literature is presented bidirectional, as the rhetoric does not focus on the speeches only, but is also extended in the literary compositions. The presence of rhetoric is intense through the linguistic use mainly in the aesthetic field, because as Nietzsche points out: "rhetoric is a further development of artistic means, which are inherent in the language, in the clear light of intellect (Nietzsche, 2004, p. 107) ".

The aesthetic dimension of the language in rhetoric gives people the possibility of revealing a world better than the one with which they are closely related. This possibility is provided by rhetoric, which uses linguistic pictures, aiming to satisfy the perceptive appetites and transmit by the "word-creator" rhetorician not only the stimuli and sentiments but also representations of sentiments (Nietzsche 2004, pp. 107-108). The rhetorical language is an artistic creation, which is able to satisfy in time the sight’s and audition’s delights (Whitson & Poulakos, 1993, p. 138). The language functions rhetorically, because "it wants to transmit glory, not science"

According to Nietzsche in order the aesthetic dimension be achieved in the language it should be based beyond of itself and the ways, "that are considered to be rhetoric’s most important technical mean" (Nietzsche, 2004, p. 108). The use of verbal forms renders the language artistic or even figurative that transubstantiates reality, in order to include it in the languages’ parameters. This artistic dimension of language is elected in *The Birth of Tragedy* where the German philosopher referring to the picture of appearance, that springs and "is consecrated" by the beautiful hallucination; he uses the way of *synecdoche*, saying "maja" (that he is translated as hallucination) instead of the word "hallucination" (Nietzsche, 1994, p. 55; Mourellos, 1996, p. 50). Respectively in his work *The twilight of Idols* says "bildung" instead of education. Moreover, we distinguish the way of *metaphor*, as in the scene of the Dionysian artistic ecstasy, where the person expresses himself through dance and songs; Nietzsche gives the "person" a new meaning calling him "nobler clay" and "expensive marble" (Nietzsche, 1994, p. 35). In *The Twilight of Idols* Nietzsche discusses about the "art", that means as he expresses it in other words, "the existence of aesthetic performance and notice". We should also, point out the third form of metonymy, which according to Nietzsche the poet "despoiled from the mind" instead of saying "incapable to create". In *The Twilight of Idols*, Nietzsche refers to the educated philosopher and instructor as the one who "dances with the pen" instead of "learns to write" (Nietzsche, 1983, p. 109; Nietzsche, 1994, p. 57).

We should point out that we present certain examples taken from two works of Nietzsche in order to express his wish to use skilfully the linguistic means, to charm his audience, achieving at the same time to convince of what he says. With the use of linguistic forms he implies the powerful element of persuasion, which is inherent in the author. Nevertheless, in his work *The Birth of Tragedy* the use of linguistic forms is more frequent comparatively to *The Twilight of Idols*. Moreover, in the first work we find other modifying expressions, as for instance the irony. Nietzsche uses the irony, in order to expresses and attract more the attention of his audience in regard to Socrates’ attitude saying: "Platonic speech was the boat where the lost ancient poetry was saved together with all her children: stacked now all in a narrow space and frighten they obey to the only one captain, Socrates, they were sailing in a new world, that was never tired to look at the superb spectacle of this parade" (Nietzsche, 1983, pp. 109-110). In *The Birth of Tragedy* the philosophical speech is also literal, as here the adversative relation between the Dionysian and Apollonian impetus suggest, in Nietzsche’s argumentation, an affinity between the aesthetical and ontological categories. In his reflection the aesthetic rhetoric focuses on the human body as a sensitive entity that is being attracted by the language (Whitson & Poulakos, 1993, p. 141; Lingis, 1977, pp. 46-52). This element becomes obvious, when he refers to the conceptual dimension of dance; where the dance is presented
as the physical equipment of the person, in order to live the global harmony (Demopoulos, 2006, pp. 99-114).

Aesthetic rhetoric is being expressed with words that move the physical senses. Nietzsche achieves it with the following verbal picture, where pleonasm, comparison and exaggeration: "In the dance and in the song the person express himself as member of superior community; he has forgotten how to walk and how to speak and he is ready to fly in the skies, dancing. The charm speaks through his gestures. As the animals now speak, and honey and milk flows from the ground, from the person supernatural sounds are coming out" (Nietzsche, 1983, p. 34). Nietzsche believes not only in the improvement but also in the metamorphosis of human nature with the help of education, which enables the person to realise his goals and to rise. This objective of the instructive process, that is also the reality, is being expressed through analogies (the animals speak and honey and milk flows from the ground - thus from the person sounds are coming out) and it is being extended and enriched with the metaphorical language of the art, stressing its aesthetical dimension, which it could seen in the literature.

According to the aforementioned examples it is obvious that in The Birth of Tragedy the writer, the rhetorician and the philosopher are being identified in the personal style of Nietzsche. He wishes to achieve his rendering as a rhetorician that handles well the rhetorical forms, recognizing through their use the expediency (the rhetorical possibility, persuasion, comprehension of psychology of the audience). Nietzsche is also a proficient man of letters, as he handles intelligently the artistic linguistic means, where the power of rhetoric lies. In this approach of rhetoric with the literature the aesthetic rhetoric receives an essential role, provided that, as it was already said, according to Nietzsche rhetoric is an artistic action. In that artistic practice the aesthetic state is inherited and he claims in his work Will for Force, is the source of languages and the higher point of communication and communicativeness among the living creatures. Nietzsche philosophizes based on the aesthetic dimension of philosophy, and apart from a man of letters and rhetorician is also a philosopher. In his thought predominates the aesthetics and the art, that lead him to see the person as an artist-creator and the world as human work of art that is not finished yet.

4. THE IMPLICATIONS OF NIETZSCHE’S VIEW IN EDUCATION

Nietzsche emphasizes in the aesthetic dimension of language and reveals the essential and crucial importance, which the rhetoric has in education and particularly in the following points:

a. Nietzsche offers the modern teacher and student the basic tool for the teaching of the curriculum and their communicative relationship, which is the formation of speech. The speech in the language of the teacher and the student can be transformed into an aesthetic image, with persuasion being its ultimate aim.

b. The aesthetic image of the structure of speech leads to a redefinition of the
communication code between teacher and student. In this communication of conveying messages the teacher as a good orator can contribute to the linguistic and intellectual development of the child through relevant and persuasive arguments.

c. The use of the speech forms, which usually manifests strongly in the literature, provides flexibility in the structure of thought and speech. This means that the student acquires the ability to respond directly and dynamically in every verbal challenge and knowledge.

d. With today’s that societies being culturally pluralistic and the democracy being disturbed, the aesthetic of language as a form of artistic act becomes the tool for the acceptance and the empathy of experiences and feelings of foreign students and even children with learning difficulties.

e. Through the aesthetic dimension of language Nietzsche lets us envision a communicative code of ethic and psychological penetration between the teacher and the students or even among students, just as the artist tries to communicate with his audience through the art (Kofman, 1993, pp. 36-37).

f. From the aesthetic dimension of rhetoric emerges another aspect of education that connects the mind with the visual image (Foss, 2004, pp. 303-313; Foss, 2005, pp. 142-143, 145; Ehninger, 1972, p. 3). This connection is understood through the verbal forms of metaphors from which the images are transmitted to the mind of the child, which can emotionally affect and help perceive the importance of concepts through visual images. The relationship of speech and image is a tool for the development of teaching methods (Emden, 2005, pp. 62-63). From this position, we could argue that the rhetoric as a tool for the use and formation of speech accommodates the learning of content and concepts concerning similar subjects, contributing to interdisciplinary teaching (such as literature-language history- environment study, physics etc.).

g. The aesthetic relationship of rhetoric and literature gives freedom to speech. This relationship gives the possibility for devising more speech forms, expanding the intellectual and imaginative horizons of students. Furthermore, this relationship (rhetoric and literature) helps the modern student and citizen, who receive daily a barrage of knowledge, to be led to the transmission of knowledge through literary texts. These texts provide knowledge in the subjects of history, philosophy, language, mathematics, etc.

h. With the dynamic use of rhetoric with the richness of speech forms the modern education could ensure the best conditions for a mature democratic dialogue between teachers and students, creating a situation of intimacy and cooperation. This has as a result an improvement of students in the formation and expression of speech and creates a mental happiness to the student. The student as a true artist-orator attempts to develop a communicational practice, satisfying his “perspectivism” which is none other than to better understand himself and the world, creating his own proof of
CONCLUSION

Nietzsche philosophizes through the aesthetic dimension of the language. This fact shows that Nietzsche’s view predominates the aesthetic and the art, which directs him to look at the man-rhetoric as an artist-creator and the world as humane work of art which has not finished yet. In this context Nietzsche attempts the interpretation of the world or the reality as an aesthetic phenomenon by means of the aesthetic dimension of the language, inciting the psychology of the audience in connection to his aesthetic action. Nietzsche provides an aesthetic-artistic action with the rhetoric. The rhetorician is the artist, who understands the power of the life by means of the ability to introduce positively and get the interpretation of the every time real with simplicity.

The rhetorician contents his thought with the help of the aesthetic dimension of the language. He refutes the proof of a truth or an objective reality by means of the glamour of the many perspectives, many viewpoints and many truths. In this way Nietzsche appoints the every time permissible, credible and likeable reality. Nietzsche reveals through the function of the aesthetic dimension of rhetoric language, the revelation of truth and the education of speech. The education of speech leads to right thinking through linguistic rules and helps the student to develop a communicational practice.

REFERENCES


THE KINDS OF PRINCIPALS TEACHERS PREFER: A CROSS-NATIONS STUDY

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ABSTRACT
Experience with the international copying of educational policies and practices suggests that “borrowed” changes are effective only if the underlying values are congruent with the culture of the receiving society. Consequently researchers are paying more attention to cultural issues. Although there is much agreement about the desirable characteristics and behaviors of good leaders, there is little information about the relative importance of those characteristics and behaviors in different cultures. This article reports findings from an investigation of Greek and Cypriot educators’ conceptions of positive and negative characteristics of school leaders and compares them against other researchers’ findings from other countries. The findings support the proposition that preferences for leadership style are different in different regions, and illustrate the need for caution in using “recommended practices” that were developed in other contexts.

Keywords: School principals, effectiveness, cultural differences, borrowing, globalization

1. INTRODUCTION
The history of studies of administration reflects a number of broad streams of inquiry, each defined by the then-dominant interests and methods. Even as early as 1958 Davies and Iannaccone, for example, posited three streams: a “technical” stream characterized by Taylorism, a “human relations” stream epitomized in the Western Electric studies, and the then-emergent “conceptual” stream. This typology was acceptable to another well-respected authority, Getzels (1960), who equated these streams with three general approaches to developing administrative theory: studying natural-born leaders, extracting general principles from “best practices”, and developing conceptual frameworks. The “conceptual” movement ushered in an enduring tradition of developing administrative principles based on “scientific” studies rather than ideological beliefs and personal experiences. But it was soon populated with alternative ways of thinking and conducting research, so that today studies of administration reflect a wide range of paradigms. In general the emergence of each paradigm was occasioned by a creeping awareness that the assumptions and foci of existing paradigms were deficient in some way.
For my purposes here, three weaknesses are particularly important. The first
weakness is that conceptualizations of leadership have been limited by the hegemony of a “heroic” paradigm (Harris 2003, Harris 2005, Lyman Ashby & Tripses 2005). This paradigm entails a tendency to see leadership as “positional” – that is, flowing from one influential individual, usually the occupant of a formally designated position or office. Instead, it has been argued, leadership should be seen as also flowing from individuals anywhere in a group as they influence an organization’s trajectory, through their decisions about the objectives they will support (or resist) and how they will interact with others. This leads to the notions of leadership as “distributed” and/or “dispersed” (MacBeath 2005). The second weakness is that organizational theory and research have tended to emphasize the technical and rational aspects of leadership, systematically neglecting the affective and moral dynamics of administration because they lie in “the neural dark” – beyond direct observation (e.g., Hodgkinson 1991, Begley, 1996, Evers & Lakomski 1996, Leithwood & Jantzi 2006). The third weakness is that easier travel and communication has resulted in widespread, often global awareness of “successful” administrative arrangements - and “borrowing” of policies and practices developed in other jurisdictions, nations, and cultures. But that is proving to be problematic, as there is mounting evidence that borrowed policies and practices will fail if they are not congruent with the values of the local culture (Brundrett Fitzgerald & Sommefeldt 2006, Steiner-Khamsi 2006).

This article relates to the last issue: It reports findings from research to investigate whether teachers in different countries (cultures) prefer different kinds of principals, with a primary focus on the leadership preferences of teachers in Greece and Cyprus.

This report of that research comprises four stages. First I review recent developments in understandings about the nature of leadership and the role that cultural factors may play in leadership preferences. Second I describe my investigation of teachers’ leadership preferences in Greece and Cyprus, present the findings, and compare those findings with the results of a parallel study by Zepp, Eckstein, Khalid, and Li (2011). In this part of the article I also take a look at the effects of making different assumptions about the nature of data from Likert scales. In the third section I relate my findings to the literature, commenting on how the findings reflect on extant understandings about leadership in schools, as well as the “borrowing” issue. In the final section I surface implications for further research and practice.

2. CONTEMPORARY UNDERSTANDINGS ABOUT THE NATURE OF LEADERSHIP

2.1. Conceptualizations

In most of the theoretical and research literature, the descriptions of leadership promote the heroic paradigm:

The “hero paradigm” of leadership ... emphasises the capabilities of one person to transform and improve an organisation. ... The school leader is the
This kind of leadership is typically “positional” and most obvious in bureaucratic organizations, where the right to control organizational affairs is formally allocated to a few individuals occupying designated “leadership” positions (offices), directives are transmitted via hierarchical “chains of command”, rules specify acceptable behaviour, and accountability is effected through close supervision. Heroic leadership is typical of organizations with centralized control – such as the systems of schooling in Greece and Cyprus. And the hegemony of the heroic assumption extends even to organizations where so-called “distributed” leadership (Woods & Gronn 2009) is advocated. For example, it has been found that in more effective schools where distributed leadership was ostensibly practised, in fact

the Heads ... had deliberately chosen to distribute leadership responsibility to others and had put in place systems and incentives to ensure this happened. ... [But] in all cases, they remained important gatekeepers to change and development, guiding their schools in a clear and purposeful direction.

(Harris 2005: 12).

As a result some theoreticians and researchers have become interested recently in a form of leadership that contrasts with heroic leadership in that it has no centers of concentrated control. It is referred to variously as dispersed leadership (MacBeath 2005), collective leadership (Leithwood & Mascall 2008), quantum leadership (Lazaridou & Fris 2008*), and organic leadership (Miller & Rowan 2006). The latter, for example, characterize this kind of leadership as

a shift away from conventional, hierarchical patterns of bureaucratic control toward what has been referred to as a network pattern of control, that is, a pattern of control in which line employees are actively involved in organizational decision making [and] staff cooperation and collegiality supplant the hierarchy as a means of coordinating work flows and resolving technical difficulties


Several caveats regarding this dispersed conception of leadership need to be emphasized, however. First, there is yet little empirical evidence about its dynamics. Second, members of the group must be in symbiosis – a readiness, based in personal confidence and trust, to engage in reciprocal social and professional exchanges.

2.2. Culture as mediating factor

A fairly recent development in studies of administration and leadership is the proposition that cultural factors mediate effectiveness. This phase in thinking and inquiry about administration began in the early 80s and many issues have been examined. One, arising out of the globalization of successful educational policies and practice, is the possibility that “borrowed” changes may fail because they are incongruent with the values and norms of the receiving society (Brundrett Fitzgerald & Sommefeldt 2006, Steiner-Khamsi 2006). To address this problem researchers
have been paying more attention to cultural issues (e.g., Hofstede & Bond 1988, Dimmock & Walker 1998, Dimmock & Walker 2000, Hofstede & Hofstede 2005, Zepp Eckstein Khalid & Li 2011). The groundbreaking studies of cultural differences in leadership practices and preferences were conducted in the field of business by Hofstede (1991). He concluded that cultures could be differentiated in terms of four variables – power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity, and individualism – and that managers should align their leadership style with the particular value orientations of the cultural contexts they operate in. For example, in a culture characterized by high uncertainty avoidance, managers must pay particular attention to ensuring that their instructions for others are always very clear.

In similar fashion research in educational settings has shown that leadership styles vary significantly among subcultures and subgroups (e.g., Zepp & Hong 2007). In this regard two recent investigations are particularly noteworthy, one focused on inter-cultural differences, the other showing intra-cultural differences.

The first study, by Zepp, Eckstein, Khalid, and Li (2011), investigated whether teachers’ perceptions of the characteristics and behaviors of good and bad leaders varied across seven countries, seven cultures. To do this Zepp and colleagues developed a questionnaire to assess teachers’ views regarding the characteristics and behaviors of good and bad leaders. The questionnaire consisted of four groups of eight items each: traits of good leaders, behaviors of good leaders, traits of bad leaders, and behaviors of bad leaders. Respondents were required to identify and rank three items in each of the four groups of items that they considered most characteristic. Zepp and colleagues then administered the questionnaire to teachers in seven countries: Cambodia, Hong Kong, Pakistan, Qatar, Taiwan, Uganda, and the United States of America. They found that the seven national groups’ conceptions of good and bad leaders differed significantly and that no single set of characteristics or behaviors emerged as universally important. For example “intelligent” was seen as very characteristic of good leaders by the Cambodian teachers but much less so by their American counterparts. Conversely, “broad vision” was seen as very characteristic of good leaders by the American teachers but not so by the Cambodian teachers. Further, even on what would appear to be the most culturally similar pair – that of Hong Kong and Taiwan – significant [differences] were observed on ... 10 of the 32 variables.

In the second study Yalçin and Erginer (2012) asked students, teachers, administrators, and parents of eight primary schools in northern Turkey (total n = 1875) to characterize school principals (“Directors”) in metaphorical terms: “The school Director is like .......... because ..........” They found that, as a group, the participants characterized principals as protector/guardian, guide/leader, manager/administrator, negative force – hostile and mercenary, valuable – sympathetic/helpful, power-center, and hardworking (pp. 251-252). However, the data also revealed that the sub-groups (sub-cultures) in the sample attached different priorities to the most common characteristics: students mentioned hostile/mercenary most often, teachers and administrators mentioned guide/leader most often, and parents mentioned protector/guardian most often (p. 250).
In sum, the concerns and findings highlighted in this section suggest that a country’s legislators and governors should be cautious about adopting policies and practices for preparing and appointing school administrators - such as - that are advocated in other countries. Even though there is much agreement about the desirable characteristics and behaviors of good leaders (e.g., Leithwood & Riehl 2003) and widely influential sets of corresponding performance standards have been constructed (e.g., Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium 2008), the relative importance of those characteristics and behaviors in different cultures has not received much attention and remains to be established.

3. THE STUDY

As noted earlier, a large body of leadership research supports the contingency principle – leaders must adjust their styles to fit the exigencies of different situations. In educational organizations such exigencies include the level of schooling; constraints and opportunities imposed by contracts regarding employment and working conditions; the educational priorities of the State, local authorities, and professional associations; and local value orientations. If the constructivist perspective is taken, this last factor suggests the proposition that a school principal’s perceived effectiveness - and corresponding acceptance by those she/he works with - is a function of how that principal is seen to “fit” the workplace ecology. In other words, whether a school’s principal is seen as good or bad, desirable or undesirable, depends in part on whether she/he displays or lacks the characteristics and behaviors valued in the school’s cultural setting.

The research I report here was designed to provide further insights into this proposition. Partly in keeping with the constructivist paradigm, it involved a survey of Cypriot and Greek educators’ conceptions of the personal characteristics that they believe differentiate more effective school leaders from less effective leaders.

Accordingly, my research questions were:

1. What are Greek educators’ conceptions of the features that define (a) desirable and (b) undesirable school principals?
2. What are Cypriot educators’ conceptions of the features that define (a) desirable and (b) undesirable school principals?
3. How do those conceptions compare?
4. How do the Greek and Cypriot educators’ conceptions compare with those of educators in Cambodia and the USA?

Before I describe the questionnaire in more detail, it is important to note three things about the survey instrument. First, it requires respondents to differentiate between “good” and “bad” leaders and thus employs a designation - “bad” - that some people prefer to avoid. To permit comparison of my data with those gathered
by Zepp and colleagues, I retained this term in my questionnaire; but in this report I do use “softer” synonymous terms. Second, the template questionnaire reflects the “positional” perspective on leadership, and I accepted this because it is congruent with the highly centralized and bureaucratic nature of the school systems in Greece and Cyprus. Third, the questionnaire presents respondents with an a priori set of personal characteristics and behaviors that were derived from the literature. Because of this it allows bounded responses and does not permit a pure constructivist approach to ascertaining educators’ conceptions of “good” and “bad” leaders.

The questionnaire consisted of 32 items in four clusters of eight items. The items in the four clusters presented characteristics of leaders that had been extracted from the literature, classified by Zepp and colleagues as follows:

Cluster 1 – Characteristics of a good leader
Cluster 2 – Behaviors of a good leader
Cluster 3 – Characteristics of a bad leader
Cluster 4 – Behaviors of a bad leader.

Respondents were required to select and rank order three characteristics in each cluster.

The Zepp et al (2011) questionnaire was translated into Greek by the author (a native Greek) and verified by independent judges who were fluent in both Greek and English and intimately acquainted with the administration of education in Greece and Cyprus. The questionnaire was made available to convenience samples of educators in Cyprus and Greece.

Out of about 477 questionnaires distributed, 310 usable questionnaires were received, a return rate of 65%. This sample consisted of 253 teachers (43% Greek, 57% Cypriot), 21 principals (24% Greek, 76% Cypriot), twenty respondents who occupied positions with various other responsibilities (55% Greek, 45% Cypriot), and 16 educators who did not indicate the positions they held. Table 1 shows the composition of the Cypriot and Greek samples in terms of country and position.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elemen. School teacher</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sec. School teacher</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cypru</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Demographics of the Samples

For analytic purposes the participants’ choices were coded 3 for the characteristic nominated first, 2 for the second nomination, and 1 for the third.

I processed my data in three stages. First I used descriptive frequencies to determine how the respondents profiled good and bad leaders using the
characteristics and behaviors presented in the questionnaire. Next, the Mann-Whitney U test was applied to search for differences in the Cypriot and Greek respondents’ notions of desirable and undesirable leaders. Finally I examined the data for differences between my data and data collected in two other countries. In this phase I also addressed a statistical issue associated with data from rating scales.

4. RESULTS

4.1. Distribution of responses

In the first phase of analysis, the data were treated as categorical (Kohlman & Mook nd; UCLA Academic Technology Services nd) and examined in terms of simple frequencies. Table 2 shows how often the characteristics and behaviors listed in the questionnaire were identified by all the participating educators as the primary desirable and undesirable characteristics of leaders. The frequencies are given as percentages of the total sample.

Table 2. Distribution of Selections

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Selected as 1st characteristic %</th>
<th>Selected as 2nd characteristic %</th>
<th>Selected as 3rd characteristic %</th>
<th>Total %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Desirable characteristics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Very intelligent</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Good public speaker</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Dependable and consistent</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Has broad vision, shares it with us</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Very friendly personality</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Honest and we can trust him/her.</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Very self-confident</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Persistent &amp; determined to achieve goals</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behaviors of a good leader</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Attends to our well-being and human needs</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Appeals to our higher moral selves</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Works with us as a team</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Gives very clear</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Characteristic</td>
<td>Selected as 1st characteristic</td>
<td>Selected as 2nd characteristic</td>
<td>Selected as 3rd characteristic</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Treats us with respect</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Invites us to share in decision making</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Seeks to improve social relationships</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Challenges us to perform at highest levels</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undesirable characteristics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Stupid</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Cannot express self well</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Not consistent in what is said and done</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Narrow minded</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Unfriendly personality</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Dishonest and deceitful</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Not confident about achieving our tasks</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Lacks strong will to succeed</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Behaviors of a bad leader

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Selected as 1st characteristic</th>
<th>Selected as 2nd characteristic</th>
<th>Selected as 3rd characteristic</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Works only to improve ego &amp; promote self</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Appeals to our selfishness</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. No sense of teamwork</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Fails to be clear about what we are to do</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Treats us like naughty children</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Acts as a dictator</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Fears, discourages criticism &amp; opposition</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Engages in corruption</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When they thought about desirable characteristics, the two that most often came to mind first and second were having a broad vision that they shared with their teachers and persistence and drive in achieving goals. At the third level of frequency was dependability and consistency. Incidentally, among the “good leaders” characteristics listed in the questionnaire, three were selected very seldom as characteristics that set effective principals apart: good public speaker (selected by only 4%), friendly personality (8%), and high intelligence (14%). This is not to say that these characteristics are of no consequence; rather, they are not, at least in the eyes of these educators, among the characteristics that set good leaders apart.

Of the eight desirable behaviors presented in the questionnaire, the two that were identified most often as distinguishing characteristics (either 1st, 2nd, or 3rd) were “treats us with respect” and “attends to our well-being and human needs”. As the cell-percentages show, there was little consensus about the ranking of these behaviors. Four behaviors were mentioned much less frequently as characteristics that distinguish a good leader: building social relationships, giving clear instructions, team worker, and sharing decision making.

In regard to undesirable characteristics, two were selected most often: “not consistent in what is said and done” (doesn’t walk the talk) and “dishonest and deceitful”. Two of the characteristics presented in this section of the questionnaire were apparently irrelevant to the respondents in profiling bad leaders: inability to express oneself and stupidity.

In the domain of undesirable behaviors, only one stood out: working only to improve personal status. However, this was by no means a clear first for all the respondents; 1st selection – 26%, second – 21%, and 3rd – 27%. The obverse of this coin is that this behavior was not chosen as a characteristic of a bad leader by 26% of the participants.

4.2. Differences in Cypriot and Greek participants’ conceptions

Table 3 presents the statistically significant differences in the two groups’ responses that were uncovered with a Mann-Whitney U test, suitable for categorical data.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics of a good leader</th>
<th>Mann-Whitney U</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>Grouping</th>
<th>Mea Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Table 3. Differences in Cypriot and Greek Educators’ Conceptualizations of Good and Bad Leaders
### Behaviors of a good leader

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behavior</th>
<th>Rank 1</th>
<th>Rank 2</th>
<th>Country 1</th>
<th>Country 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He/she is dependable and consistent.</td>
<td>3052.0</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>79.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He/she has a broad vision which he/she shares with us.</td>
<td>5104.0</td>
<td>.014</td>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>124.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He/she treats us with respect.</td>
<td>3640.0</td>
<td>.033</td>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>86.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He/she challenges us to perform at our highest possible level.</td>
<td>1531.5</td>
<td>.008</td>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>77.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He/she has a broad vision which he/she shares with us.</td>
<td>5104.0</td>
<td>.014</td>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>105.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He/she treats us with respect.</td>
<td>3640.0</td>
<td>.033</td>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>101.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He/she challenges us to perform at our highest possible level.</td>
<td>1531.5</td>
<td>.008</td>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>59.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Behaviors of a bad leader

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behavior</th>
<th>Rank 1</th>
<th>Rank 2</th>
<th>Country 1</th>
<th>Country 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He/she appeals to our selfishness.</td>
<td>236.5</td>
<td>.027</td>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He/she doesn't make it clear what he/she wants us to do.</td>
<td>651.5</td>
<td>.034</td>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>49.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He/she fears and discourages criticism and opposition.</td>
<td>1757.0</td>
<td>.035</td>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>76.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He/she appeals to our selfishness.</td>
<td>236.5</td>
<td>.027</td>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>33.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He/she doesn't make it clear what he/she wants us to do.</td>
<td>651.5</td>
<td>.034</td>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>38.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He/she fears and discourages criticism and opposition.</td>
<td>1757.0</td>
<td>.035</td>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>63.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first thing to note is that there were no significant differences ($p \leq 0.05$) in the Cypriot and Greek educators’ responses to the third set of questionnaire items – undesirable characteristics of a leader.

In regard to desirable characteristics, the mean rankings show that the Greek participants, compared with the Cypriot respondents, were more inclined to see good leaders as being dependable and consistent. Having and sharing a broad vision was more readily attribute to good leaders by the Cypriot participants. But it should be kept in mind that here we are looking at inter-group differences in responding to specific questionnaire items, not the relative weight or salience of a specific characteristics in the overall profile of an effective or less effective leader. As to desirable leader behaviors, there were two significant differences in the two groups’ mean rankings of items. The Greek participants were more inclined to attribute “treating others with respect” to good leaders, while “challenging us to perform at our highest possible level” was associated with good leaders more readily by the Cypriots.

With regard to undesirable behaviors, the Greek participants were more inclined to associate “appealing to our selfishness” with bad leaders. On the other hand the Cypriot participants were more inclined to associate bad leadership with not giving clear instructions and fearing and discouraging criticism and opposition.

Now, if we ignore for the moment differences in the participants’ rankings of their putative good and bad leaders’ primary characteristics (as supported by the above analysis for differences), the data show that the participant teachers had similar preferences. Both Cypriots and Greeks were of the opinion that good leaders have and promote a broad shared vision of education, are persistent and determined in their pursuit of goals, are dependable and consistent, treat others with respect, and foster the well-being and human needs of their staffs. At the more general level of interpretation, furthermore, one could venture that both the Greek
and Cypriot teachers characterized good principals as those who promote organizational goal achievement, primarily by striving to develop a robust shared vision and by demonstrating faith in others’ abilities. In contrast, poor principals were seen to be those who are unauthentic (not “walking the talk” and dishonest) and who compromise the common good by working to build their egos and promote themselves.

4.3. Comparison with findings for other countries

In the third phase of analysis the findings were compared with those reported by Zepp and colleagues (2011) - first in terms of the primary characteristics and behaviours of liked and disliked leaders, then in terms of differences between national groups.

4.4. Cross-national differences

Zepp et al (2011) presented the top three characteristics and behaviors (based on average ratings) identified in each of the seven countries they surveyed. Table 4 emulates this pattern to present and compare the findings for my sample of Cypriot and Greek teachers with the data for two of the seven countries in Zepp et al’s investigation: Cambodia and the USA. (I chose to feature only these two countries to avoid data overload and to have countries that I thought might prove to have similar and dissimilar value orientations.)

Table 4. Cross-cultural comparison of characteristics nominated most often in four countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive characteristics of school leaders</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Country</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive behaviors of school leaders</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Country</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Negative characteristics of school leaders</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Country</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The kinds of principals teachers prefer: a cross-nations study

Positive characteristics of school leaders

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>First</th>
<th>Second</th>
<th>Third</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>No willpower</td>
<td>Intelligent</td>
<td>Dishonest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Inconsistent</td>
<td>Dishonest</td>
<td>Narrow-minded</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Negative behaviors of school leaders

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>First</th>
<th>Second</th>
<th>Third</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>Not clear</td>
<td>No teamwork</td>
<td>Naughty children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>Selfishness</td>
<td>No teamwork</td>
<td>Fears criticism &amp; opposition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Naughty children</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>Corrupt</td>
<td>Self-promoting</td>
<td>Selfishness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Dictator</td>
<td>Self-promoting</td>
<td>Not clear</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Two characteristics in a cell – equal mean rankings*

The general picture painted by Table 4 tends to support the conclusion that there are differences across cultures in perceptions of what constitutes good and bad leadership.

In regard to the top three characteristics of good leaders, seven characteristics were referenced by respondents in the four countries; that is, there was a fair amount of variation in conceptions from country to country. Five characteristics were identified in only two countries – friendly, good public speaker, dependable, persistent, and honest. Self-confident and intelligent were each mentioned in only one country.

In regard to the top three behaviors of good leaders, there was both congruence and variance in conceptions across the four countries. Of the seven characteristics referenced, shared decision making was identified in all four countries. Exacting high performance and building social relationships were mentioned twice each. Cambodia was least “in step” with two of its top three characteristics not taken up in the other countries.

As to the characteristics of bad leaders, there was a fair amount of variation across countries. Mentioned twice each were unfriendly, narrow-minded, no willpower, and dishonest. As to the other three characteristics, each was referenced in only one country: not confident, stupid, and intelligent.

With regard to the behaviors of bad leaders, there was again a significant amount of variation – eight characteristics were referenced. Four were nominated in two countries each – unfriendly, narrow minded, no will-power, and dishonest. The other three characteristics were nominated in only one country each – stupid, intelligent, and inconsistent.

4.5. Effects of using alternative statistical procedures

The data I used raised two issues associated with the analysis of data from rating scales. First, there is controversy among statisticians about the kind of data produced by ranking scales – and the statistical procedures that are appropriate. Some argue that a 3-point (and even a 5-point) rating scale provides categorical or
 ordinal data, not interval or ratio; thus the data they produce are not amenable to
descriptive statistics like the mean and t-test (e.g., Kohlman and Mook, nd; UCLA
Academic Technology Services, nd). In this perspective differences in the responses
of different groups of respondents should be assessed with the Mann-Whitney U
test. The manual for SPSS verifies this (SPSS Inc., nd, pp. 420, 428). The second issue
was the need to compare the findings of this research with those of Zepp et al
(2011), who used Chi-square.

In light of these considerations, I analyzed my data with Chi-square tests and
compared the differences between Cypriots and Greeks that emerged with this
procedure compared with the differences between countries that Zepp and
colleagues (2011) observed.

Using Chi-square, then, five significant differences in my data were revealed, as
shown in Table 5

Table 5. Revisiting differences in Greek and Cypriot educators’ conceptualizations of
good and bad leaders: Chi-Square tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire item</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std dev</th>
<th>Chi-square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Characteristics of a good leader</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependable and consistent</td>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>.778</td>
<td>.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>.764</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Has broad vision, shares it with us</td>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>.868</td>
<td>.024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>.725</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behaviors of a good leader</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treats us with respect</td>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>.783</td>
<td>.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>.905</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Invites us to share in decision making</td>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>.861</td>
<td>.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td>.821</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenges us to perform at highest levels</td>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>.713</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>.828</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(p ≤ 0.05)

In some respects the two analyses produced parallel outcomes. But there were
differences. The first difference to note is that the Chi-square test indicated that
there were no differences in the Cypriot and Greek participants’ responses to items
in two sub-sections of the questionnaire: the characteristics and the behaviors that
define a bad leader. The Mann-Whitney test, though, indicated that there were
differences in responses to items in the “behaviors of a bad leader” section of the
questionnaire (see Table 3). The second difference is the Chi-square indication that
the Greek and Cypriots samples responded differently to the item “Invites us to
share in decision making” in the “behaviors of god leaders” section of the
questionnaire - while the Mann-Whitney test did not. These analyses, then, suggest
that the choice of analytical techniques can affect findings derived from rating-scale
data.
5. DISCUSSION

Experience with “borrowing” of educational policies and practices has indicated that it is important to fit administrative structures and practices to local contexts, in particular the values and norms of the receiving society or group (Brundrett Fitzgerald & Sommefeldt 2006, Steiner-Khamsi 2006, Lazaridou & Iordanidis 2011). As a result researchers have been paying more attention to cultural issues. In the arena of educational administration this involves paying attention to people’s preferences regarding leadership styles. By extension one particular issue is whether conceptions of good and bad leaders differ from culture to culture, and within cultures. In this regard the two investigations reviewed earlier provided evidence that they do (Zepp Eckstein Khalid & Li 2011, Yalçın & Erginer 2012).

My findings also support the proposition that preferences for leadership style are different in different countries and cultures. The similarity of Greek and Cypriot teachers’ conceptions of desirable and undesirable leaders that I found should not surprise - they are after all in close proximity, use the same language, have very similar social institutions and structures, and have a common heritage. That is, Cypriot and Greek educators are embedded in highly comparable cultures. Thus, in looking at cross-national differences in preferences and values, Greece and Cyprus should be treated as one analytical unit. When this perspective is adopted, my comparison of data from four countries shows clearly that educators’ conceptions of good and bad leaders were different in three cultures: Greece-Cyprus, Cambodia, and the USA.

Another conclusion suggested by my data is that there is good reason to be alert to the statistical procedures used to detect inter-group differences in data produced with ranking scales. When I subjected my data to Mann-Whitney U tests (suitable for categorical/ordinal data) and then Chi-square analyses (suitable for interval/ratio data) to surface significant differences in the responses of the Cypriot and Greek respondents, the former isolated differences on three questionnaire items that the latter did not. Conversely, Chi-square identified a difference on one item that the Mann-Whitney did not. Ergo, treating responses to ranking scales as categorical/ordinal data, as oppose to interval/ratio data, can lead different representations of reality.

In connection with the issue of seeing leadership as “positional”, it should be remembered that the instrument used for this research consisted almost exclusively of items that reflected this perspective. Indeed, only the data for two items could be taken as proxy indicators of a distributed (but not dispersed) approach to leadership: “Works with us as a team” and “Invites us to share in decision making”. These behaviors were not strong elements in the profiles of the participants’ “good” leaders. One possible interpretation of this finding is that my participants saw good leadership as more positional than distributed – let alone dispersed. This, it seems, is consistent with immersion in the long-entrenched systems of centralized-control of Greece and Cyprus. And it suggests that attempts to emulate the more decentralized systems that have been adopted in other countries may meet resistance by Greek and Cypriot teachers.
Finally, the conceptions of good and bad leaders that the Cypriot and Greek educators held have implications for the development of school principals in those countries—and perhaps in other countries. But when policies and practices related to leadership development are being planned, the principle of “glocalization” (Brundrett & Dering 2006) rather than globalization must be used—when looking to other countries’ policies and practices for guidance, care must be taken to co-opt only those aspects that fit the local values. My data suggested that policies and structures for the appointment and in-service evaluation of school principals in Greece and Cyprus should emphasize characteristics and behaviors that ensure leadership by individuals who (1) have faith in and are prepared to capitalize on the abilities of staff, (2) support and are adept in cultivating a shared school vision, and (3) inspire dedication to achievement of the organizational goals generated by that vision. Sadly this has not much been the case, even in the immediate past, for appointment and evaluation of principals in Cyprus and Greece have been influenced heavily by ability to cultivate relationships with political power-brokers and skill in currying favour (Athanasoula-Reppa 2005, Athanasoula-Reppa & Lazaridou 2008). To help change this situation it may be useful to investigate conceptions of desirable and undesirable principals qualitatively; that is, without the constraints of an a priori list of characteristics.

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Lazaridou, A., & Fris, J. (2008*). Slipping the yoke of the heroic paradigm: Looking for quantum leadership. International Electronic Journal for Leadership in Education, 12(21). *Critical figures in this article were distorted and omitted in the process of being uploaded to the Web. Contact first author for uncorrupted article.


Angeliki Lazaridou is Assistant Professor at the Department of Education, University of Thessaly. She teaches courses on organization and administration of education to undergraduate and graduate students. She has degrees in teaching, training diploma in special education-early intervention, special education master’s degree in early childhood and a doctorate in organization and administration of education. Her research interests focus mainly on educational administration and policy, school leadership, ethics and values, and gender.
THE PRESENT APPROACH TO GRAMMAR TESTING IN EFL COURSE BOOKS

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ABSTRACT

Since the aim of English language school program is to learn English for communicative purposes, this research aims to analyze the methodological features of some EFL course books used in Albanian secondary schools in order to probe into the main present approach to grammar testing and make methodological proposals for English language teachers for an effective grammar testing, teaching and learning, referring to recent research of foreign language acquisition. It is concluded that the EFL course books offer a structural approach to grammar testing, as most of the activities focus on the comprehension of the form and meaning of target structures. Including a variety of data options and operations can help teachers in assessing their learners holistically, focusing not only on the form of the target structures and the reading skills, but also on its meaningfulness and use and the other communicative skills.

Keywords: grammar testing, approach, course book, operations.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. The aim of the study

Testing is one form of assessing learners’ foreign language knowledge and competence and it is widely used in the world, including Albania. In our country, it is usually a decisive means in assessing learners’ language knowledge and competence, because of the relatively large (30-35 students) and mixed ability foreign language classes. Since the aim of EFL school program is to learn English for communicative purposes, it is important that course books provide teachers and learners with available practice materials for tests as to help them in the communicative language learning and teaching process.

Undoubtedly, the course books are the most pervasive tool for classroom-based foreign language learning as they support and facilitate teaching and learning process by including a carefully planned and balanced selection of language content and providing readymade texts and tasks with possible appropriate level for most of the class, which save time for the teacher (Ur 1999). Besides, the course books provide teachers and learners with a rubric called ‘Self-assessment’, ‘Self Check’ or ‘Progress Check’. As it is known, this rubric includes different tasks which focus on
the target language items presented in certain units of the course book. As such, it supports teaching and learning: it helps teachers to check their learners’ achievements in learning a FL; moreover, it helps learners themselves to know and recognize the standards they are aiming for.

This research aims to analyze some English language textbooks used in Albanian secondary schools in order to probe into the main present approach to grammar testing and make methodological proposals for English language teachers for an effective grammar testing, teaching and learning, referring to recent research of foreign language acquisition. The selected English course books may be used in other countries abroad or may have characteristics in common with other English course books; therefore the findings and the methodological proposals can be significant to other teachers of English as a FL abroad who use them in teaching and learning English communicatively. Moreover, the findings and the methodological proposals can be significant to teachers of other foreign languages who notice the same deficiencies in their foreign language course books and who view testing as a decisive means in assessing their learners’ language knowledge and competence. This study is limited to the selected course books published by Express Publishing.

1.2. The approaches to grammar teaching and testing

As teaching and testing are closely interrelated, it is obvious that the development of different theories and approaches of language learning and teaching has also affected the history of language and grammar testing. Under the influences of the theoretical and empirical developments in other sciences as well, there have been three general approaches to language and grammar teaching:

- **Focus on forms** represented by grammar-based methods (grammar-translation, audio-lingual, oral and situational, silent way, total physical response, presentation-practice-production) (Richards, Rodgers 2001); it emphasized the role of grammar in language learning.
- **Focus on meaning** approach represented by communication-based methods (communicative, notional-function, content-based, task-based) (ibid.); based on the assumption that learners are able to acquire the language implicitly, it focused on an exposure to meaningful communication.
- **Focus on form** (focus on forms and meaning) approach draws learners’ attention to linguistic forms in the context of meaningful communication.

As Larsen-Freeman (2009: 522) noted, the pedagogic approach to the teaching of grammar differs in various parts of the world, depending on the pedagogic traditions. In Albania, language teachers (of native and foreign one) have always believed in the efficacy of explicit grammar instruction (Kaçani 2013: 146); as a result grammar has had a very important place in language teaching, learning and testing learners’ language skills.

As far as testing grammar is concerned, there have been two main approaches to language and grammar testing: a structural approach and a communicative one.
(Hedge 2000, Larsen-Freeman 2009, Purpura 2004). Over time, in the world, assessment of grammatical ability has changed depending on what language teachers have chosen to assess under ‘grammar’ and the ways in which these assessments have been carried out (Purpura 2004: 4). For example: in Grammar-translation Method, grammar was assessed through the ability to recite rules or to provide an accurate translation; whereas in Audio Lingual Method, through the ability to infer a rule from examples of the target language (ibid., Larsen-Freeman 2000, Richards 2001).

Traditional linguistics, considering the language as a formal system and mental phenomenon, isolated from the communicative context, led to a structural approach to language testing. It provided language teachers with a wealth of information about grammatical forms and the rules that govern them what served as a basis for syllabus design, materials preparation and classroom assessment for several decades. As Larsen-Freeman (2009: 533) has noted the traditional approach to assessing grammar has defined grammatical knowledge ‘in terms of accurate production and comprehension and then assessed through the four skills’. Testing is typically done by means of isolated sentences, using techniques such as sentence unscrambling, fill-in-the-blanks, error correction, sentence completion, sentence combining, sentence transformation, table completion, picture description, elicited imitation, judging grammatical correctness and modified cloze passages (ibid.). Such techniques are not considered thoroughly effective in testing learners’ FL knowledge and competence because, as Larsen-Freeman has noted, ‘such formats test learners’ grammar knowledge, but they do not assess whether they can use grammar correctly in real-life speaking or writing’ (ibid.).

Hymes’ theory of communication (1972) has had a great impact on foreign language teaching and assessment: shifting the emphasis of language classrooms from a formal grammatical focus to a communication-based one. The contemporary linguistics, considering the language as a functional system and social phenomenon, has led to an integrative (Larsen-Freeman 2009: 533) or communicative (Hedge 2000: 378) approach to language testing. It has offered a language description that takes into consideration its different communicative contexts. Grammar, in the communication perspective, stands not only for form, but also for meaningfulness and pragmatic appropriacy. Language proficiency, as McNamara and Roever (2006, cited in Larsen-Freeman 2009: 533) has noted, is not seen in terms of knowledge of structures (which could best be assessed using discrete-point items), but in terms of the ability to integrate and use the language knowledge in performance, which could best be assessed through the production and comprehension of written texts and through face-to-face interaction. Clearly, grammar viewed as one component of the communicative competence (Canale & Swain 1980, Hymes 1972) can be tested only if the learner (language user) is included in a communicative context. This communicative context (including the aim of communication, the context of the communication and the co-communicator) must be comprehensive for him/her in order that he uses the target grammar appropriately to the given context of communication.
Based on these arguments and evidence, attention has been given to improve test compilation for testing grammar communicatively. Rea-Dickins has suggested a task-based approach to the communicative testing of grammar, within which there are at least five factors that make a grammar test communicative (1991: 125):

- the contextualization of test items: a test should not comprise a number of de-contextualized single sentences
- the identification of a communicative purpose for the test activity
- the identification of an audience to whom the communication is addressed
- instructions to the test taker that focus on meaning rather than on form
- the opportunity for the test taker to create his/her own message and to produce grammatical responses as appropriate to a given context

Weir (1993, cited in Hedge 2000: 378) has given a summary of operations where learners can be involved in testing their language knowledge and competence; for example: comprehending the main message, understanding certain details, guessing meaning of the new words from the contexts etc. These activities ask learners not only just to use correctly the linguistic structures, but also appropriately to their communicative contexts.

Evidences of this improvement are some well-known standardized examinations, such as TOEFL and TOEIC, which no longer include a separate section of the test that deals with grammatical structures explicitly; they are integrated in the materials of reading, listening, writing and speaking. What about the course books? Do they provide FL teachers and learners with practice materials for testing grammar within a communicative curriculum?

2. METHODOLOGY

2.1. Research Materials

The selected English language course books (firstly published by Express Publishing in 2008) are presented in Table 1. They are commonly used in teaching English in public Albanian secondary schools. Further information about the selected course books has been summarized in Table 1. The same book levels have purposefully been chosen as to minimize the effects of other related factors (Celce-Murcia 1991).

The examples that are used to illustrate the methodological options in the course books are taken from one sample section of each course book appended at the end of the research so as to make it more comprehensible to a wider audience, including people interested not only in teaching and learning English but also other foreign languages.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nr.</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Section</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Click On (Student’s Book)</td>
<td>Virginia Evans</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Self-assessment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Neil O’Sullivan</td>
<td></td>
<td>1-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Access (Student’s Book)</td>
<td>Virginia Evans</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Self Check 1-10</td>
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</table>
2.2. Method

With the purpose to unearth the methodological options utilized in the above selected course books related to grammar testing, the course books have been analyzed using two sets of Ellis’ system of methodological options employed in grammar practice books (Ellis 2002): data and operations. The data options involve the provision of text containing exemplars of the target structure. Data options are subdivided in terms of source, text size and medium. Source refers to whether the data provided consists of authentic materials (texts from a real-life context) or contrived materials (a pedagogic context i.e. the author has devised the sentences to illustrate the grammar point). Text size concerns whether the data consists of discrete sentences or is continuous. Finally, the text comprising the data can be written or oral. The operations refer to the activities in the course books. They are classified according to whether they involve production (to produce sentences containing the target structure), reception (to perform some activity to demonstrate learners have understood sentences containing the target structure), or judgment (to identify whether sentences containing the target structure are grammatical or ungrammatical). Production activities can be controlled [to operate on a text (usually discrete sentences) in a way that involves producing the target form e.g., substitution, gap-filling, sentence completion, transformation, insertion, jumbled sentences] or free (to construct their own sentences using the target structure). Reception activities can be controlled (students are able to control the speed to process the sentences containing the target structure) or automatic (students are required to process sentences in real time). Finally, judgment tasks can involve judgment only (stating whether a sentence is or is not grammatical) or correct (trying to correct the sentences judged to be ungrammatical).

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The methodological features of the selected course books related to grammar testing are summarized in table 2.

Referring to data options, all the course books provide tasks that include contrived written texts and discrete sentences focusing on the target structures of the respective units. For example: exercise 5, 7 in Click On, p. 24 which ask learners
to put the verbs at a certain tense form; similarly exercise 5 in Blockbuster, p. 22; exercise 3, 4 in Access, p. 20; exercise C, D, E in Access (Teacher’s), p. 98; 4, 5 in Wishes, p. 40. The last four exercises (D, E in Access, 4, 5 in Wishes) ask learners to practice certain determiners in discrete sentences. The use of contrived written texts and discrete sentences focusing on the target structures, characteristic of an structural approach to testing, is not considered effective in testing learners’ FL knowledge and competence as it does not assess their ability in using the target structures correctly in real-life communication (Larsen-Freeman 2009: 533). What is more, as language is context-sensitive i.e. an utterance is fully intelligible only in its context (Weaver 1996), continuous texts opposed to discrete sentences are needed to check learners’ awareness of form, meaning and use of the target structure.

Besides the above exercises, Click On and Access (Teacher’s) provide authentic, continuous and oral texts (respectively exercises: 9, 10, 11, p. 25; E, F, H, p. 99-100) giving the learners opportunities to work on the language used in real-life communication. As Thornbury (2008: 73) has noted, nowadays, course book writers generally adopt simplified authentic texts which ‘retain their flavor’. But this seems not to be thoroughly true when referring to language or grammar testing. Only two from six selected course books make use of authentic texts.

What is more, Click on and Access (Teacher’s) have an advantage in presenting data in oral and written form what can help teachers in checking learners’ language proficiency in both written and oral speech.

Table 2. The methodological features of the selected course books

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<th>Nr.</th>
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<th>Operations</th>
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<td>2.</td>
<td>Access</td>
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<td>3.</td>
<td>Access (Teacher’s)</td>
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<td>√</td>
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<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Blockbuster (SB)</td>
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<td>5.</td>
<td>Blockbuster (WB&amp; GB)</td>
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<td>6.</td>
<td>Wishes</td>
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Table 2. The methodological features of the selected course books

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<td>Production</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Controlled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Click On</td>
<td>√</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Access</td>
<td>√</td>
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</table>
Referring to operations, controlled production activities are widely used, generally including discrete sentences; for example: gap-filling (exercise 5, 7, 8 in Click On, p. 24-25; exercise 5 in Blockbuster, p. 22 and in Acess, p. 20), transformation (exercise 5 in Wishes), jumbled paragraphs (exercise 9 in Click On, p. 25). Free production and controlled reception activities are only used in Click On and Access (Teacher’s), but they are less in number comparing to the previous mentioned activities; for example: exercise 9, 10 in Click On, p. 25; H, I in Access (Teacher’s), p. 99-100. All the course books do not provide any automatic reception and judgment activities. Therefore more free production, reception and judgment activities are needed to be included in order to give teachers and learners more opportunities to check the use of the linguistic structures not only in terms of correctness, but also meaningfulness and appropriateness in communicative contexts.

4. CONCLUSIONS

Analyzing and comparing the methodological features of some English language textbooks related to grammar testing, it is concluded that these books offer a structural approach to grammar testing as most of the activities focus on the comprehension of the form and meaning of target structures. Choosing to use sample tests like those included in Blockbuster and Wishes means checking the learners’ knowledge of the target structures focusing more on their form than on their meaning and use. That is because of the inclusion of the controlled production exercises that contain contrived and discrete sentences. If teachers strictly use only such tests for assessment purpose, they may feed their students’ belief that the form of the language is more important than the other aspects, or that grammar is concerned with just the form of the language. Therefore their learners may focus more on the grammatical form than the grammatical meaningfulness and use. Unlike Blockbuster and Wishes, Click on and Access sample tests include authentic continuous texts (besides contrived and discrete sentences) giving learners opportunities to focus not only on the form of the target structures, but also to their appropriate meaning and use. This is their advantage. Furthermore, they [Click on and Access (Teacher’s)] give learners opportunities to integrate language and communication skills. But they lack: judgment tasks which contribute to testing a deeper comprehension of the target structure; automatic reception exercises which check learners’ ability to process sentences in real time, as in real-life communication; for example listening to a text and answering the questions.
[focusing on, as Weir (1993) suggested, comprehending the main message or understanding certain details] included in the listening material immediately after the text.

Referring to recent research of foreign language acquisition, a structural approach to grammar testing does not enhance their language or grammar acquisition for communicative purpose. Including a variety of data options and operations can help teachers in assessing their learners holistically, focusing not only on the form of the target structures and the reading skills but also on its meaningfulness and use and the other communicative skills. This is the current challenge to ESL/EFL teachers when using only this format of assessment. Otherwise, teachers need to find and use other effective techniques (see Nassaji & Fotos 2011) and formats (see Hedge 2000, Purpura 2004) in order to respond to the communicative model of grammar teaching and testing. However, FL teachers’ decision on how to test grammar has to be taken individually, based on their testing goals and situation and professional judgment. What is recommended is a simultaneous and supplementary focus on both accuracy and fluency of language use.

Since this study is limited to the above selected course books, future study can be carried out by covering a larger number of EFL course books including different publishers in order to have a wider view of the present approach to grammar testing in EFL course books all over the world.

REFERENCES


**BRIEF BIOGRAPHY**

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THE KINDS OF PRINCIPALS TEACHERS PREFER: A CROSS-NATIONS STUDY

APPENDIX

Wishes (student’s Book), p. 40

Blockbuster (Workbook & Grammar Book), p. 167

Blockbuster (Student’s Book), p. 22

1. Circle the correct answer.
   1. She usually ... her friends at the weekend.
   2. He ... basketball on Friday evening.
   3. She ... the country tomorrow morning.

2. Fill in the correct word.
   1. ... Spencer like his job? Yes, he likes it a lot.
   2. ... you listen to music? Yes, we are going out.
   3. Does Mike play tennis? Yes, he does.

3. Underline the correct item.
   1. I am believing/believe that she is lying.
   2. He usually/usually do it to you.

4. Choose the correct word.
   1. He is/He is not the best driver in the world.
   2. She is/She is not happy about it.

5. Choose the correct word.
   1. Talk about your feelings/feelings.
   2. Ask if you are feeling better.

6. Complete the gap with the words derived from the words in capitals.

7. Choose the correct preparation.
   1. Never put the blame/like on others.
   2. Never put the blame/better on his success.
   3. She was always running outside/around for new ideas.

8. Are you aware of the consequences?

Now I can ...
Access (Student’s Book), p. 20

1. Match the words.
   1. read
   2. send
   3. go
   4. make
   5. learn
   6. sit
   7. watch
   8. shopping
   9. a DVD
   10. the table
   11. a magazine
   12. your bed
   13. a text message
   14. your room
   15. a foreign language

4. Complete the sentences with the correct form of the words in brackets.
   1. Carl (never/drink) milk.
   2. School (sometimes/be) boring.
   3. Mum (often/cook) my favourite meal.
   4. We (usually/play) football after dinner.
   5. Sam and Pat (always/be) on time.

5. Complete the dialogue with: I'm afraid I can't, I'd love to.
   A: Would you like to go to the cinema? Yes, speaking.
   B: Are you free on Friday?

Choose the correct word.
   1. My father is a tall/short man.
   2. Jack is very clumsy/elegant. He always breaks things.
   3. My mum has got slim/long hair.
   4. David Beckham is very short/tall.
   5. Be funny/careful! There is a man behind you.
   6. Supermarkets are short/thin.
   7. Don't be sweet/silly.
   8. I have got friendly/straight hair.

Write the verbs in brackets in the present simple.
   1. Mary (go) to school by bus.
   2. (you/stand) your room every day.
   3. (Mark/not speak) Italian.
   5. My father (not walk) to work.
   6. (Bob/play) football.
   7. I (not/cook) very well.
   8. We (eat) breakfast every morning.
   9. Babies (sleep) all day.
   10. Helen (do) her homework in the afternoon.

Click On (Student’s Book), p. 24

Vocabulary
1. What's the time? Say it in two ways.

2. a) Fill in: have, get, go, talk, do, catch, meet, brush, surf, wash, wash, visit. Use the phrases to talk about what you do on Mondays.
   b) What do you do in your free time at weekends?

3. Fill in the correct verb.
   2. Secretary ______ letters.
   3. Computer ______ the news.
   4. Shop assistant ______ customer.
   5. Nurse ______ after sick people.


5. Put the verbs in brackets into the present simple or the present continuous.
   1. Jenny ______ (not/wash) her hair every day.
   2. Mr and Mrs Brown ______ (drive) to work together in the mornings.
   3. Jane ______ (visit) Spain on holiday this year.
   4. She ______ (use) the computer at the moment.
   5. He ______ (walk) to school most days.
   6. Brian ______ (not/work) today. It's his day off.
   7. What ______ (you/we) to the party tonight, Sharon?
   8. I ______ (not/watch) playing tennis?

6. Use the prompts to say what Winnipeg used to be like and what it is like today.
   - very few cars – nice houses – huge blocks of flats
   - loss - gardens - clean air – polluted air

7. Put the verbs in brackets into the past simple.
   1. How ______ (be) the party last night?
   2. Do you ______ (have) a fantastic time, thanks?
   3. Amy ______ (call) while you were out.
   4. Oh, ______ (you/take) a message?
   5. Rob ______ (travel) all over Europe last year.
   6. ______ (we/have) a good time?
Access (Teacher’s resource pack & tests), p. 99-100

**Everyday English**

**TEST 8 (Module 8)**

F. Choose the correct response.

- Is that to eat-in or takeaway?  
  - A Coke, please.  
  - B Here you are.  
  - C Thank you.  
  - D Takeaway, please.  
  - E I’d like a cheeseburger, please.

G. Translate sentences 30-33 from Ex. F.

**Reading**

H. Read the email below and mark the statements as T (true) or F (false).

Dear Mandy,

How are you? I hope you’re well. It was my birthday last Saturday. I was really sorry you couldn’t come to my party. We had a great time!

I decorated my house with colourful balloons and we all played some great party games such as ‘Simon Says’.

My mother made pizza, ham and cheese sandwiches, chicken and a tuna salad. The highlight of the party, though, was my birthday cake. It was a delicious chocolate cake!

Talk to you soon,

Lizzy

- Mandy’s birthday was last Saturday.  
- Lizzy decorated the house with balloons.  
- ‘Simon Says’ is a party game.  
- Lizzy cooked the food.  
- There was more than one salad.  
- Lizzy doesn’t like chocolate.

**Writing**

- Write an email to a friend to tell (him/her) about your birthday party last Saturday (80 words).
- Write about the:  
  - decorations  
  - games  
  - food

**Listening**

J. Listen to two people talking about a recipe and complete the missing information.

**Pizza Crackers**

- 8 salt crackers
- 43) spoonfuls pizza sauce
- 44) slices pepperoni
- some mushrooms
- some mozzarella cheese

THE SCHOOL IMPACT ON BRIDGING AND BONDING SOCIAL CAPITALS: THE CASE OF 12 POLISH ADOLESCENTS IN ATHENS

Monika Rerak-Zampou
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1. INTRODUCTION

Social capital is a sociological concept, which refers to the everyday interactions between people and connections between members of groups or networks. Despite its cross disciplinary usefulness, the term social capital remains vaguely and variously defined in scholarly usage (Gonsalves, 2007). Social capital is an attractive and immediately advantageous perspective in trying to understand various processes that occur in societies within changing times. Regardless of the importance of this concept proved by broad scientific research, only few studies have investigated the potential difference in the relationship between bonding versus bridging social capital and school’s impact on them. Drawing upon a research on social and school integration of 12 Polish adolescents from Polish immigrant families residing in Athens, Greece, this study seeks to examine the association between bridging and bonding social capitals and the assumed influence of school on each type of the capital. Following Putnam’s (2000) distinction between bonding and bridging social capital, we utilize social capital as participation in social networks fostered by the school. Presented data consider social capitals relative to 12 Polish adolescents attending schools in Athens, Greece. The general aim of the study that the presented paper is based on focused on addressing the social and school integration of Polish adolescents and also at identifying what fosters these processes for children with an immigrant background. It was a qualitative research relying on semi-structured in-depth interviews with 12 respondents, aged 17 and 18 years old, from Greek and the Polish high schools in Athens, as well as on literature review and text analysis (on social integration, social capital, migrations and adolescence).

2. POLISH MIGRATION TO GREECE

Polish citizens are among ten largest immigrant groups, in terms of population size, residing in Greece. They were coming to this country mainly in the search of work and better living conditions. Curiosity and attraction towards the country itself, with its climate, culture and traditions, have always worked as pull factors appealing to Polish people (Romaniszyn, 1996, Triandafyllidou & Gropas, 2006). Yet, Greece has never been one of the main destinations for Polish emigrants. The waves of migration from Poland to Greece are related to the social, political...
and economical circumstances in Poland combined with Greece’s migratory policies (Maroufof, 2009). In the immediate post war period and later some Polish citizens were settling in Greece mainly due to marriage to a Greek citizen. The first huge inflow of Polish immigrants came in the early 1980s after the imposition of Martial Law in Poland. During this phase emigrants following the Solidarity refugees came to Greece as false tourists and then stayed as false refugees (Maroufof, 2009) treating Greece as a transit-country on their way to the US, Canada or Australia (Romaniszyn, 1996). Romaniszyn (1996) indicates that between 1987 and 1991 more than 200 000 Polish people were in Greece, most of them in Athens. Men found work in construction or harvesting and women in the service sector. The collapse of the Communist regime in Poland in 1989 started a new wave of Polish immigration to Greece. Following phase of Polish immigration to Greece was characterized by the year 1995 when Polish citizens were not required to possess a visa in order to stay in Greece for a period up to three months. At the beginning of new millennium Polish workers constituted the third largest group of undocumented immigrants in Athens (Siadima, 2001) with 80% concentrated in Attica. In 2003 the Greek ambassador in Poland estimated that the number of Polish residents in Greece was 40 to 50,000 people (Triandafyllidou & Gropas, 2006, p. 15). The majority of Polish immigrants belonged to the most productive age groups: 20 to 50 years old (both men and women). These were mostly single men and women, but also entire families migrated (Christou, 2008). Accession of Poland into the EU’s structures did not change dramatically the number of Polish citizens residing in Greece, as it was in case of other EU countries. Table 1 presents numbers of Polish citizens in Greece according to Central Statistical Office of Poland.

Table 1. Emigration from Poland to Greece. Source: Central Statistical Office of Poland (http://www.stat.gov.pl/)

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<td>Thousands</td>
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Decrease in Polish population can be noticeable after 2008 crisis that has largely hampered situation of immigrants in Greece making loads of them leave this country in search for better life elsewhere. Entire Polish families started to re-emigrate to other EU countries (UK, Germany, Denmark, Sweden), some chose more distant locations (Canada) or returned to Poland. No one, not even Polish Embassy in Greece or Greek authorities, was able to exactly estimate the amount of Polish citizens in Greece (Romaniszyn 1996, Christou, 2008; Maroufof, 2009). However, it is said that only about one third of the Polish immigrants that resided in Greece before the crisis still live in this country.¹

Currently, Polish population in Greece is concentrated in Attica, with the cultural

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¹ This information comes from author’s meeting with the representative of the Polish Parish and Embassy which took place in spring 2014. No official documentation has confirmed this information so far.
center in Michail Voda Street, where Polish Catholic Church of Christ Savior is located. Around that district large informal network of Polish private services is organized (including everything starting from child care, shops, restaurants finishing with legal offices, surgeries, etc.). This area is a meeting place for Polish citizens where they can socialize and exchange information concerning all the aspects of immigrant life in Greece. Polish immigrants in Greece seem to be among organised minorities in this country (Lazaridis & Romaniszyn, 1998). According to Lazaridis and Romaniszyn, (1998, p. 12) Polish workers in Greece have a relatively high level of specialization and education. Men are mainly specialized in construction (and this is their typical job and women - in service sector including catering, cleaning, entertainment, etc. (Siadima, 2001). When it comes to educational level of the Polish immigrants in Greece it is said to be higher not only than that of Greece’s total foreign population, but also than its general population. According to the data of the Labour Force Survey for the 2nd quarter of 2008 86% of Polish immigrants living in Greece were graduates of secondary education, or higher, while the corresponding percentage for the country’s total population was 66% (Maroufof, 2009, p. 11).

Peculiarity of Polish immigrants in Greece lies in the fact that these people finding themselves in a foreign country, with difficulties in the language, customs and religion, create a social niche were they inform themselves about the homeland, socialize and create a microcosmos on the periphery of the Greek society - a protected environment of solidarity and friendship formed in the city center of Athens (Siadima, 2001, p. 16). Lazaridis & Romaniszyn (1998) call this phenomenon invisible community. These scholars believe that Polish networks should not be understood as an ethnic enclave or as a community seeking to preserve its cultural or ethnic identity. They seem rather to be functional in catering for the cultural, social and economic needs of Polish immigrants in Athens. These networks have a pivotal role in partly rendering Polish immigrants autonomous from Greek society but also, to a certain extent, they act as sources of contact between Poles and Greeks. Another characteristic of Polish immigration in Greece is its “family” character: Polish immigrants either came to Greece with a family, or started a family there: got married and had children in Greece.

3. EDUCATION OF POLISH CHILDREN IN ATHENS

In terms of education Polish families in Athens get to select from the variety of educational offers: Greek public and private schools, various international schools as well as the Group of Schools at Polish Embassy in Athens (GoSaPEiA). However, taking into account the migratory pattern that majority of Polish migrants’ present, namely economic migration characterized by low paid jobs, the actual school choice concerns free of charge institutions: either the public Greek schools or the GoSaPEiA. The GoSaPEiA is one of the biggest Polish schools of this kind outside Poland. It was held for the Polish children temporarily residing in Greece. The number of pupils in the school year 2009-2010 (when the study was done) was
1358: 709 pupils from daily (‘regular’) system and 649 from complementary system (Saturday lessons for Polish children attending Greek high schools). The GoSaPEiA included primary school, junior high school and high school. All lessons were in Polish; Greek language was thought as a foreign one. School is coordinated by The Group of Schools for Polish Citizens Temporarily Living Abroad, with headquarters in Warsaw. It is funded from the Polish state budget. Since 1997, the GoSaPEiA operates on regulations same for all public schools in Poland, implements entire curriculum for a full program of the Polish school. Complementary curriculum includes Polish language, history and geography of Poland, religion and social studies.

4. THE NOTION OF SOCIAL CAPITAL

Social capital is often conceptualized as a set of norms and values such as truthfulness, honesty, principle reciprocity, trust, etc., shared by members of a group. It is also referred to as a network of connections and dependencies, which together form a structure that enables and facilitates the functioning of individuals. Social capital is unique in that it is the product of relationships: it is generated by, between and among people, in their interactions (Adler & Kwon, 2002 cited by Gonsalves, 2007). This concept describes the various resources that people may have through their relationships in families, communities and other social networks (Catts & Ozga, 2005). In a broader perspective, “networks of people can be viewed as a wider set of norms and relationships that enable people to achieve their goals” (Salem, 2009, p.13). Social capital describes circumstances in which individuals can use membership in groups and networks to secure benefits (Sobel, 2002). It is also a powerful form of learning, as it provides a range of social settings in which one can observe, practice and develop various skills (Field, 2005). Social capital is also viewed as an important social resource in the process of ethnic identity formation and the maintenance of kinship bonds (Reynolds, 2007, p.384).

It is believed that the notion of social capital first appeared in Lyda Judson Hanifan’s discussions of rural school community centers (Infed, 2011 after: Hanifan 1916, 1920). The encyclopedia of informal education implies that Hanifan used the term to describe those tangible substances [that] count for most in the daily lives of people (1916: 130). It is believed that the notion of social capital was introduced in a systematic manner into the social theory in 1983 by Pierre Bourdieu, and then utilized, inter alia, by James Coleman and Robert Putnam. These three scholars are referred to as the intellectual triumvirate of social capital (Law & Mooney, 2006).

According to McGonigal (2007, p.3) central to Bourdieu, Coleman and Putnam’s attempts to define the social capital is its location as belonging to and existing within the relational bonds of human society: the durable network of relationships (Bourdieu, 1983), the social structure (Coleman, 1994), or social networks (Putnam, 2000). Still, these three scholars are associated with different schools to understand and define this concept: Coleman refers to social capital as to resources available to individuals and families to achieve social mobility; Putnam saw it as foundation for
civil society important for economic growth and establishing democratic institutions; Bourdieu believed that social capital is about power and inequalities and how they are reproduced in social networks (Dwyer et al., 2006).

Although differences arise among users of the notion of social capital in relation to a precise definition, there is a broad agreement that trust, norms (of reciprocity) and social sanctions are at the core of this concept. Social capital is also strongly connected to power: a person’s social capital can provide him with networks of advantage linking to skills, ideas and knowledge which can then be used to one’s own advantage (Morrice, 2007). There are different forms of social capital: family, school, people living in the same neighborhood, classmates, civic organizations one is member of, internet chat group, etc. The forms of social capital can be divided into formal: e.g., actions linked to authorities, parents’ organizations, and informal (Putnam, 2004, p.7-10): people playing football, gathering in one pub, family dinners, etc. Thus, social capital is a summary of all different forms put together.

The issue of adolescents’ social capital is a relatively new in the scientific research and generally connected to exploring young people’s use of social capital in constructing identity across diverse ethnic and racial groups (Reynolds, 2007). As shown in scientific research, young people’s social networks are generally informal, based on friends and acquaintances (Tomanovic, 2005). Their uniqueness lies in the fact that they are mostly based on friendships, but also, on a smaller scale, on family members and neighbors. The concept of social capital is useful for understanding the essence of friendship networks that generate wider social contacts and networks, which additionally benefit individuals. Social capital is a product of social relationships (such as trust, loyalty, security, self-confidence) that youths have within such groups as the family, school, and other community organizations (Bassani, 2007). Adolescents might participate in, as Putnam (1993) named them, voluntary networks, such as sports and other after school activities. Moreover, they can also be involved in formal community networks or take part in actions linked to local authorities.

5. BRIDGING AND BONDING SOCIAL CAPITALS

A complete definition of social capital sees it as a product drawn from the combination of bridging and bonding relationships (Gonsalves, 2007). These notions come from the works of Robert Putnam (2000, p.22–24). Bonding social capital means relationships between members of one (homogenous) social group such as friends, close family members, neighbors and work colleagues, thus people who are similar in ethnicity, age, social class, etc. with their associated cognitive values, beliefs, and attitudes. Naturally, relationship between people that are similar is more likely to strengthen links within a group: social capital lays the structure for specific reciprocity and mobilizes solidarity (Salem, 2009, p.14). Bridging social capital is a resource that encompasses various people across different social cleavages (Putnam, 2000, p.22-24) and helps them to build relationships with a wider, more varied set of people than those in the close family or school.
environment. It is characterized by loose ties e.g. more distant acquaintances from other circles, groups or social classes, people belonging to different communities, or those from another ethnic group. It is believed that social ties outside the close circle of people similar to one another are relevant in creating mutual understanding and in achieving advancement in life (Karsten, 2010). Bridging social capital enforces exchange of information. It bridges for example at school and with community organizations (Gonsalves, 2007). Tomai et al. (2010) state that bridging networks literally create ‘bridges’ among people who normally would not have chances to meet and co-operate. The relationships that they develop may lack in depth, but they offer breadth: they provide the chance to get to know people of various backgrounds (Tomai, et al. 2010).

When discussing bridging and bonding social capitals one should remember that these are not “either/or” categories, but rather that many groups bond along some social dimensions and bridge across others (Walseth, 2008). When these two kinds of capitals are combined the deeper aspects of network dynamics are uncovered and unique circumstances are created (Eyal, 2007). Putnam stated that bonding is good for “getting by”, but bridging is crucial for “getting ahead” (Putnam, 2000, p. 23).

For bridging and bonding capitals important are networks and interactions that create various ties within a society. Bridging networks lead to the creation of a greater identity and reciprocity through the links to external resources and dissemination of information. These types of networks are the ones that can eventually facilitate the process of integration (Salem, 2009), while bonding social capital might be exclusive and can produce strong out-group antagonism (Putnam, 2000). It is believed that a very strong bonding social capital can work in an exclusionary way and develop hostility towards non-members, undermining bridging social capital in a society and thus acting in segregated manner towards outsiders (Karsten, 2010). Forms of integration between different groups, can only be established when weak social ties between the members of different kinds of group progress (Karsten, 2010).

When it comes to immigrants, bonding networks can help them feel more comfortable in the new society. However, continuous reliance on these networks could lead to the earlier mentioned negative consequences. Bonding social capital is inward looking and strengthens exclusive identities and homogenous groups. It is frequently formed in ethnic enclaves where immigrants rely on their connections with "same" people: either compatriots or other immigrants that face similar problems and situations in a new society (Salem, 2009, p.14). According to Salem (2009) in the case of immigrants, the bridging social capital is present when both the immigrants and the host society work together to build social relations and can be reinforced through schools without ethnic segregation.

It is believed that the social capital that children possess in their social networks of friends is a bonding one (Tomanovic, 2005). When it comes to adolescents, and especially foreign adolescents that live in a multicultural community of foreigners,
they also cumulate bridging social capital. At their schools and after school they meet and make friends with peers from different countries and have a chance to learn about their customs, traditions, and habits. The subject literature shows that bridging social capital plays a vital role during both adolescence and emerging adulthood (Gonsalves, 2007).

### 6. THE ROLE OF SCHOOL IN THE CONSTRUCTION OF BRIDGING OR BONDING SOCIAL CAPITAL

Schooling is regarded to be the ultimate instrument for advancing civilization and personal achievement (Karsten, 2010). That is why schools and education were always accompanied by high expectations. In the subject literature schools are regarded as primary arena where children develop social capital that is independent of their parents (Weller, 2006 cited in Reynolds, 2007).

For Putnam social capital and education coexist in a kind of vicious circle, with education seeking to promote social capital and social capital intending to enhance efficiency of education (Clarke, 2004). Putnam argues that the development of mutual trust as well as doing things for one another in networks reinforces solidarity and positive attitudes towards institutions and relationships which compose civic community. Schools in this context are relevant institutions in which positive attitudes may be developed. Still, according to scholars, the literature on the theoretical exploration of social capital has not been adequately expanded and is not well developed in relation to empirical evidence in education with only few studies focusing on schools as communities for building social capital (Karsten, 2010; Bassani, 2007; McGonigal, 2007). Reynolds’ research (2007) showed that the most of the young people’s close friendships were established in school or college and these friendships bonds have mostly endured across time. It reinforces the claim that school is one of the most important settings for befriending, forming relationship and, in this way, acquiring social capital. According to Bassani (2007) youth-based groups (including school-centered ones) have social capital that depends on and consists of the social capital that all group members enter the group with. Reynolds’ study indicated that strong bonding networks are established through a shared ethnic identity and belonging. Also Mulford’s (2008) research recognizes the importance of groups, networks, norms, and trust, so bonding social capital, for both students’ feelings of self-worth and day-by-day enjoyment of school and academic results, but also for pupils’ later life chances. Catts and Ozga (2005) believe that bonding social capital may be developed and recognized in different ways in a school setting: some forms may work with the school aims and organization while others may seem to work against it.

For marginalized groups in society, such as emigrants, same-ethnic friendship networks have the potential to create community and group consciousness and also act as a protective buffer and support mechanism in the face of social exclusion and discrimination (Reynolds, 2007, p.385). However, it is believed that in extreme situations the ties that youth has with their ethnic groups may become so strong.
that the social capital may in fact restrict or completely disassociate the youth from ‘outside’ group ties, thereby limiting the positive effect that social capital in formal groups (e.g., schools, peer groups, etc.) would otherwise have on these youths (Bassani, 2007). In Reynolds’ study (2007), same-ethnic friendships dominated the category of close friends and cross-ethnic friendships were generally found in the ‘casual friend’ or ‘acquaintance’ categories and functioned in more instrumental and strategic ways. Reynolds’ explanation of the dominance of same-ethnic friendships relies on the fact that people usually choose friends who are very similar to themselves. The cross-ethnic friendship networks developed at school were proven important social resources for bridging across different ethnic groups (Weller & Bruegel, 2006 cited in Reynolds, 2007). Reynolds believes that based on Putnam’s theory, exploration of young people’s use of ‘bridging’ social capital to develop cross-ethnic friendship bonds can be done. The more bridging that occurs between two groups, the more social capital develops (Bassani, 2007). Bridging social capital occurs among and between schools (Mulford, 2008). According to subject literature bridging in school setting can occur not only among students, but also between the family and school. It happens for example when students are involved in the school’s extracurricular activities and when parents volunteer in the school.

Catts and Ozga (2005) state that due to social capital’s capacity to give opportunities to people and communities for abilities development, it could and should be recognized and promoted in schools. Tomai, et. al. (2010) suggest that schools with more social capital display higher performance levels and accordingly students with more social capital tend to boast higher self-esteem, satisfaction with life and more engagement in after school activities. In general, research shows that social capital is associated with higher levels of educational performance. In order to perform and feel well, children and adults need to feel safe and part of a community (Tomai, et. al. 2010). In accordance with this, it is believed that social capital formation in the school setting requires also paying attention to the space: schools should be designed in a way to encourage easy, casual connections among people.

7. THE RESEARCH: DESCRIPTION

In this paper we focus on the influence of different school types (Polish and Greek) on the bridging and bonding social capitals of 12 young Polish migrants. We utilize Putnam’s (2000) conceptualization of bonding and bridging social capital and approach social capital as participation in social networks fostered by the school. This paper is based on 2010 research on the social and school integration of Polish adolescents residing in Athens. It was a qualitative research relying on semi-structured in-depth interviews with 12 respondents, aged 17 and 18 years old, from the Greek and the Polish high schools in Athens, as well as on literature review and text analysis (on social integration, social capital, migrations and adolescence). A phenomenological approach and qualitative perspective were chosen to explore the lived experiences of Polish high-school students, to elicit adolescents’ thinking and feeling about social integration experiences in the peer group as well as in the wider.
social context. Qualitative perspective emphasizes phenomenological view, in which reality inheres in the perceptions of individuals (Glatthorn & Joyner, 2005, p. 40). It is based upon interpretivist and constructivist paradigms. Subject literature underlines that qualitative research can provide an explanation of phenomena characteristic for migration processes, which are invisible in statistics. The findings are bound to particular social contexts and are not generalizable to entote groups or population.

8. THE SAMPLE

The research sample consisted of 6 boys and 6 girls from the last grades of the Polish and Greek high schools. The interviewees’ selection process was not random, but intended to ensure that interviewed population met certain selection criteria, such as age (17-18 years old), gender (equal numbers of boys and girls), type of school (either Polish or Greek) and place of residence (Athens). Adolescents represent mainly the second generation of immigrants with 8 respondents born in Greece, and one-and-half generation of immigrants that came to Greece either as very young children (2-6 years old: 3 interviewees) or teenagers (only one boy). Half of the group, so students from the Greek high schools, was sampled through their status as pupils attending Polish school on weekends. Table 2 displays a demographic and socio-economic presentation of the research sample.

Table 2 Demographic and socio-economic presentation of the research sample.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Age at arrival to Greece</th>
<th>School type</th>
<th>Family</th>
<th>Parents’ occupation</th>
<th>Parents’ education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agnieszka</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Polish</td>
<td>Her parents are divorced, she lives with her mum. Agnieszka has “...kind of... stepfather. (...)Polish”. She has one “real sister” and one from another mother. The rest of the family lives in Poland.</td>
<td>Mother – domestic help; Stepfather – works at construction site.</td>
<td>Mother – graduate of technical college; Stepfather – vocational school graduate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joanna</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Born in Greece</td>
<td>Polish</td>
<td>Joanna is the only child; the rest of her family is in Poland.</td>
<td>Father – owner of a painting business; Mother – unemployed</td>
<td>Father – graduate of technical electrical college; Mother has finished high school.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2 The names of respondents were changed to guaranty anonymity and confidentiality.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Age at arrival to Greece</th>
<th>School type</th>
<th>Family</th>
<th>Parents’ occupation</th>
<th>Parents’ education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Andrzej</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Born in Greece</td>
<td>Polish</td>
<td>Andrzej lives with his parents and younger brother. Some members of his family are in Greece: 2 aunts 3 uncles and one grandmother; the rest is in Poland.</td>
<td>Father - owner of construction company; Mother works as a cleaning lady.</td>
<td>Father has finished technical college; Mother is a high school graduate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Damian</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Polish</td>
<td>Damian is the only child, lives with both his parents. The rest of his family is in Poland.</td>
<td>Father - works at construction site; Mother – works as waitress.</td>
<td>Father – graduate of a technical electrical college; Mother has finished some sort of college (Damian was not sure).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marek</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Born in Greece</td>
<td>Polish</td>
<td>Marek lives with parents and a younger brother. The rest of his family is in Poland.</td>
<td>Mother sells flowers at Bouzoukia (Greek night club); Father works as a plasterer.</td>
<td>Mother – graduate of medical college; Father - graduate of mechanical technical college.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paulina</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Born in Greece</td>
<td>Polish</td>
<td>Paulina is the only child, lives with her parents. The rest of her family is in Poland.</td>
<td>Mother works as a cleaning lady; Father works as car mechanic.</td>
<td>Mother graduated from the university in the field of economics; Father - graduated from mechanical technical college.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kamila</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Greek</td>
<td>Parents are divorced; mother is remarried to a Greek. Kamila has 2 sisters in</td>
<td>Mother – nanny; Stepfather – retiree.</td>
<td>Mother graduated from the Academy of Physical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant</td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Age at arrival to Greece</td>
<td>School type</td>
<td>Family</td>
<td>Parents’ occupation</td>
<td>Parents’ education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------</td>
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<td>-------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Igor</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Greek</td>
<td>Igor lives with his parents and 2 brothers: 18 and 8 years old. All his relatives live in Poland.</td>
<td>Mother - works as domestic help; Father - works at the construction site.</td>
<td>Mother - high school graduate; Father - vocational school graduate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aneta</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Born in Greece</td>
<td>Greek</td>
<td>Aneta is the only child, lives with both her parents and the rest of her family lives in Poland.</td>
<td>Mother – unemployed; Father – owner of a construction company.</td>
<td>Mother - high school graduate; Father has finished a technical college.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kasia</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Born in Greece</td>
<td>Greek</td>
<td>Kasia is the only child, lives with her parents. The rest of her family lives in Poland. She has a Greek godmother.</td>
<td>Mother – unemployed; Father makes fireplaces.</td>
<td>Both Kasia’s parents are musicians with higher education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Konrad</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Born in Greece</td>
<td>Greek</td>
<td>Konrad lives with both his parents. He has a 15-year-old brother. The rest of the family lives in Poland.</td>
<td>Mother works for a pharmaceutic company as office worker; Father does not work but does casual works (carpenter).</td>
<td>Mother finished university (she is a nurse); Father – graduate of a technical college.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adam</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Born in Greece</td>
<td>Greek</td>
<td>Adam lives with both his parents and two younger brothers. He has</td>
<td>Mother works as nanny; Father works</td>
<td>Adam’s both parents have finished technical</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
9. BRIDGING AND BONDING SOCIAL CAPITAL OF POLISH ADOLESCENTS IN ATHENS

Social capital literature shows that school is one of the most important settings for forming relationships and that most of the young people’s close friendships are quite established at school. Similarly, psychology also points out schools as important settings in friendship formation (Weiner & Craighead, 2010). The bonds that started at school are said to tend to last for a long time. These claims prove the importance of investigating schools’ impact on social capital, especially when children of immigrants are concerned.

As we have already said, social capital occurs among and between schools. That is why relations between schools in a specific area are of great importance. According to Maroufof (2009) the Polish school in Athens often participates along with other schools in various events, which seems to have brought the school very close to the other schools of the area, while, at the same time, gave the opportunity to its pupils to come in contact with other children of the same age. Yet, Maroufof’s positive opinion about the majority of extracurricular activities offered by the Polish school and its bridging role in Greek society has not been confirmed in our interviewees’ responses, for example:

- Agnieszka (Polish school), 17: *Hmmm … there are some* [activities, events], *but generally only in primary school and gymnasium, in high school there are no such things*.
- Joanna (Polish school), 17: *There is probably no such things* [activities, events]. *Maybe sports; it is only the volleyball that I take part in*.

Putman (1993) believed that participation in various organizations builds social capital what in its turn strengthens social integration. Adolescents’ participation in, as Putnam (1993) named them, *voluntary networks*, namely sports may lead to the accumulation of social capital and a larger social network (Walseth, 2008) impacting their social integration. Schools take on an important part in this context as they organize sport teams that Polish students were members of.

- Kamila (Greek school), 17: I take part in volleyball division (…) at school.
- Joanna (Polish school), 17: (…) it is only the volleyball that I take part in.

When it comes to the Greek schools that Polish respondents attended, we can only infer about their relationships with other schools from interviewees’ responses.
Polish pupils generally stated that their Greek schools do not organize many events that they could participate in:

- Kasia (Greek school), 18: I think there are no [activities, events]. Or there is something connected to music, but I do not participate in it.
- Konrad (Greek school), 17: Greek school does not organize any activities...

Respondents from the Greek schools participated in some extracurricular activities where they could meet Greek peers and where some specific contacts and networks were present:

- Adam (Greek school), 17: I am (...) active in school government.
- Kamila (Greek school), 17: I take part in (...) history contests at school.

Respondents attending the Polish school were deprived of this area of social contacts with reference to bridging social capital. Contacts they had thanks to “indoor” school activities reinforced bonding ties: those with peers of same ethnicity. Even though the Greek schools seem not to organize many activities and outdoor, inter-school events, they are places where Polish adolescents meet Greek youngsters and have chance to befriend them:

- Adam (Greek school), 17: school is normal. Children are OK, together we organize a lot of things. I feel well there. I am even active in school government, I organize different things there. I think that all the kids know me there.
- Konrad (Greek school), 17: It is very nice in my Greek school. I have a bunch of friends and feel great with them.

The Greek schools, moreover, allow and facilitate participation in Greek society and culture. Polish pupils attending these institutions had a chance to “taste” various customs and traditions taking part with their Greek school-mates in festivals, celebrations and holidays organized on different occasions, such as Christmas and Easter, Independence Day, etc. Among the few intra-school activities organized by the Greek schools respondents mentioned school government, school band, theater group and sport teams.

We believe that the Greek schools impact on their pupils’ social capital in three ways: organizing various intra-school and inter-school events and celebrations and, as a context, allowing participation in Greek culture, necessitating and thus strengthening their command of the Greek language.

As we have earlier said, literature suggests that school environment, with its norms, values, and support offered there, plays an important role in facilitating language acquisition (McCarthy, 1998). The level of knowledge of the Greek language in the case of students from the Polish school varied within the student population and was generally related to the time they spent in Greece (Maroufof, 2009, p.16). Still, Greek language courses at the Polish school were not divided into groups with a different level of advancement and the school carries out relatively

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3 In this research we understand the notion of culture as shared pursuits within a cultural community; social aspects of human contact, including socialization, negotiation, protocol, and conventions.
few lessons of the Greek language, below the requirements of regulation for the private schools in Greece (Marchlewski, 2008). The results are that Polish students from the Polish high school are less competent in the Greek language than respondents from the Greek schools. Competency in mainstream language influences social contacts that immigrants have with natives. The Polish school in this context seems not to do enough to enhance its pupils’ knowledge of the Greek language, which in turn could reinforce their social contacts in the mainstream society. Greek high school attendance forces Polish pupils to improve their language skills. Otherwise they would have problems following the Greek curriculum. On the other hand, the Greek schools facilitate Greek language acquisition also as a result of continuous contacts with native peers that the school setting enables.

The relevant component of Putnam’s theory, namely social networks, seems to be influenced in a large degree by the school youth participates in. Our research pointed out that respondents from the Greek schools had more Greek friends and acquaintances than pupils attending the Polish high school. However, we cannot say that the majority of interviewees from the Greek schools had Greek friends: only few respondents stated they did. In contrast, Polish students from the Greek schools said they generally met with Polish peers, and not children from their schools.

- Aneta (Greek school), 17: The circle I move in is more Polish: Polish Church, Polish friends, Polish school. I know some Greeks, but, you know, relations are a bit different. I cannot define it. Maybe I cannot open up. I start talking to them, (...) for example about the lessons, or just generally, but there are not any great friendships there. Maybe except for 2-3 persons. People are OK, just some of them are not...

- Igor (Greek school), 17: All of my friends are Polish: from the Polish school I attended earlier.

Not clear difference in friendships patterns with Greek peers in case of Polish pupils attending the Greek and Polish high could be due to the very recent migration. We can assume that with time Poles attending Greek schools might get more Greek friends. Polish pupils from Polish high school were deprived of this chance (of foreseeable development of friendships, contacts with Greek peers).

Having only a few Greek friends in the case of Polish pupils attending the Greek schools can perhaps be explained based on the social capital theory. People usually choose friends who are very similar to themselves (Reynolds, 2007), in case of emigrants - people of the same ethnicity. For minority groups in society, such as emigrants, same-ethnic friendship networks have the potential to create community and protect and support members of this community from any negative aspect of their migrant lives.

On the other hand, one respondent from the group of adolescents from the Greek schools stated that she had mostly Greek friends:

- Kasia (Greek school), 18: I have mainly Greek friends from my school... I live so far away from the center... there are no Polish people in my neighborhood that I know of.
This was caused by the distance from the “center of Polishness” – Michail Voda Street and its neighborhood (with Polish shops, restaurants, church, libraries, cafes, discos, etc.) where many Polish nationals live and spend their free time. Due to her place of residence Kasia stated to socialize with Greek peers.

In the group of adolescents from the Polish school all respondents stated that they had more Polish than Greek friends. Some of them had some, and some said they had no Greek friends. The example is Agnieszka who stated that she did not have any Greek friends, but only some acquaintances:

- Agnieszka (Polish school), 17: I meet Greek people for example when my friends have Greek friends. But the majority of my friends do not have Greek friends.

Polish youth from both groups tended to possess same-ethnic friends and cross-ethnic acquaintances. The Greek schools in this context are settings that enable Polish to meet and keep in touch with their Greek peers. Everyday contacts with mainstream population they experienced at their schools gave opportunities to create more contacts in the Greek society compared to the situation of Poles from the Polish high school. The latter group had fewer chances to interact with Greek peers. This might have had an impact on their limited contacts with Greek students.

The presented findings are in accordance with Reynolds (2007) research. Social capital theory states that school reinforces mainly bonding networks and our study is in line with this claim. The school networks of Polish pupils attending the Greek schools were more of a bridging character (due to interactions with various ethnicities, not only Greek nationals), and school networks of Polish adolescents from the Polish school referred more to bonding social capital (enabling contacts only with Polish youth). At this point we should acknowledge that for social capital acquisition what is important is not only the existence of social networks but also the kinds of networks. Even though the majority of ties created in the Greek schools was rather weak and may be better described as acquaintances than friendships, having these weak ties to one’s school-mates also seemed to have benefits for the integration of Polish adolescents. According to Putnam’s theory (2000), loose ties and networks help people to ‘get ahead’.

When it comes to contacts that are important for adolescents’ social capital acquisition with relation to its bridging and bonding types, personal relationships and some more specific contacts should also be discussed. With regards to romantic relationships, evidence from the interviews showed that respondents from the Polish high school either did not have boyfriends of girlfriends, or had Polish ones.

- Agnieszka (Polish school), 17: I do not have a boyfriend. I used to have, but they were mainly Polish.
- Marek (Polish school), 17: I am in relationship with a Polish girl now. In the past I had some Polish and Greek girlfriends. But I must say I prefer Slavic girls. Still, if a beautiful Greek girl appears...

Youngsters from the Polish school seemed not to have problems with nationality
in the context of dating.

- Joanna (Polish school), 17: Now I have a Polish boyfriend, but previously I went out with Greek boy for two years.
- Damian (Polish school), 17: Currently I have a Polish girlfriend, but I like Greek girls, I like to flirt with them...

However, when talking about future and more serious relationships, some of interviewees from the Polish school suggested that they would prefer to have a Polish partner.

- Paulina (Polish school), 17: I have a Polish boyfriend, who is studying in the Greek university. I had two Greeks and the rest of Poles [boyfriends in the past]. But I would rather have a Pole. I think Greeks have a different mentality. When I go out with a Pole he is more gallant, asks me how I was, etc.
- Damian (Polish school), 17: I would rather in the future have a Pole. I would like to have Polish children...

In case of the group of students attending the Greek schools, only one boy, Adam, confirmed he had a girlfriend (Greek one), and two girls, Paulina and Kamila, said they had a boyfriend (Polish one). The rest used to have some romantic relationship with both Poles and Greeks, or even young people from different nationalities. None of them spoke about future or present preferences towards a Polish partner. As Kasia stated:

- Kasia (Greek school), 18: It does not matter whether he is Polish or Greek, it matters what kind of person he is.

School as a place where young people spend a large part of their day has to some degree an influence on its pupils’ romantic relationships. In psychology, romantic relationships are regarded as a kind of close friendships (Weiner & Craighead, 2010). As friendships are generally formed from people that attend the same school (Weiner & Craighead, 2010), it can be assumed that school is therefore also a setting enabling romantic relationships. In this view the Polish high school gives opportunity for pairing off between same-ethnic pupils, whilst the Greek high schools give more chances for creation of inter-ethnic romantic bonds.

10. CONCLUSIONS

Social capital can raise social integration and fight social exclusion as participation in groups and networks is essential for overall integration processes of immigrants in mainstream society. For adolescents friendships are especially of great importance. As we have already mentioned, psychology regards proximity and similarity as two key predictors of friendship formation: friends usually live near one another or attend the same school. In this context school is the setting enabling social contacts. These contacts could be bridging as in cross-ethnic contexts (Greek schools) or bonding as in same-ethnic contexts (Polish school). In our research respondents attending the Greek schools had both strong and weak networks within Greek society, namely friends, romantic relationships and acquaintances, whilst Polish
adolescents from the Polish school had rather weak networks in Greek society, mostly acquaintances. Even though all networks are regarded as important for the process of social integration, evidence suggests that students from the Greek schools had stronger, wider and more differentiated social networks within the Greek society than the group of adolescents from the Polish school. The subject literature acknowledges that the cross-ethnic friendship networks developed at school are important social resources for bridging across different ethnic groups. This is the case of Polish students attending the Greek high schools. Based on our findings and referring to Putnam’s theory of bonding and bridging social capitals as well as literature review done on the Polish school and social integration, it could be assumed that for our respondents the Polish school in Athens was a place promoting bonding social capital and with lacks in facilitating bridging one. However, due to the qualitative character of our research and relatively small sample size our findings cannot be generalized and more investigation is necessary to substantiate these claims. Due to the recent migration that seems to be the case in our study, there has been a transition noticed. On the one hand, the Greek schools seem to be promoting a greater integration into mainstream society. However, this situation is not uniform: there has been a varied – individual - rhythm of integration observed in participants of this study. In contrast, the Polish school seems to defend the pure "Polishness" and keeps students more connected to Polish networks.

The Polish school in Athens was established for children temporarily and not permanently staying in Greece. Due to its unique character as a Polish institution in the Greek society, in some ways it leads to inequality as it keeps Polish students in a Polish reality; it creates and strengthens networks among Poles, regardless of the fact that they function in Greek society, and it does not pay enough attention to teaching the Greek language. The literature claims that in extreme situations the ties that youths have with their ethnic group may become so strong that the social capital may in fact restrict or completely disassociate the youth from ‘outside’ group ties, thereby limiting the positive effect that social capital in formal groups (e.g., schools, peer groups, etc.) would otherwise have on these youths. We posit that this could be the case of our respondents and their connections within Polish community. However, yet again more research and a larger sample are indispensable in order to explain this situation adequately. Although, as it was declared by respondents, the Greek schools do not offer much of extracurricular inter and intra-school activities to participate in, they are still places where our respondents met with Greek pupils, socialized with them, celebrated Greek feasts and generally exhibited stronger and deeper participation in the Greek culture than interviewees from the Polish school. Thus, it seems that the Greek schools impact on their pupils’ social capital in three ways: organizing some intra-school and inter-school events and celebrations and, as a context, allowing participation in Greek culture, necessitating and thus strengthening their command of the Greek language. Ethnic schools, while strengthening bonding social capital of their pupils, do not
support a bridging one, but rather appear to isolate pupils from mainstream society and culture. As we have already mentioned, bridging social capital seems to contribute to social integration, while bonding social capital can produce strong out-group antagonisms. Attendance at the Polish school may therefore weaken the process of adolescents’ integration into the Greek society, boasting pupils’ sense of ethnicity; while the Greek schools appear to provide opportunities to facilitate the process of social integration into the Greek society to a larger degree. Adapting Putnam’s theory of bridging and bonding capitals we can state that the networks of respondents attending the Greek schools were of a bridging character, while the networks of Polish adolescents from the Polish school referred more to bonding social capital. The literature presents the view that when it comes to immigrants, bonding networks can help them feel more comfortable in the new society, but continuous reliance on these networks could lead to negative consequences as bonding social capital is inward looking and strengthens exclusive identities and homogenous groups. The school environment plays also an important role in facilitating language acquisition which leads to strengthening linkages within various communities by providing opportunities for interaction and networking. In this context the Polish school did not impact on the language acquisition of its pupils, contributing to weakening of the process of their integration into the Greek society. The Greek schools that our interviewees attended required and, therefore, forced pupils to use and learn Greek language supporting in this way their social integration.

The results of our research indicate that for the 12 Polish adolescents the Greek schools were institutions promoting bridging relations and bridging social capital, whilst the Polish school supported bonding relations and bonding social capital. However, more research and a larger sample are necessary to more fully authenticate these claims. Our assumptions and conclusions are limited to the pupils that we interviewed and therefore cannot be generalized to the entire population of Polish adolescents in Athens.

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THE SCHOOL IMPACT ON BRIDGING AND BONDING SOCIAL CAPITALS: THE CASE OF 12 POLISH ADOLESCENTS IN ATHENS

http://docs.google.com/viewer?a=v&q=cache:IkvgF1XiNg0J:www.cmppp.edu.pl/files/Dzieci%2520imigrant%25C3%25B3w.%2520Nowe%2520edu%2520dykacyjne%2520wyzwanie%2520dla%2520polskich%2520szk%25C3%25B3%25C5%2582.pdf+Dzieci+imigrant%C3%B3w.+Nowe+edu%2520dykacyjne+wyzwanie+dla+polskich+szk%C3%B3%25C5%82+&hl=pl&pid=bl&srcid=ADGEESglZ_P0n0hVJpGtLDqKB5NhDmi0zksRZsTOVNBECgb-4pEFblcx6GMeLnNM0hui1cX2znum1fWvn9TQScowRXkeKWSP1V57QuRXI-sZJYuxENKa-RR_reV74d9bTQf3KPk&sig=AHIEtbSmPjdCTe3d8VHTefsmexWXNudPpQ


THE USAGE AND ACQUISITION OF IDIOMATIC LANGUAGE BY THE SECOND YEAR STUDENTS OF ECONOMIC FACULTY, FINANCE BRANCH IN THE UNIVERSITY OF KORÇA – A CORPUS BASED APPROACH

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ABSTRACT
The aim of this article is to give a clear view of the usage and acquisition of idiomatic expressions of the 2nd year students of finance in the University of Korça. We have focused on a section of phrasal verbs and idiomatic expressions in “English for Business life” used during the English course with these students in “Fan. S.Noli” University. This paper discusses methods and strategies used by students to master English idiomatic expressions. The sample of the study consisted of 85 students who were given a research project with the topic “Understanding and using phrasal verbs and expressions in the business context”. The first part of the study defines and synthesizes the definition and linguistic contribution to idioms. Then it focuses on the corpus driven approach illustrated with figures and data enrolling the frequency given in percentage. Quantitative and qualitative research is used to outline the most important methods of acquiring idiomatic language in EFL classes followed by an analysis of the driven data. The study highlights the importance of idioms in language use, English language teaching and strategies to promote idiomatic English at academic level. As concluding remarks of this paper, further implications are given for the teachers.

Keywords: acquisition, idiomatic expression, corpus approach, usage, methods, strategies

1. INTRODUCTION
Since idioms as part of a multidisciplinary approach take a crucial and considerable part of the language system, phraseology reflects continuously the cultural elements of a nation and seems to be the discipline which best interprets and reflects the cultural framework of a whole society in the language, therefore it is also the field of study which can attempt to provide an explanation about stable expressions containing words loaded with a cultural meaning (Luque & Manjón 1998). The aim of this study is to investigate the acquisition of idiomatic expressions through a corpus based approach carried out with Finance students of the 2nd year of “Fan.S.Noli” University of Korça, Albania.
It is a well-established belief among scholars that lexicon is not just a repository of single words but a dynamic system, which includes larger lexical items as well (Read, 2000). It is a common knowledge that idioms are used in a broad range of everyday situations. This pervasiveness of idioms relates them to second language (hereafter L2) proficiency or at least to higher levels of L2 fluency. Many researchers (e.g. Ellis, 1997a; Yorio, 1989) suggest that adequate knowledge and appropriate use of idioms in an L2 is an important indicator of L2 communicative competence. In the same vein, the notion of figurative competence is introduced (Levorato, 1993; Levorato and Cacciari, 1992) to account for the production and comprehension of idioms. Teaching phrases and idiomatic expressions is not considered as the easiest part of vocabulary instruction but rather a stumbling block (Lafer, 1997).

Idioms are not taught to be learnt by heart but they should be studied in the context. Methods and strategies used by students and learners are numerous. This paper aims at identifying this methods and giving their personal experience of learning idiomatic language. As idioms are used in a broad range of everyday situations, their mastery relates to an increase of the figurative competence.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Idioms have been the interest of linguistic research in Europe (especially of Russian linguistics) and America since the beginning of 20th century. Phraseology is a scholarly approach to language which took its start when Charles Bally’s notion of locutions phraseologiques entered Russian lexicology and lexicography in the 1930s and 1940s and was subsequently developed in the former Soviet Union and other Eastern European countries. From the late 1960s onwards, it established itself in (East) German linguistics but was also sporadically approached in English linguistics. The earliest English adaptations of phraseology are by Weinreich (1969) within the approach of transformational grammar, as well as by Arnold (1973) and Lipka (1992 [1974]). In Albania, the rise and development of Lexicology as an independent branch of linguistics was seen of a later development dating in the beginning of the 20th century, first with some didactic phraseological studies mainly on the practical plan of A. Xhuvani (1921); Nonda Bulka; I.D.Sheperi (1927); J.Rrota (1942); M.Domi (1957); S.Prifti (1962); and lately by J.Thomaj (1981), who, for the first time, had given a full treatment of the phraseological units mostly in the theoretical and lexico-grammatical conceptual plan in his monography “Issues of Albanian language phraseology”.

It is important to outline a brief history of the language acquisition, since L2 vocabulary acquisition is one important component of L2 language acquisition. There were four vocabulary articles published in the 1980s (McCarthy 1984 ; Carter 1987 ; Li 1988 ; Kerim-Zade, et al. 1989). During the period 1990-1999, the number of articles was tripled. « A newlook at vocabulary in EFL » (McCarthy, 1984), was the first article published on vocabulary research in Applied Linguistics. The attempt was followed by the publication of several books (e.g. Arnaud & Bejoint
THE USAGE AND ACQUISITION OF IDIOMATIC LANGUAGE BY THE SECOND YEAR STUDENTS OF ECONOMIC FACULTY, FINANCE BRANCH IN THE UNIVERSITY OF KORÇA – A CORPUS BASED APPROACH


Vocabulary started to be investigated in the following years from a variety of perspectives. Ellis (1994:18), proposed a useful framework for exploring the vast field of second language acquisition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Focus on learning</th>
<th>Focus on the learner</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Description</strong></td>
<td><strong>Explanation</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area 1</td>
<td>Characteristics of learner language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Errors</td>
<td>Social context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acquisition orders and developmental sequences</td>
<td>Input ant interaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variability</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pragmatic features</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This framework has found acceptance and has been found effective for describing second language acquisition. Since L2 vocabulary acquisition is an important component of L2 language acquisition, this framework should be applicable in describing L2 vocabulary acquisition.

3. THE DEFINITION OF IDIOM

The problem of idiom definition is encountered mainly by all linguists and new researches in this field and defining them has been one of the most debatable issues in phraseology nowadays. We encounter terms such as: prefabricated units, idioms (Cowie et al, 1983), phraseological units, collocations, locutions, word-group (Gläser, 1998), phraseme (Mel’cuk et al. 1995), set phrases, word combinations, clichés, etc. Some linguists stand on the view of using phraseological units and idioms with almost no difference in meaning. Some others use set phrases, clichés as units with great stability and lack of motivation (idioms too). But each of these terms embodies an act of unitary thinking, equivalent to a single word, the existence of certain lexical, semantic or syntactic archaisms.
The following table represents the different terms used by some linguists.

**Table 2.** Terms used to define the subcategories of word-like units (semantic units).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>General Category</th>
<th>Opaque Invariable unit</th>
<th>Partly motivated unit</th>
<th>Phraseologically bound unit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vinogradov (1947)</td>
<td>Phraseological Unit</td>
<td>Phraseological fusion</td>
<td>Phraseological Unity</td>
<td>Phraseological combination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amosova (1963)</td>
<td>Phraseological Unit</td>
<td>Idiom</td>
<td>Idiom (no difference)</td>
<td>a. Phraseme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>b. Phraseoloid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cowie (1981)</td>
<td>Composite</td>
<td>Pure Idiom</td>
<td>Figurative Idiom</td>
<td>Restricted Collocation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mel’cuk (1988)</td>
<td>Semantic Phraseme</td>
<td>Idiom</td>
<td>Idiom (no difference)</td>
<td>Collocation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gläser (1988)</td>
<td>Nomination</td>
<td>Idiom</td>
<td>Idiom (no difference)</td>
<td>Restricted Collocation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Howarth (1996)</td>
<td>Composite Unit</td>
<td>Pure Idiom</td>
<td>Figurative Idiom</td>
<td>Restricted Collocation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 also shows categories with a nominative function range along a scale or a continuum from unmotivated and formally invariable to partially motivated and partially variable collocations. Beyond the latter are “free” or “open” combinations whose make-up can be explained in terms of general restriction of co-occurrence.

The core meaning of the definition of phraseological units tends to be the designation as units characterized by semantic and structural stability and the criteria of idiomaticity are the main essential features for their existence.

### 4. SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

The scientific study of language acquisition began around the same time as the birth of cognitive science, in the late 1950's. We can see now why that is not a coincidence. The historical catalyst was Noam Chomsky’s review of Skinner’s Verbal Behavior (Chomsky, 1959), as one of the central topics in cognitive science.

It is a well-established belief among scholars that lexicon is not just a repository of single words but a dynamic system, which includes larger lexical items as well (Read, 2000).

The use of idioms and idiomatic English are both characteristic of advanced EFL learners. It seems that due attention is not given to the learning of idioms, and students' competence in these forms needs to the further development not only on the recognition level but also on the production level. Learning a first language is something every child does successfully, in a matter of a few years and without the
need for formal lessons. With language being so close to the core of what it means to be human, it is not surprising that children's acquisition of language has received so much attention.

A famous hypothesis, outlined by Benjamin Whorf (1956), asserts that the categories and relations that we use to understand the world come from our particular language, so that speakers of different languages conceptualize the world in different ways. Language acquisition, then, would be learning to think, not just learning to talk.

While the role of formulae and other sentence-level expressions in second language development is well documented (Weinert, 1995), few researchers have studied the acquisition of collocations from the point of view of L2 learners' production. One common pattern in language acquisition is that learners pass through a stage in which they use a large number of unanalyzed chunks of language in certain predictable social situations (Nattinger and DeCamco, 1992).

Although there is a growing recognition of collocation (and phraseology in general) in language teaching, there seems to be a lack of awareness of its true significance. But since language is a driving machine in which people tend to master its steering wheel toward the usage of the idiomatic language, ranging from formal collocations toward slang and everyday idioms, it is a common knowledge that idioms are used in a broad range of everyday situations, and phraseology acquisition has taken a considerable importance in the works of many linguists and course books.

Views on teaching idioms vary from one extreme to another. Sornig (1988, 285) sees idioms as something that perhaps cannot be taught at all since they lack general rules. On the other hand, Gläser (1988, 272) states that “idioms and phraseological units in the broadest sense against their social background will provide a rich source of general education and increase the pleasure in foreign language teaching and learning”.

To my experience, working for several years as an English teacher in some public schools of Korça region and now teaching in the university, idioms are difficult to learn and teach for many reasons. The main reason, according to McPartland (1981, 5-10), is that idioms are not literal: they do not mean what they say. The easiest ones are those which have exact counterparts in the learner's mother tongue, and the most difficult ones are those which have no counterparts and whose meaning cannot be derived from the conjoined meaning of their constituents. Thus, the acquisition of idiomatic language from EFL students is an important indicator of English language competence of all the students in the academic context. Figurative and idiomatic language acquisition from EFL students in the Albanian classes, and perhaps all the students encountering phraseological patterns, however reveal the state of possessing a high competence of English usage.
5. THE STUDY

5.1. The aim of the Study

The purpose of carrying out this study was to investigate the methods and strategies students of finance in “Fan S.Noli” University use in order to see how they acquire phrasal verbs and idiomatic expressions related to business. Dealing with business language, no one can exclude the existence of collocations, phrasal verbs and idioms because of the fact that English language is to a greater extent surrounded and encircled by figurative language, and no area of study can remain out of inclusion. Thus, studying the acquisition of figurative expressions from the three groups of finance constitutes the object of this study.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The underlying research questions for this study were as follows:

a. Do idioms promote language skills to the Albanian students as language learners?
b. What are the strategies to promote idiomatic English at a higher level?
c. How do they acquire collocations and phrasal verbs?

Hypotheses

1. Teaching idioms with specific strategies will help ESL learners to understand and produce idioms.
2. Knowledge of idioms improves the learners’ language.

Table 2 Demographic and socio-economic presentation of the research sample.

5.1.1. The Participants

The sample of this research consists of 85 participants who are Finance students from 2nd year in “Fan S.Noli” University of Korça region. Of these students, 31 students are of the first group, 27 of the second group and 27 of the third one. Of these 85 participants, 26 (31%) participants were males and 59 (69%) were females, respectively 39 students from Korça and 36 from villages near Korça, 6 from Bilisht, 3 from Pogradec and 1 from Mollas village, Erseke. In total, the attendants of the three courses of Finance 48 (56%) were living in the city and 37 (44%) were living in the village.

5.1.2. The Research instrument and Data collection

As research instrument a project work was used with the topic “Understanding and using phrasal verbs and expressions in the business context”, in which students have to give an overall view of their ways, methods and strategies used each individually to gain competence of their usage, based on the English course book “English for Business life, by Ian Badger, Pete Menzies, Upper-Intermediate. The project work was given to be worked within 3 weeks and papers were collected between 16

1 The names of respondents were changed to guaranty anonymity and confidentiality
December 2013 until 6 January 2014.

Descriptive statistics was performed at the beginning for analyzing data. Next the presentation of methods and strategies used by the students were outlined. The frequency of their usage was recorded and data is collected and presented in charts and tables to show the student’s idiomatic language acquisition. Then, final findings and conclusions of this research are drawn.

6. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Recognizing idioms in a text needs tools in order to analyze the meanings of unfamiliar idioms. Hence, receptive knowledge of idioms should indeed be encouraged and supported. The meaning of idioms cannot always be inferred from the context, and there is often risk of misinterpretation. There are several methods of working out the meaning of unknown words, some of which are also applicable to idioms (Vaurio 1998). Using images and imagination and linking meaning and form is a strategy worth mentioning (Ellis N. 1997, Nation 2001, 62). Likewise, using actions, objects and pictures are applicable forms (Nation 2002, 85). Also, expanding knowledge on existing vocabulary, through semantic mapping, has been suggested (Nation and Newton 1997, 248-251).

There are many ways in which we can depict the meaning of a certain word or phrase. However, these means are not always sufficient, and the meaning of a word or expression may remain unclear or misunderstood despite various guessing or inference strategies.

The study carried out with finance students of the second year in “Fan S.Noli” University, outlines some of the methods and strategies used by them to study idiomatic language. Below are given data and figures concerning the outcome of the study undertaken.

Table 3. Methods and strategies used by students in idiomatic language acquisition

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Repetitive exposure to new words</td>
<td>19 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Writing down the word several times</td>
<td>20 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Making sentences with new words</td>
<td>8 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Word association with things around them</td>
<td>12 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Making flashcards (write the phrase on one side and draw/cut the picture on the back)</td>
<td>7 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Practicing in exercises</td>
<td>27 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Using new vocabulary in dialogues and everyday conversations</td>
<td>19 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Study idioms and verb patterns by topic and grouping</td>
<td>19 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Personalizing vocabulary</td>
<td>18 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Listen out and learn in context</td>
<td>34 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Taking tests</td>
<td>11 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
12. Learning through songs .............................................................. 11 %
13. Reviewing ................................................................................ 4 %
14. Learning through the idiom synonym or antonym counterpart .......... 4 %
15. Ask meaning of a phrase from a native speaker .......................... 11 %
16. Look up in the dictionary ........................................................... 21 %
17. Learn from stories ........................................................................ 12 %
18. Identify idioms in speech .............................................................. 14 %
19. Using internet programs which offer writing and listening lessons ... 12 %
20. Practicing by using them in writings ........................................... 4 %
21. Self recording and listening several times..................................... 1 %
22. Making clusters (phrasal verbs) through diagrams with colors ...... 9 %
23. Visualizing and memorizing ....................................................... 15 %
24. Using YouTube videos ............................................................... 7 %
25. Giving definitions ....................................................................... 8 %
26. Studying them ........................................................................... 10 %
27. Using crosswords to memorize words .......................................... 2 %
28. Creating a story .......................................................................... 3 %
29. Latching onto a key sound ......................................................... 6 %
30. Using cognates ........................................................................... 1 %
31. Sharing a status in Facebook with the new expressions learnt ...... 2 %
32. Learning by heart (as single units) .............................................. 3 %
33. Learning through lists (one column words and the other meanings) ... 15 %
34. Root analysis ............................................................................ 5 %
35. Brainstorming method ............................................................... 4 %
36. Finding out how common the idiom is ....................................... 10 %
37. Guessing the meaning ............................................................... 7 %
38. Taking quizzes .......................................................................... 6 %

In this section, the frequency of the strategies and methods is illustrated in the table above. Taking into consideration the methods used by the students, we could reveal that most of the strategies represented were present in almost 80 % of the students’ project works. However, the table gives an exact calculation of each method given several times in their works. This is due to the fact that the acquisition of idiomatic language, hence, phrasal verbs, idioms and figurative expressions is one of the most challenging tasks for English learners.

In table 2 methods and strategies are given in the first column and the percentage of their occurrence in the second column. It was observed that a few students (2%) could use learning by heart or using cognates. Another 2 % of the students could share the status on Facebook, 1 % could record them and then listen. 4 % could learn by using the synonym or the antonym form of the phrase, 4 % through the brainstorming method, another 4 % by practicing in writings and reviewing them. 5 % of the students could use root analysis, 6 % taking quizzes and
latching onto a key sound. 7% of them used flashcards and YouTube and also 7% guessed the meaning through the context. 8% used to give definitions and make sentences with new words. 9% of them made clusters with the common noun, verb or particle. They said this is a good and effective method of memorizing them.

10% could study them and also 10% could find out how common the idiom is. 11% took tests to practice them either from internet or telling the meaning of the idioms. Also 11% learnt through songs and from a native speaker. 12% could acquire through objects and things that surround them. This facilitated the memorizing of the word or phrase. Another 12% could learn from stories and also 12% using internet for writing and listening online lessons. 14% acquired idiomatic language by identifying idioms in speech. They could listen and fix them better associated with the context.

15% of the students could learn by lists writing in one column the word and in the second its usage. 15% could also study through visualizing and memorizing. 18% by personalizing vocabulary, 19% studied idioms grouping by topic another 19% by repetition of the words or phrases, and 19% also using vocabulary in dialogues and everyday conversations, 20% used writing down the word several times. 21% of them could look it up in the dictionary and finding out the meanings while 27% of the students could practice in exercises. The greatest percentage recorded in this research paper is listening out and learning in context in 34% of the cases.

On the basis of these results, the most frequent methods and strategies are:

1. listening out and learning in context (34%)
2. practicing in exercises (27%)
3. looking up the expression in the dictionary (21%)
4. practice writing down the expression several times (20%)
5. using idiomatic new phrases in dialogues and everyday conversations and by repetition (19%)
6. personalizing vocabulary (18%), etc.

As it can be seen, the methods of comprehending and learning idioms are many. Thus, recognizing and understanding them is crucial to second and foreign language learners. There are many strategies but some can rely in some of them and some others on the the rest, since each student is shaped by different character and selects the method that best fits him in order to acquire a foreign language. Mastering the use of idiomatic phrases can be very overwhelming. A lot of times, dedication and motivation is required. What is absolutely not recommended by linguists is studying them by heart. The best way is to learn them in context, everyday situations, to guess their meanings, to develop passive knowledge of them, extensive listening and reading of the everyday English language that you are exposed to.

7. CONCLUSIVE REMARKS AND FUTURE RECOMMENDATIONS

The aim of this study is to investigate the methods and strategies finance and
accountability students of the second year of “Fan S.Noli” university in Korça of Economic Faculty use while acquiring idiomatic language. The results of this study indicate the usage of a great variety of methods, carried out from 85 students being exactly 38 methods and more.

Our goal was to carry out a study that could outline methods in the second language acquisition and specifically in the business context. Students were seen to possess a good means of methods in acquiring a foreign language. The use of internet, books, research papers and other sources of information have supplied students with various materials to fulfill this project work.

Our interest has been in presenting some methods which would be crucial in idiom and figurative language explanation. In general, the results support the claim that Albanian students are more prior to studying through strategies as looking the phrase up in the dictionary, personalizing the vocabulary, listening out and learning in context, practicing in exercises, looking up the expression in the dictionary, practice writing down the expression several times, using idiomatic new phrases in dialogues and everyday conversations, repetition, memorizing of the words, writing them down, etc.

Based on the quantitative research, the results of table 2 show that there is a great percentage (34 %) of the Albanian students who seemed to acquire idiomatic language mostly by listening out and learning in the context and 27 % of them in practicing exercises. But there is a considerable number acquiring figurative language through sharing a status in Facebook (2%). Thus, from the results of the study it is seen that the great percentages of students nowadays use internet more common than other means of language acquisition methods and strategies presented in the table above. 11% of the students learn through taking tests and learning through songs. 7% of students learn through YouTube videos, 6% by taking quizzes, using internet programs which offer writing and listening lessons (12%), etc.From the students’ project works, we conclude that many students (95 %) did not use a limited number of methods in studying the expressions and phrasal verbs, but more a great variety from eight up to ten or more, enriching thus the list of the strategies presented in this study. The results showed that internet has played an important role being a basic and important device used by students to practice in online exercises of listening and writing (12%) , gap filling, DVD watching, listening to songs (11%), etc. A great number of students (21%) learn by looking up the word in the dictionary, 20% by writing the word several times. 19% learn by using or learning their synonym or antonym counterpart (4%). Practicing in dialogues and everyday conversations (19%) is another common used method by the finance students in this study. 20% learn by writing down the expression several times in order to fix and memorize it better. Many of them (18%) personalize the vocabulary and 19% make a repetitive exposure to the new vocabulary. As stated from the result in the previous section, the great percentage of students learn them by listening out and learning in context (34%), practicing in exercises (27%), looking up
the expression in the dictionary (21%), practicing by writing down (20%), using idiomatic phrases in dialogues and everyday conversations (19%). A few of them used self recording and listening several times (1%), learning by heart (3%), using brainstorming method (4%), using crosswords to memorize words (2%), using cognates (1%), etc.

As idioms comprise a crucial part of each language, great interest has been raised in many linguists’ works over the years. Language is a living thing and phraseology is part of it, reflecting the liberal historical experience of a nation. For that reason, teaching and learning phraseological units of a native culture are of great importance nowadays.

The above mentioned aspects are of crucial importance because a lack of idiom knowledge will have an impact on the learners’ overall performance. Hence, it is essential for both teachers and students to deal with idioms in a well defined environment, where topics such as idiom definition or teaching methodology are solved. This is the only way the educational process as a whole will be beneficial to its participants.

To sum up, this study could be a useful paper to be used by teachers and students in all levels in the class. Teaching idioms is not an easy task to perform; it requires knowledge, devotion, and motivation to make students having complete control and rigid competence upon the figurative expressions of a language, making them feel the master of that language for possessing it in a proficient level.

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ABSTRACT

The present article explores the way narrative techniques are used in the construction of female characters in the fairy tale series “Hara and the Goudoun” by Eugene Trivizas. Moreover, the particular speech style of these female characters is examined regarding the “feminine” vs. “masculine” stylistic dipole for the building of their fictional identity. From the analysis, it is shown that the Eugene Trivizas’s fairy tale series “Hara and the Goudoun” draws upon numerous narrative techniques which assign a signifying value in narrative practice. In addition, there is variety of female characters, each one with the role of contributing to the progression of the story. The female characters of the narrative present a wide range of personalities, albeit being generally static and flat, without remarkable variations to the advancement of the action. Sociolinguistic analysis confirms the static and flat nature of female characters as derived from narrative and character analysis, since, they all tend to adopt a feminine style of talk, characterized by mildness, hesitance and emotionalism.

Keywords: Trivizas, narrative techniques, character, feminine and masculine style of talk

1. INSTEAD OF AN INTRODUCTION – THE MATERIAL OF THE STUDY

Literary representations, either as a grid of points, ideas, conventions or symbols through which concepts, feelings, social stereotypes, cultural achievements, experiences or desires are linguistically expressed, or as an essential identification with the "fantasies" of the subject of writing (Baudry 1990: 54-90), comment in each
case social reality “out there” and control the relationship between fiction and reality, by utilising the symbolic use of language and referring to complex processes of fictional coding (Hawthorn 2002: 170 -171). This article aims to examine the narrative techniques used in the fairy tale series “Hara and the Goudoun” by Eugene Trivizas and the use of speech style in the representation of the female characters of the series regarding the “feminine” vs. “masculine” stylistic dipole, as well as the role the latter has in the plot and advancement of the story. 1

The fairy tale series “Hara and the Goudoun”, written by Eugene Trivizas and belonging to the category of Children’s Literature, was chosen as the material of this study. This particular series mainly addresses children in preschool and early school age. Firstly published in 2002, the series comprises twelve (12) books and is noted for the promotion of contemporary concerns by adopting the children’s point of view into a fictional context of imagination and surrealism.

The main characters of the story are Hara, a young girl characterized by spontaneity, altruism and cheerful personality, and the Goudoun, a strange little creature with an unusual appearance and playful character, which, while caring for its friend, causes difficult situations, which Hara is ultimately called to solve. As for the villain, the hostile Goudoun-eater, who, as its name indicates, eats Goudouns, always makes various plans, inevitably thwarted by the main characters’ actions. Hara hides and protects the strange Goudoun creature, which has neither a tail nor a right ear, from the Goudoun-eater, who wants to gobble it. The two main characters get to know each other and gradually become close friends who help and protect each other from various dangers and threats made by the Goudoun-eater, while travelling together into several magical and imaginary worlds using the Goudoun’s flying colander.

2. METHODOLOGY

A composite method of approach and of interpretation analysis of the series books was used for the aims of the present study. More specifically, the literary text is examined using the methods of content analysis, character theory and narratology (Gérard Genette’s model of typology). For the study of the speech styles employed by female characters, we draw upon the distinction made by sociolinguistics between ‘feminine’ and ‘masculine’ styles of talk, which refers to the social dialects indexing gender (e.g. Holmes 1995, Malz & Borker 1982). Moreover, the present study is situated within the context of relevant research on the mediation of sociolinguistic style in fictional discourse, part of which is children’s literature (e.g. 1 Eugene Trivizas has taught Forensics and Comparative Criminal Law at the University of Reading and directs the Department of Criminal Justice Studies of the same University. He is the author of over 100 books for children. A great number of his literary works have been awarded in Greece, America and England, have been transmitted by the BBC, have been included in Greek and American language books and have been translated into English, German, Japanese, Spanish and other languages. Biblionet. recovered in November 10, 2013 from the website: http://tinyurl.com/nq5unkl. It is worth noting that the illustration of the books was done by the artist Vangelis Eleftheriou.
Stamou 2012). Conceptualizing fiction as a construction rather than a reflection of sociolinguistic style, the aim of such an endeavor is to acknowledge the ideological framework upon which fictional discourse operates, which builds a particular version about language and social reality (for more details, see Stamou in press).

3. ANALYSIS

3.1. Narrative Techniques

The series narrator engages into the performance of various functions, whose vast majority plays a determinant role in the creation of female characters. Quite expectedly, the transmission of the story, namely the narrative function, was the most prominent one: “It was pouring outside and there were thunders and a terrible commotion. In her room, Hara was wearing her striped pyjamas and was sleeping tucked under a feather comforter when suddenly...” (Trivizas 2009: 4). The directing function is also documented in every book of the series, as the narrator embarks upon the construction of the narrative material aiming to ensure its utmost effectiveness: “Hara glimpsed into the room. It was full of scattered toys: a wind-up frog, a teddy crocodile, a kite with blue earrings, a train with seven passenger cars, a piggy bank, a rattle, a clown, a torn teddy bear and a ball with red and pink patches” (Trivizas 2002: 7) The communication function that ensures the uninterrupted contact with the narratee is often encountered: “So, as you see, the Goudoun managed to acquire a tail made of carnival ribbons and a fine ear of azure conch” (Trivizas 2007: 34), while in some books the narrator intervenes in the form of brackets and attempts to undermine plausibility, thus accentuating the artificial character both of the text and its structural models: “The Goudoun initially had only one ear and Hara made for it a second one using an azure conch. (Read the story in the second book of the series, published with the title “Three carnival ribbons”) (Trivizas 2003: 6), where the narrator encourages the reader to read the book Three carnival ribbons (2007) in order to find out the way that the Goudoun acquired its new ear.

The narrator adopts zero focalization, characterised as omniscient, knowing the actions of every person of the story: “While the three dwarf pirates were giving out orange juice straws, colourful paperclips and red pencil leads, over to the laundry room the firefighter was eating kourabiedes [a Greek sweet] and the doctor was examining Manthos the Panther, who had got an anemone on the tip of his tail” (Trivizas 2006: 5). The narrator is covert and heterodiegetic, as he does not participate in the story he narrates, while often utilising the metalepsis phenomenon. This means that the lines among the narrative levels are blurred, without though disturbing the progression of the story, as the metalepsis is presented in the form of a reference: “If you’d like, paint a black despair and send it to me for inspection. Otherwise, if you prefer it, draw a red despair in yellow slippers” (Trivizas 2003: 6). Using this neoteric technique, the author succeeds in
Bringing forward his humorous approach on his themes. This is also achieved with the use of reported speech in most of the narratives: “Ha ha ha ha! I got you!, he cawed and laughed out loud. You fell into my trap! Nobody can save you now! – What will you do to me?, the Goudoun faltered. – I’ll stuff you. – What will you stuff me with, the Goudoun asked, as it didn’t like being stuffed with whatever. – I’ll tell you in just a minute! Here I ‘ve got the recipe.” (Trivizas 2002: 4). At the same time, the narrator’s narrative comments are often quoted in the reported speech, aiming to describe the speaker in detail, or to provide information about the characters’ quality of speech with comments about prosody, such as intonation and voice pitch: “What can I get you?, the waiter asked. – Two sour cherry juices for me and a kataifi [a traditional sweet] noodle thread for the Goudoun!, Hara gave her order. – Here it comessss!!! The waiter yelled.” (Trivizas 2006: 16).

The author also ingeniously exploits the relationship between the events of the story and their discourse layout. The forms of anachrony that are of greater interest are the prolepsis ones, where even though the reader is predisposed to the way the story continues, at the same time he anxiously anticipates with interest the unravelling of the plot: “At another time I’ll tell you what happened when the Goudoun-eater suffered from amnesia and totally forgot that he loved eating Goudouns” (Trivizas 2009: 46). A characteristic example is the dwarf pirates’ “warnings” on which places the two main characters will have to cross in order to reach their destination, the Mount of Luck, while searching for four-leaf clovers: “How do we get to the Mount of Luck? Hara asked. – With difficulty! The red-capped pirate said. With great difficulty. You have to pass through the forest of red nettles…- And the jungle of poisonous cacti, the forked-bearded pirate added. – And the worst: You have to pass through the Land of Mishap!, the feather-capped pirate said. A thousand mishaps will happen to you if you set foot in that land.” (Trivizas 2010: 12 – 13). The use of first person in the prolepses enables a different time setting which subverts the logical sequence of past – present – future into I - here – now, imposing a chronotope that directly links the narrator with the reader. At the same time, by changing the narrative person, the narrative action becomes more lively and vivid, surprising the reader through its direct communication and presentation of an achronous existential present: “Something tells me that right at this moment your ear is itching you too. So scratch it, it probably won’t fall off and later I am going to tell you what happened when the postman delivered a letter to Hara” (Trivizas 2003: 34).

Regarding the duration of the narration that deals with the relationship between the story time and the text time, the dialogue parts (isochronies - scenes, in which the event-story ideally has the same duration as the stage narration), in which the times of the story and the narration are the same, offer to the narration vibrancy,
vividness and directness, as for example the dialogue between the Goudoun and its teacher on numbers: “So as we were saying, the numbers...- Miss, Miss. - What’s wrong again, Goudoun?-I have a question. How many are all the numbers? – Too many. - And do we need them all? – Of course. – Well, let’s say, number 677, what use has it got? Can you tell me what do we need it for? - I don’t know exactly what we need 677 for, but someone some day may need it. Let’s leave arithmetics though and let’s move on to...” (Trivizas 2009: 39). In the speed up tempo of the text, the ellipsis, a technique of asynchrony, offers a rapid progression of the narration: “When a long time had passed, they ran full of hankering, opened the rubbish bin and bent down to see what had happened” (Trivizas 2003: 16), whereas through summary, a succinct report of the story is achieved, speeding up its progression: “They went to the Magic Square, in the Land of Lost Kites, broke the pomegranate and started counting its grains” (Trivizas 2003: 29). With the slowing down tempo, the reader’s anticipation of what happens next becomes sharper, while at the same time the narrator finds the opportunity to “stage” more comfortably the setting. For example, the description of the Goudoun’s bed as the prettiest and best bed of the whole world: “It was made of rosewood. It had a pillow made of swan feathers, an upper sheet weaved with moon thread, a blanket knitted with rainbow ribbons and a canopy embroidered with the galaxy jasmines!” (Trivizas 2006: 38).

As it can be observed, the ellipsis and summary demote the relevant parts of the story, in contrast to the slowing down and the pause, which stress them by making them the centre of the semantic function. In addition, these duration phenomena have also an aesthetic function, as a result of the change of pace and speed, since the narration becomes more vivid and active, without being monotonous. The scenes constitute the central parts of the narrative. In relation to the narrative frequency of events, which defines the relationship of the appearance of a certain event in the story and its presence in the narration, there is the singulative narration, which happened only once in the story, and the exceptional and remarkable iterative narration, which denotes only once something that in reality was repeated a lot of times.

It is worth mentioning the importance of the repeating narratives that are implemented in the narrative act. In every repetition that takes place, except for the characters who act on the repeated actions, different characters participate. A characteristic example is the Goudoun-eater’s effort to collect ingredients for his stuffed Goudoun’s recipe, during which he visits various stores, as the watch shop, the slippers shop, the bicycle shop and the umbrella shop (Trivizas 2002:17, 18, 21, 22). The characters’ actions and discourse in these repeated processes are similar. The repeated processes constitute a stylistic device characteristic of the author and function as the semantic centre of the narration, through which the reader’s interest is attracted by heightening his anticipation, while at the same time a humorous overtone is given.

Another element that characterizes this particular series as well as the whole of
Trivizas’s works is intertextuality. It is part of the artificial communication devices between the author and the reader, according to which the latter actually gives meaning to the text through already read texts that he needs to recall, relate and “commenti” while reading the given text. Intertextuality is a characteristic of Eugene Trivizas’s literary style, as the reader is referred to his other works through names of people and places. The references to Delicacystan (Lichoudistan), the Sugara (Zahara) desert, the Fearzon (Tromazon) jungle and Fruitopia are place names that the author uses widely in this particular fairy tale series, so that the reader is referred to his other works. For example, in the fairy tale *The great itch* (2003), it is the appearance of the castaway, of the deserted island and of the sea of Plops: “they passed over the White Coconut jungle and the land of pink cacti and the sea of Plops and in a short time they landed on a deserted island in the middle of the ocean [...] That castaway” (Trivizas 2003: 24) refers the reader to Trivizas’s *The red-bearded castaway* (1991).

### 3.2. The female characters

In an attempt to analyse the female characters in the fairy tale series *Hara and the Goudoun*, we used, as previously mentioned, a composite method that addresses the characters as personalities and as textual constructions (Papantonakis & Kotopoulos 2011: 77-85). The female characters in our case are differentiated by distinctive characteristics, where each one of them contributes in its own way to the progression of the story. It is worth mentioning though that the reader perceives the heroines’ personality traits through their actions, as these are manifested in the dialogue and narrative parts. It was beyond the scope of the present study to provide an in-depth psychographic profile of the heroines. It should be though taken into account that they address mainly children as readers, with cognitive limitations due to their age. Their psychological dimension is set on the background, without though totally dissipating.

The protagonist and main character of the fairy tale series is Hara, whose different personality facets emerge during the progression of the story, without though tracing important changes to her character analysis. Hara could be a role model for the reader, as she is characterized by altruism, she is polite towards all the other characters, she is active, she loves her friend and she does not take into account the material goods, giving emphasis to emotions. She is a flat and static character, as her personality does not alter significantly. Her name (Hara = Joy in Greek) predisposes the reader to her virtuous elements, as she is cheerful, sensitive and altruistic. Her habits and interests like her desire for games or chewing gum coincides with the child and student age. In that account she could be seen as a collective character (Nikolajeva understands this kind of character as a literary deception that is used for strictly pedagogical reasons (pseudo-collective character) (2002:80-82)). From the start, there is an emphatic highlighting of her altruistic nature, with her helping and showing an interest in others, even strangers, as it is...
demonstrated in her first encounter with the Goudoun, where she allows it to hide from the Goudoun-eater: “Hara took out the pillow from the pillow case and put inside the Goudoun” (Trivizas 2009: 10) and to stay at her home. Meanwhile, Hara’s interest in the Goudoun is demonstrated from the help she provides in its quest for food, as she travels with it to the Mount of Luck in order to find out the way four-leaf clovers grow (Trivizas 2010). She tries to fulfil the Goudoun’s every need, like finding for it a left ear, making a tail for it (Trivizas 2007), and relieving it from its itch by taking it to the doctor (Trivizas 2013), as well as to make every wish, like helping the main character in his quest for the best bed in the whole world (Trivizas 2006). Another of her traits is her honesty since she does not hesitate to express her dissatisfaction and criticises her friend’s behaviour when it is indecisive or overreacting: “Come on, for God’s sake, will you scratch it or not? Hara fumed. I am sick to death with you” (Trivizas 2003: 17), “You are so capricious, Hara said, this bed is too narrow, that bed splashes you. This one smells, that one pricks you.” (Trivizas 2006: 28). The heroine trusts the Goudoun and asks it for help in order to overcome her difficulties, for example her inability to sleep, and despite the fact that its advice is not feasible, she is not discouraged and continues to ask its opinion (Trivizas 2003). In another case, Hara asks the Goudoun to support her, when she confides that the reason of her sadness during her birthday was that not one of her beloved gave her his wishes. The Goudoun manages to change her mood by offering her various presents, with no monetary value, like an ice cream cone, a peach pit, a dustbin, and others (Trivizas 2010). At the same time, Hara shows her solidarity towards Goudoun, as she supports it to overcome the difficulties caused by the Goudoun-eater like when she helps her friend during its abduction by the Goudoun-eater, defying every danger.

Her wit is shown in the imaginative way she deceives the Goudoun-eater about the Goudoun’s appearance: “Besides, if it was hidden in the pillowcase, its tail would remain outside” (Trivizas 2009:16). Her spontaneity and resourcefulness are characteristic traits that are traced even when she spontaneously conceives and implements a plan to save the Goudoun: “Hara chewed the gums and made a thick red gum-pillow. She deposited the gum-pillow on the saddle of the goudoun-bicycle. She then perforated the tyres with the pins; [...] Hara grabbed the pillow and turned tail.” (Trivizas 2002:34). She likes playing, as there are many moments when she plays with the Goudoun and the dwarf pirates. Hara has a playful behaviour, doing mischief, like when she changes the doorknobs in her house with magic, unwittingly causing a lot of troubles to her father (Trivizas 2006). Her impetuous behaviour is also highlighted by the fact that she has the habit of leaving her home without previously informing her parents, even during the night (Trivizas 2003: 24), or by just leaving them a letter: “Mum, don’t worry I’ve left. I am going to the soap bubble festival in China and then to the penguin dance in North Pole and then to the Queen’s party at Delicacystan, Many Kisses/ Hará” (Trivizas 2010:22)

Evlambia is a secondary and flat character. As the heroine’s mother, she plays a
crucial role in the advancement of the story. Her name (meaning a person who shines in Greek) denotes and incarnates the traditional mother, who takes care of her home and her child. She loves her husband, Iordanis, but often nags about the situation at home, like when the doorknobs were replaced by magic (Trivizas 2006). Her character aids the progression of the story, like when she misinterprets the Goudoun-eater’s visit to her house as a nightmare, and subsequently she does not notice her daughter’s removal from the house (Trivizas 2002:30). Evlambia is the kind of a mother and housewife reminiscent of the traditional Greek woman, at least until the last decade of the 20th century, who wants to know where his/her child is, takes care of him/her, gets anxious about him/her, scolds him/her when he/she is being naughty and reminds him/her to go to school, while at the same time she wants to hold the control of the house and to order her husband around for indoor and outdoor chores. Many times though she disagrees with her husband in a sharp and imprudent way, highlighting a feminist point of view. The humorous dialogues between Evlambia and her husband make the reader laugh and attract his attention.

The fairy tale series Hara and the Goudoun comprises a variety of secondary female characters, who play different roles and contribute variously to the progression of the story. In the fifth fairy tale The Mount of Luck (2010, two flat characters appear, slowing down the progression of the story, as they do not help the heroes to find the seeds for four-leaf clovers, but instead they mock and laugh at them. The first is a white fox who usually knits jumpers made of boiled pasta. She hides the truth for the existence of the seeds from the main characters, she mocks at them by repeating everything they say. The other character is the turkey that wears a striped waistcoat and sits in a glass mortar drinking with delight an icy drink. She presents herself as more arrogant and ironic in comparison with the fox as she laughs louder and repeats things more blatantly. The presence of these two characters aims at the heightening of suspense for the reader, of his interest in the conclusion of the story and also of his curiosity about the residents of the Mount of Luck.

In the ninth book of the fairy tale series The Goudoun goes to school (2002), three types of teachers are presented, each one of them striving to do the best they can. All three characters lie to the category of flat characters and they are respectively the firefighters’ teacher, the dwarf pirates’ teacher and the Goudouns’ teacher. The firefighters’ teacher is presented as a character that wants to succeed in her educational work but has difficulties because of her students’ indiscipline and low educational level. She tries to elicit from them the correct answer by giving them a lot of information, but they are still unable to find it. In addition, in a practical level, she is unable to teach her students, as they cannot even put out a lighted match, creating as a consequence uproar in her class. Her role is supportive as her presence is conducive to the Goudoun’s reaching a decision to go to school. She is a comic role as her reaction causes the reader to laugh. The dwarf pirates’ teacher is presented as unable to impose upon her students in class. She tries to
attract her students’ attention in the teaching of the division process by giving examples of the pirate life. This approach fails; however, when during the reference to certain practical examples, a lot of students have misunderstandings with each other, causing turmoil. This teacher’s presence is also supportive, as she helps the Goudoun decide to go to school. Her presence gives a happy tone to the read and her reactions make the reader laugh. The third Goudoun’s teacher wishes to give lessons as anthropology, language—and mathematics. This teacher accepts both the Goudoun’s right and wrong answers and explanations, thus making it apparent that she does not have the prerequisite knowledge. What’s more, she is unable to keep the Goudoun—main character under control, when it wants a break and stubbornly creates uproar. The Goudoun’s behaviour and the teacher’s reactions have a negative impact on the lesson’s realisation. She is rather naïve, as she accepts every one of the main character’s reactions, despite her attempts to impose upon them. Her role is supportive to the progression of the story and her presence gives a humorous overtone to the narrative. The teachers’ impotence and the students’ indiscipline are biting examples, while many of the problems that the contemporary educational system faces are dealt here in a humorous way.

There is a smaller role for the two witches that are encountered in the twelfth book of the fairy tale series The witch with the doorknobs (2006), but they are not included in our study since, even though they function either to slow down the progression of the story heightening the suspense or to speed up avoiding narrative ramblings, the author does not let them talk.

### 3.3. The female characters’ speech style

The sociolinguistic analysis of female characters in Trivizas’s fairy tale series was performed in the dialogical parts of the books, in which the characters’ speech styles could be revealed. Sociolinguistics has always sought to determine the social variety signaling gender identity, namely ‘genderlect’ (Tannen 1990). By employing the terms ‘women’s’ and ‘men’s language’, early research has compiled a list of lexico-grammatical features (e.g. Lakoff 1975) and of conversational phenomena (e.g. Zimmerman & West 1975), considering to characterize genderlect in an Anglo-Saxon cultural setting. However, under the influence of social constructionism and the adoption of a performative conception of gender as something that people achieve through talk rather than something they are, more recent sociolinguistic studies have reconceptualised genderlect as a symbolic resource upon which actual women and men draw in order to construct their gender identity during their interactions. Adopting a fluid conception of gender as displayed through interaction, it is possible to find cases in which women talk like men, and the reverse, so that we can refer to a “masculine woman or to a feminine man” (Behm 2009: 25). The reconceptualization of genderlect has been signaled by the replacement of the terms ‘women’s’ and ‘men’s language’ with the labels ‘feminine’ and ‘masculine’ speech styles, respectively. These terms express two idealized constructs which
inscribe the established normative attitudes of what is considered to be prototypically ‘feminine’ and ‘masculine’ in a given sociocultural context. They also mark a shift from the determination of genderlect on purely linguistic grounds to one on broader interactional stances, communicative strategies and pragmatic meanings.

A well-known distinction made between feminine and masculine talk is that the former is managed on a collaborative floor, while the latter is organized on a competitive one (e.g. Holmes 1995, Malz & Borker 1982). Moreover, according to Tannen (1990), feminine communicative style is a ‘rapport-talk’ whereas masculine one is a ‘report-talk’. The former focuses on the interpersonal functions of the interaction, such as emotional connection and intimacy, with the aim to maintain social relationships. The latter focuses on the referential functions of the interaction for the exchange of information, with the aim to stress independence, status and hierarchy.

Hara is distinguished by a variety of features, for example she is very kind and always wants to help others, like the Goudoun, which she wants to protect and hide from the Goudoun-eater. Hara in her search to calm the Goudoun down in order to find a hiding place says in an assertive and decisive tone that it cannot hide to the places proposed by the main character: “–Should I hide to the keyhole? – You do not fit. - Under the bed? – No way. - Why? – Three dwarf pirates are staying under the bed. - If I hid behind my tail? – But you don't have one” (Trivizas 2009:7). Hara's style of talk is characterized here by categorical assertives through which she shows her direct disagreement with Goudoun's sayings. In general, Hara resorts to a masculine speech style when the Goudoun is gripped with anxiety and insecurity, caused by the life-threatening mood or presence of the Goudoun-eater, which is why Hara takes decisions highlighting a decisiveness which is reflected in her speech.

However, in most of the cases, Hara draws upon a feminine speech style, by adopting a communicative stance characterized by mildness, deference and hesitance. For example, at her meeting with the doctor she mitigates the face-threatening act directed to the doctor asking him to examine the Goudoun, through the use of negative politeness (e.g. the second person in plural, ‘please’): "Can you look at this Goudoun here, please? Hara asked" (Trivizas 2003: 8). Moreover, in many instances, her talk is oriented to the interpersonal aspects of the interaction, by expressing her emotional support and gratitude to the Goudoun: "Really, my dear Goudoun? You cannot possibly know what a joy you bring to me! I love you so much!" (Trivizas 2010: 6). On the other hand, her speech style is often hesitant and insecure by mitigating the assertiveness of her sayings via a question of confirmation: "I saved you though. Didn't I?" (Trivizas 2002: 36), or by expressing her disagreement in an indirect manner: "You are right, I am not arguing. But just think about the good things too" (Trivizas 2002: 8). Moreover, she usually holds a supportive role in conversations with others. For instance, when she talks with the three dwarf pirates, she repeats the central part of each pirate's utterance, showing
her interest in the descriptions they deliver about the places they have visited during their journeys".

You will find the Island of Oblivion! The red-capped dwarf pirate said. -And where is the island of Oblivion? And where is the Island of Savour, where thousands of cooks cook thousands of goodies all day! The forked-bearded pirate said. -And where is the Island of Savour located? -Beyond the Island of Non-stop Damage, where thousands of cats always cause damage, the dwarf pirate with the esteemed wing in hat said -and where is the island of non-stop Damage located?" (Trivizas 2006: 13).

Evlambia has a twofold presence, the role of mother and the role of housewife. At the same time, there are some distinct elements in her role which correspond to a feminist character, as in many discussions with her spouse Iordanis, she opposes to his views, and she challenges him and orders him around. More specifically, in her role as a mother, she usually adopts a masculine speech style, in order to scold her daughter for her behaviour and habits. For instance, she reminds Hara to go to school and not to throw her chewing gum around in the house, as she usually does, by adopting a sharp and imperative style, through directive speech acts, categorical assertives, and the elongation of sound in her name ("Hara::") for emphasis "Hara::! Time to go school! Mum's voice was heard. And stop letting chewed gum here and there. The gum you had left on the couch stuck in your uncle Ermolaos's pants and we had a difficult time removing it!" (Trivizas 2002: 9). On the other hand, in the absence of Hara, she sometimes displays a feminine style of talk, showing her emotionalism and involvement, which she wishes to hide from her daughter. For example, when Iordanis urges her not to talk about his nightmare to their daughter, Evlambia refers to Hara through the diminutive term of endearment 'my little angel', indicating her affection for her daughter: “No way! say anything to my little angel? Never” (Trivizas 2002: 32).

In her discussions with her husband Iordanis, Evlambia constructs herself as a (house) wife through the strategic use of a feminine speech style. Specifically, she adopts a mild and hesitant style in order to disagree while avoiding a direct confrontation with him. For instance, she expresses her indirect disagreement with Iordanis through statements in the form of questions: "Which bathroom, Iordanis?, mom was baffled. What are you saying? Here it is the North Pole! Don’t you see the icebergs? Don’t you see the igloos? Don’t you see the seals playing flute? Don’t you feel the polar chill?" (Trivizas 2006: 24). , “and who is to blame for this situation, please? [...] -Of course. Didn’t you buy the refrigerator?" (Trivizas 2006: 38). However, she sometimes displays a more imperative masculine style of talk, in order to signal her control over the housework, and thus confirming her identity as housewife: “Before leaving for vacations do not forget to paint the chimney! she told him” (Trivizas 2006:46)

The Goudouns’ teacher displays a feminine style of talk by adopting a communicative stance characterized by tolerance, lack of authoritativeness and hesitance, e.g. through orders in the form of questions: "would you like to come to
the board to write your name?" (Trivizas 2009: 39). However, through this speech style, she fails to have control over her students, while she receives their ironical comments. For instance, the Goudoun playfully teases her through a repair for the term of endearment (‘my little darling; literally meaning ‘my gold’) she uses to address it: *I didn't say "gold", I said "red"*" (Trivizas 2009: 31). Nevertheless, when she loses her temper because of the Goudoun's indiscipline, she resorts to a masculine style, in order to indicate her decisiveness and assertiveness: "what you did was not right. The teacher said. It is not correct to splash your classmates with red paint" (Trivizas 2009: 32). Consequently, the teacher’s oscillation between a feminine and masculine speech style highlights the various modes she implements in order to achieve her main objective, which is the successful continuation of the lesson, despite the difficulties she has to face because of the Goudoun's behaviour.

4. CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, it is shown that the Eugene Trivizas's fairy tale series “Hara and the Goudoun” draws upon a variety of narrative techniques which assign a signifying value in narrative practice. The reported speech that is widely used in narrative practice gives the narrative vitality, action and vividness, as it helps the reader follow with interest the progression of the story. In addition, there are various neoterisms, such as the phenomenon of metalepsis, surprising the reader and placing him in constant contact with the narrative. The use of the phenomenon of metalepsis adds a humorous style and contributes to changing the relationship between chronotopes of the reader and the narrative. Intertextuality holds a special importance, as in this the fictitious world of the author’s narratives can be built. Through intertextuality, the reader finds himself in a continuous dialogue with the author’s other narratives. The duplication of similar situations is widely used in the story and gives a humorous mood in the narrative. They also attract the reader's interest, because they intensify his anticipation about the progression of the story. In addition, there is variety of female characters, each one with the role of contributing to the progression of the story. The female characters of the narrative present a wide range of personalities, albeit being generally static and flat, without remarkable variations to the advancement of the action. Hara displays elements of altruism and innocence, wants to protect the people that surround her. At the same time, Hara is honest, that’s why she does not hesitate to criticise the Goudoun's inappropriate behaviour. Through the role of Hara, the children's innocence, imagination, openness and playful behaviour are reflected, elements that induce the interest and identification of the reader with the character. In addition, the role of modern woman is reflected in Evlambia's character which is at the same time housewife, mother, has personal desires, wants to be aware of all the events taking place at home, orders her husband around and expresses her strong opposition to several of his views. In this way, the position taken by woman in modern society is depicted, by displaying a dynamic female presence. With the appearance of
teachers, major issues of the educational system are presented in a humorous way and teaching approaches that have been implemented over the years in education are ridiculed, thus giving the opportunity to the reader to critically reflect upon them.

On the other hand, sociolinguistic analysis confirms the static and flat nature of female characters as derived from narrative and character analysis. Specifically, they all tend to adopt a feminine style of talk, characterized by mildness, hesitance and emotionalism. Given that feminine and masculine styles of talk presuppose a patriarchal social organization in which men and women assume traditional gender roles, the Trivizas’s picture books analysed here seem to resonate the dominant gender ideologies. Interestingly, a masculine speech style, characterized by assertiveness, authoritativeness and decisiveness, is only occasionally and exceptionally adopted by female characters (e.g. when Evlambia wants to scold Hara, or when the teacher attempts to impose her authority over the Goudoun). In such cases, female characters do not wish to sound like men (i.e. display a male identity), but want to be associated with values (e.g. dynamism) stereotypically assigned to men and dissociated from those (e.g. passiveness) linked to women. In other words, they are represented as imitating the dominant group (i.e. men) by adopting its values (i.e. masculine style of talk). Hence, Trivizas’s books depict the strategy of ‘assimilation’ on the part of female characters, which refers to the strategy of having a superior group as a role model and not being able to shape a positive distinct identity (Tajfel 1981). This sociolinguistic representation echoes cases in which women attempt to resist hegemonic female identities and are found to distance themselves from prototypically feminine speech stylistic resources and converge to masculine ones.

REFERENCES

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