Theory and Research
in the
Sciences of Education

Θεωρία και Έρευνα
στις
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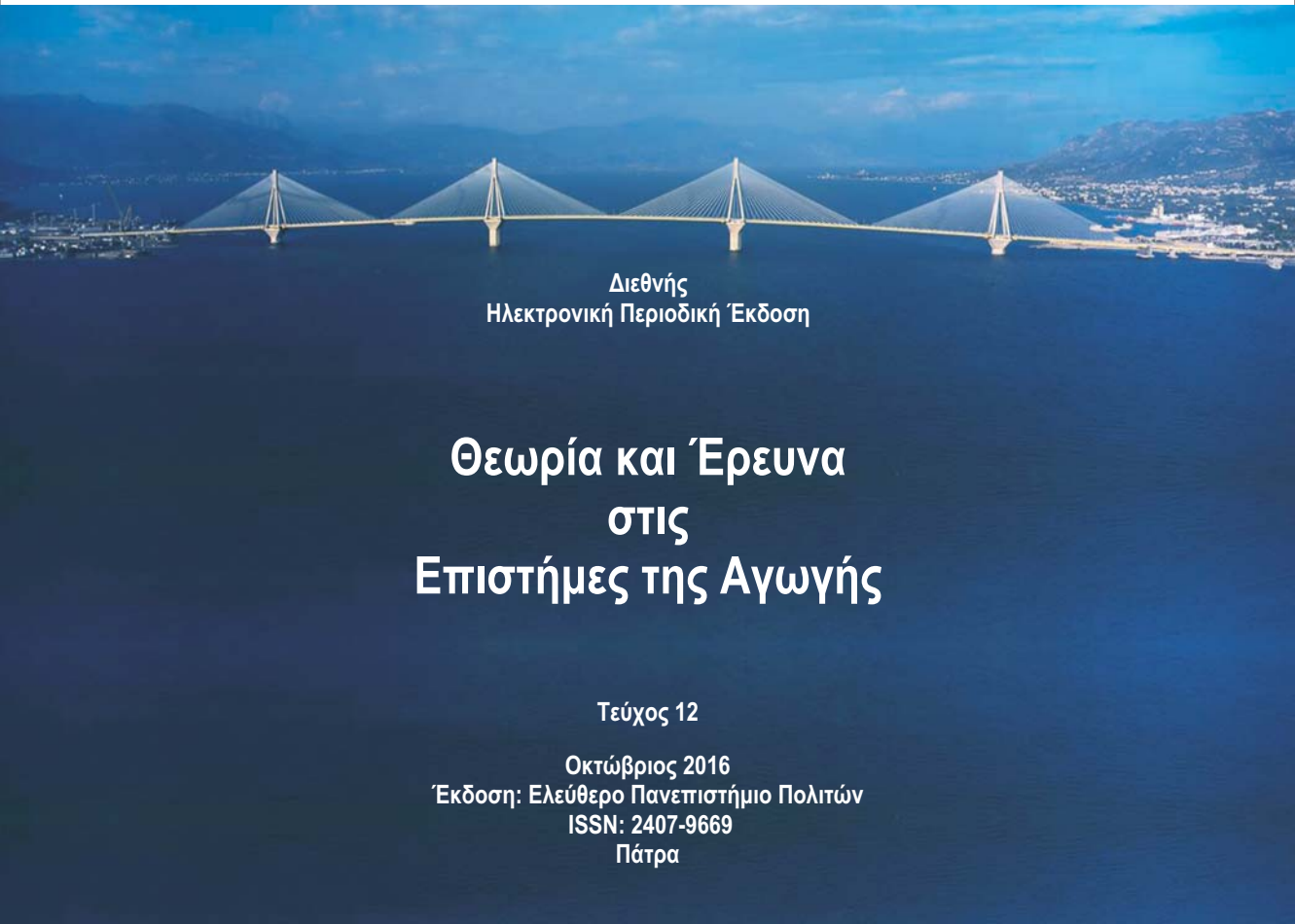**Iliopoulou Konstantina**, *PhD Applied Linguistics, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki*
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Abstract

The article describes the findings of a study focussing on the Greek Community Schools in the UK, and follows the development of teachers' theories and practices as they adapt to working there. I outline how they develop a form of bilingual pedagogy appropriate to the needs of their students. Teachers' voices are explored in order to uncover the 'tacit' as well as the more explicit theories which shape their practice. The study shows that teachers' theories are dynamic, and develop in a broadly reflective manner. The teachers are ideally placed to understand the complexity which characterises issues relating to language in contemporary heterogeneous classrooms, developing a rich local knowledge of the students (including the form of diglossia in the community, students' learning styles, forms of motivation, etc). Their reflections feed into practice as their teaching methods become more closely tailored to the needs of their students.

Δίγλωσση Εκπαίδευση & θεωρίες των εκπαιδευτικών: "φωνές" από τα Ελληνικά Κοινοτικά Σχολεία

Περίληψη

Η παρουσίαση περιγράφει τα ευρήματα μιας έρευνας με επίκεντρο τα Ελληνικά Κοινοτικά σχολεία στο Ηνωμένο Βασίλειο, και ακολουθεί την ανάπτυξη των θεωριών και πρακτικών των δασκάλων καθώς προσαρμόζονται στη διδασκαλία με τους δίγλωσσους μαθητές τους . «Οι φωνές» των εκπαιδευτικών διερευνούνται προκειμένου να έλθουν στην επιφάνεια οι σιωπηρές, καθώς και οι πρόδηλες θεωρίες που διαμορφώνουν την πρακτική τους. Η μελέτη δείχνει ότι οι θεωρίες των εκπαιδευτικών είναι δυναμικές, και έχουν αναπτυχθεί, με στοχαστικοκεντρικό τρόπο. Οι εκπαιδευτικοί είναι σε ιδανική θέση για να κατανοήσουν την πολυπλοκότητα που χαρακτηρίζει τα θέματα που σχετίζονται με τη διδασκαλία της γλώσσας στις σύγχρονες ετερογενείς τάξεις, αναπτύσσοντας μια πλούσια τοπική γνώση των μαθητών (συμπεριλαμβανομένης της μορφής της διγλωσσίας στην κοινότητα, τα στυλ μάθησης των μαθητών, μορφές κινήτρων, κλπ). που τροφοδοτούν την πρακτική και τις μεθόδους διδασκαλίας τους ώστε να είναι περισσότερο προσαρμοσμένα στις ανάγκες των μαθητών τους.

1. Introduction

This article presents research focussing on teachers in Greek Community schools in the UK. The teachers, coming mostly from Greece and Cyprus, develop a nuanced understanding of the needs of their students during their, typically 5-year, stay in the UK. They come to appreciate the complexity of the "language situation"[1] within their classrooms, as well as learning about the hybrid culture of their students. They develop methodological positions based on this precise, local knowledge. Through, principally, semi-structured interviews and ethnographic observation, I explore the "theories" of these teachers at a range of levels: from the more "fine-grained" – what works in the classroom with these specific students, for example, to the more abstract – including their beliefs about bilingualism and multicultural pedagogy. The research throws light on the value of teachers' knowledge, especially in heterogeneous classrooms, and suggests that teachers' knowledge can be usefully drawn on in the fields of training, research and policy formulation.

2. Language issues in diverse classroom

Increasingly schools are being recognised as culturally and linguistically diverse.

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1 Baker, C. (1996), *Foundations of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*. 2nd Ed. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, p. 37

Major cities in multicultural societies provide clear illustrations: over 200 languages are spoken by children attending London schools[2]. Many countries which have long seen themselves as being homogeneous have also in recent years begun to accept the reality of their heterogeneity.

Given this diversity - the presence within the same cities, the same schools, the same classrooms, of children with varied linguistic backgrounds - various issues arise. For example:

- What position should be adopted towards community languages? Is the mother tongue to be supported, ignored or actively suppressed? What effects do these choices of policy and practice have?
- Is bilingualism seen as cognitively and linguistically advantageous - an 'additive' view - or disadvantageous - a 'subtractive' position?
- How is the acquisition of the dominant language to be approached?
- Based on such assumptions and positions, what kind of education should be adopted from a wide range of possibilities, ranging from 'submersion' to models aiming for bilingualism and biculturalism for all students)[3]?
- At the more fine-grained level, what kind of language-teaching methodology is appropriate? From approaches, focussing on conscious work on areas of grammar and vocabulary; to more 'communicative' approaches, emphasising comprehensible 'input' and meaningful tasks[4], or finding a satisfactory balance between developing communicative skills and doing conscious work on particular language areas[5]?

Making decisions on how to approach linguistic diversity is made more challenging when we take into account the potential for difference from one class to another. Hornberger[6] has distinguished thirteen 'continua of biliteracy' which combine to produce the linguistic profile of a class (or of particular students within it). These include how close or distant the script, lexis or grammar system of the home language is from the dominant language; the opportunity to use the language in the home or the community; the status it has (and thus the students' perception of its utility, sense of motivation to learn it).

The above are issues ultimately faced by teachers, since they are called on to 'deliver' policy, or 'translate' it into practice. We therefore turn to focus on the teacher.

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2 Eversley, J. & Baker, P. (eds.) (2000*), Multilingual capital: the languages of London's schoolchildren and their relevance to economic, social and educational policies.* London: Battlebridge

3 See: Baker, C. (1996), *Foundations of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*. 2nd Ed. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, p.175

4 Richards, J. & Rodgers, T. (2001), *Approaches & Methods in Language Teaching* (2nd Ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

5 Cummins, J. (2000), Learning to Read in a Second Language. In: Shaw. S (ed), *Intercultural Education in European Classrooms*. Stoke on Trent: Trentham, p.46

6 Hornberger, N. (2002), Multilingual Language Policies and the Continua of Biliteracy: An Ecological Approach. *Language Policy* (1), p.39

3. The Teacher's Voice

The diversity found in classrooms, and the complex mosaic of 'language situations'[7] across different educational settings, implies a multiplicity of teaching conditions. Thus:

> "the increasing diversity of schools and school children render global solutions to problems and monolithic strategies for effective teaching impossible"[8].

From an epistemological point of view, therefore, teachers can be seen to be ideally positioned to understand how policy can be tailored to meet local needs[9] (an epistemological perspective emphasising the importance of local social contexts in education). Moreover, the teacher is well placed to develop appropriate pedagogic strategies under these conditions. This is not to downplay the importance of policy makers or academic researchers, but rather precisely to assert that the teacher can usefully be brought into discussions around bilingual pedagogy.

4. Theoretical and Methodological Orientations

4.1 Theory: Conceptualising the Teacher

The aim of this study derives from an understanding that teachers theorise their everyday practice and that their practice ultimately derives from theories.

What, then, are 'teachers' theories'? There is, on the one hand, a practical dimension – a kind of 'how-to' knowledge about teaching, while, on the other, there is an aspect that relates to underlying assumptions – for example, their fundamental beliefs about how learning takes place. 'Action theories'[10], which teachers draw on *when* they are teaching, may be only partially conscious, and are structured around a set of deep assumptions. Osterman and Kottkamp[11] posit 'theories-in-use' (tacit/partly unconscious) and 'espoused theories' (explicit/conscious). Theories-in-use inform practice, while espoused theories are more easily articulated, but may be at odds with what one actually does in the classroom. Again, much of the teachers' 'local knowledge'[12] may be tacit.

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7 Baker, C. (1996), *Foundations of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*. 2nd Ed. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, p. 37

8 Little, S.L. & Cochran-Smith, M. (1994), Inquiry, Knowledge and Practice. In: Hollingsworth & Sockett (eds), *Teacher Research and Educational Reform.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press

9 Kincheloe, J. (2003), *Teachers as Researchers: Qualitative Inquiry as a Path to Empowerment*. London: RoutledgeFalmer

10 Schφn, D. (1983), *The Reflective Practitioner: How Professionals Think in Action*. New York: Basic Books.

11 Osterman, K. and Kotcamp, R. (1993), *Reflective Practice for Educators: Improving Schooling through Professional Development*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press, Sage

12 Geertz, C. (1983), *Local Knowledge: Further Essays in Interpretive Anthropology*. New York: Basic Books

Teachers' theories can also be conceptualised in terms of how they develop, and in terms of their scope. If we understand teachers' theories as being dynamic (i.e. that teachers learn through experience), we understand teachers as being reflective. Thus, research into the 'teacher's voice' should be sensitive to how the theories behind that voice develop in relation to experience.

Finally, there has also been a concern with two other dimensions of the development of teachers' theories: the extent to which they are a product of the teacher's biography (i.e. part of a personal narrative), and the degree to which they are constructed collaboratively.

4.2 Methodology: Listening to the Teacher

A necessary element in listening to the teacher's voice is a suitable methodology. I have chosen semi-structured interviews[13] as the main method, allied with ethnographical observation. As has been asserted above, teachers' theories can have an aspect which is 'tacit', which would be hard to reveal with quantitative techniques such as surveys using large samples. To genuinely listen to teachers, it becomes necessary to work with relatively small samples explore the teachers' theories in depth. I have attempted, in a broadly hermeneutic manner, to bring out the tacit, as well as the explicit theories of the teachers and to indicate how the interviewees position themselves in relation to powerful discourses relating to language and language-education. Finally, I have been concerned with tracing teachers' biographies, to the extent that this helps explain the development of their theories over time.

The notion of 'theoretical sampling'[14] informed the selection of respondents: there was variation in terms of the teachers' backgrounds and experience (some had already worked intensively with minority students, some had taught in other countries in addition to Greece and the UK, most were raised in Greece, but one was from Cyprus and another was originally from the Greek community in the USA).

The use of semi-structured interviews was based on the advantage, on the one hand, of asking all the teachers (broadly) the same questions, and thus allowing for effective comparison between their answers, and on the other of being able to further probe certain issues and to allow conversation to develop with a degree of freedom, giving the teachers more scope to express themselves in their own words. The questions asked examined a range of issues relating to language: the use of language in the community, questions relating to language learning and teaching, the value of bilingualism and so on. In addition there were questions exploring the degree and manner in which teachers' theories and

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13   Silverman, D. (2000), *Doing Qualitative Research*. London: Sage
14   Mason, J. (1996), *Qualitative Researching.* London: Sage

practices had developed since coming to the UK. I was in a good position to know what kinds of experiences they were referring to since I was teaching in the Community Schools.

Teachers were interviewed near the beginning of their stay in the UK and nearer the end (the teachers came to the UK for a five-year period to work in the Greek Community Schools – see below). This allowed the comparison of teachers at an earlier and later stage of reflective development. However, an important part of the analysis involved exploring teachers' accounts of their own development. Through intensive analysis of this material a strong set of patterns emerged across the whole group.

Another aspect to this type of approach is that language is seen as requiring interpretation to reliably bring out meaning[15]. My aim therefore was to become immersed in the 'world' of the teachers so that there is a 'fusion of horizons'[16] between us. Clearly this process requires an in-depth understanding of the teachers' lives, culture and language.

A further assumption underlying the research is that language is fundamentally structured by socially-powerful forces[17] and that there will be discourses related to certain institutions[18]. Various 'clues' in the text, taken together, suggest commitment to positions such as the cognitive benefits of bilingualism, or the negative effects of stifling the mother tongue.

As an example, when asked to discuss a concrete example of their practice, the teachers responded by giving descriptive accounts of certain lessons which then led to more general statements. The teachers do not say that they advocate a communicative methodology, but rather explain which elements from their own practice they think work best. Through analysis, the picture of the teachers' underlying beliefs becomes more clear: they believe in genuine communication, in providing plenty of familiar cultural references to support language learning, and so on. The various categories used by the teachers 'are linked up … to form discourses as structures of meaning'[19], i.e. to make a coherent picture of a specific approach to language teaching.

The study draws its validity from a number of sources. I attempted to make the sample broadly representative (the practice of 'theoretical sampling'). Furthermore, forms of triangulation were provided by interviewing one of the coordinators, by reference to various texts and documents relating to the Community Schools, and by drawing on my own ethnographically-derived

15 Gubrium, J. F. and J. A. Holstein (1997), *The New Language of Qualitative Methodology.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
16 Gadamer (1975), *Truth and Method.* London: Sheed & Ward
17 Foucault, M. (1972), *The Archaeology of Knowledge and the Discourse on Language.* New York: Pantheon
18 Smith, D. E. (2002), Institutional Ethnography. In: May. T (ed.) *Qualitative Research in Action.* London: Sage
19 Alasuutari, P. (1995), *Researching Culture: Qualitative Method & Cultural Studies.* London: Sage, p.67

experiences as a check on what the teachers were reporting. More broadly, this approach can be supported through an emphasis on internal validity (the degree to which the findings correctly map the subject of the particular study)[20], and seeing the results of qualitative research as 'moderate' generalisations[21].

5. Focus & Setting of the Research: The Theories & Practices of Teachers in Greek Community Schools

The research focuses on teachers working in Greek Community Schools in the UK in their five-year period of appointment. In this time they were to be teaching members of the Greek and Greek-Cypriot community in the UK - and would thus be intensively exposed to a range of issues related to biculturalism and bilingualism.

Students attending the Community Schools are mostly from the second or third generation of the Greek Cypriot community, although there are also a significant number of students with Greek heritage. Thus the students come from a 'hybrid'[22] community: the 'Greek' community in the UK has roots in both Cyprus and Greece, and especially for those from the second or third generation, has characteristics which blend elements of their British and Greek cultural identity. Thus the students' culture, together with their use and understanding of the Greek language, had significant differences from that of the teachers.

Most of the Greek Community Schools are part-time, with classes held at weekends and/or on weekday evenings. The main aim is to teach the Greek language, but most schools also teach some Greek history or other culturally relevant subjects. There are over 100 of these part-time Greek Community Schools in the UK[23]. Many schools are run in cooperation with the Greek Orthodox Church but there are a number of more secular 'Independent' schools. In addition to the part-time schools there are a handful of full-time schools, one of which is part of the British education system, while others are supported by the Greek state, with a similar curriculum to that found in mainstream schools in Greece. All of the Greek Community Schools receive support from the Greek and Greek-Cypriot states in the form of textbooks and teachers, appointed in an attempt to support the Greek Diaspora to 'keep alive a consciousness of [students] belonging to a Greek-speaking ethnic group'[24].

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20 Denzin, N. and Lincoln, Y. (eds) (1994), *Handbook of Qualitative Research.* London: Sage, p. 100
21 See: Hammersley, M. (1992), *What's wrong with ethnography: Methodological Explorations.* London: Routledge; Williams (2002), Generalisation in Interpretative Research. In: May, T. (ed). *Qualitative Research in Action*. London: Sage, p.138
22 Bhabha, H. (1998), Culture's In Between. In Bennett (ed.), *Multicultural States: Rethinking difference and identity*. London: Routledge
23 Greek Schools in Britain (2016), at: http://www.nostos.com/education/gkschools_uk.htm [Accessed 2 June 2016]
24 Constantinides, P.(1977), The Greek Cypriots: Factors in Maintenance of Ethnic Identity. In: James &

6. Findings

I will, initially, outline a number of key problems described by the teachers, and then show the ways in which the teachers investigated these problems, and how this then aided the development of both their theories and practices. I will also include indications of how these processes can be brought into clearer focus by taking account of teachers' previous life histories, the role of dialogue, or 'critical' aspects of their theories and practices.

6.1 Teachers Identifying and 'Researching' Problems

Some of the major issues identified by the teachers as they started working in the Community Schools include: the 'language situation'[25] in the community, the textbooks the teachers are required to use, and the students' learning style and motivation.

> "The sentence, one student gave me was: 'O papas lalei sto Church tin prosefhi' [the priest intones/sings in the church the prayer]. It's a mixture of the three : English, Greek and Cypriot." [Michalis]

> "There is an issue with the level of the textbooks: it's pitched too high ... It addresses students who have much better knowledge: they speak Greek in the home, and have a much better fluency. The level of comprehension is assumed to be quite high. Sometimes you say things like 'cliste tin porta' [close the door] and they can't understand!" [Pavlides]

> "In the beginning I tried to do everything in the ways we do it in Greece: I had a fierce reaction. They didn't want to work in this way at all." [Demitrius]

A key issue for the teachers is the complexity of language use within the community: in the same class there may be students who speak little Greek, some who are familiar with the Cypriot dialect, some who have strong receptive skills but weak productive skills, others who are relatively confident speakers. However, the teachers initially have an expectation that most students will be speaking (standard) Greek at home, and will thus have a functional command of the language. Furthermore, the textbooks they are required to use (which are produced and supplied by the Greek state) appear to share this assumption. Thus, presuppositions originating in Greece (held by both materials-writers and, initially, by the teachers) are confounded by the complex local reality.

These kinds of experiences, in which aspects of teachers' existing theories are contradicted by new classroom experiences, can be described as the

Waron (eds), *Between Two Cultures: Immigrants and Identity in Britain.* Oxford: Blackwell, p.284
25   Baker, C. (1996), *Foundations of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*. 2nd Ed. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, p.37

encountering of 'dilemmas'[26] or 'critical incidents'[27]. Essentially, the teachers were led to question previous assumptions through meeting problems for which prior training or experience in Greece had left them unprepared. These acts of questioning worked as a trigger to a process of reflective development.

Over time the teachers understand that their students know 'standard' or Cypriot versions of the language, one or both parents speak Greek in the home (which is often a function of which 'generation' the parents belong to). Other issues relate to learning style and motivation. All the teachers reported facing resistance from their students when they tried to teach in the ways they were used to in Greece. They come to see a difference between the typical learning style in Greece and that among the Greek community in the UK: essentially that the students in the UK are more dependent on context for understanding (i.e. they have a more 'relational'[28], or 'field dependent'[29] learning style than students in Greece). Having identified poor motivation as a widespread issue, the teachers come to explain it by noting a number of socio-linguistic factors, including the marginal status of Greek as opposed to English in the UK and, in particular, the assimilationist pressure to speak only English (resulting in a reluctance to speak Greek in their mainstream schools).

The interview transcripts provide clear evidence of a movement from questioning towards investigation, 'research' or 'reflection' and of a rich local knowledge built up by the teachers, primarily from conversations with parents, students, colleagues and head-teachers. This pattern in the teachers' thinking, from initial questioning to 'reflection', corresponds to patterns described in influential models of reflective development[30].

6.2 Modified Teaching Theories; Modified Practice

The process of reflection initiated through an awareness of contradictions between previous assumptions and present realities is seen to lead to a restructuring of teaching theories and a reorientation of teaching practice. The restructuring of the teachers' theories occurs at a number of different levels: on one level there

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26 Osterman, K.& Kottkamp, R. (2004), *Reflective Practice for Educators* (2nd Ed.). Thousand Oaks: Corwin Press, p.27

27 See: Brookfield, S. (1990), *Becoming a critically reflective teacher*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc.; Tripp, D. (1993), *Critical Incidents in Teaching*. London: Routledge

28 Marshall, P.L. (2002), *Cultural Diversity in Our Schools*. Belmont CA: Wadsworth/Thomson Learning, p.306

29 See: Banks, J.A. (1988), *Multiethnic Education: Theory & Practice* London: Allyn & Bacon; Ramirez, M. and Castaneda, A. (1974), *Cultural Democracy, Bicognitive Development and Education*. New York: Academic Press

30 For example: Kolb, D.A. (1984), *Experiential Learning: Experience as the Source of Learning and Development*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall; Schφn, D. (1983), *The Reflective Practitioner: How Professionals Think in Action*. New York: Basic Books.

are very practical forms of knowledge concerning 'what works' in the classroom with particular types of students ('action theories'[31]); there is also a very concrete 'local knowledge' built up concerning the local community, the organisation of the schools and so on. At the other extreme there are more abstract theories concerned with the process of language learning or the nature of bilingualism. For these teachers there are several significant points along which their theories appear to be restructured, examples of which include:

- the development of more 'additive' understandings of bilingualism
- a concern with matching methods to students' learning styles, resulting in approaches which emphasise communication, 'scaffolding', and which include an affective element
- a concern with developing their own materials in order to circumvent the weaknesses inherent in official textbooks.

The following quotation is typical of the teachers'comments:

"Through the language you understand the way of thinking of a culture, and enrich yourself, in terms of your thinking. If you don't know it, you've lost something of your personality." [Costas]

All of the teachers evince these kinds of views, in contrast, for example, to the prevailing discourse in Greece[32], which found that the majority of primary-school teachers in Rhodes saw bilingualism as an obstacle to students' progress). Close analysis of the interview material suggests that for many of the teachers the shift in role from working in the Greek mainstream to working in the Community Schools contributed to this positive view of bilingualism.

An important practice is placing emphasis on language-learning requiring meaningful communication in the target language[33] in response to the perceived needs and learning-style of the students. According to one teacher (Jorgeos), 'the important point is to facilitate communication', and indeed most of the teachers make explicit reference to the value of communication. This again has to be seen in the context of dominant discourses in Greece, where traditional grammar and input-focussed language-teaching methodologies still prevail.

Viki when asked to describe a 'successful lesson' responds in this way:

"It was around a text about Cyprus with a touristic theme … The project was to help tourism by writing an article. They told me where they take holidays,

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31 Schφn, D. (1983), *The Reflective Practitioner: How Professionals Think in Action*. New York: Basic Books.

32 See, for example: Fillipardou, H. (1997), Teachers' Ideas on Bilingualism in Primary Schools of Rhodes. In: Skourtou, E. (ed.), *Issues of Bilingualism and Education.* Athens: Nisos

33 See: Ellis, R. (2003), *Task-Based Language Learning & Teaching.* Oxford: Oxford University Press; Richards, J. & Rodgers, T. (2001), *Approaches & Methods in Language Teaching* (2nd Ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, p.151

where they swim, which beaches are clean.   The elements now are: they must know something to start with; they participate and they discuss what they're interested in. …. And because they have to make linkages, they use different tenses - they have to talk about the past, present and future."

It can be seen here that the teacher constructed an activity which generated meaningful communication, by drawing on students' own knowledge and interests. By drawing on students' 'funds of knowledge'[34] - in this case the first-hand knowledge from their holidays in Cyprus - the students are positioned as 'experts'. This example, then, shows how the teachers evolve an approach which provides a close fit with the needs of their students: it is a close fit with their 'field-dependent' learning style and works from the basis of a concrete, known world; it also has a strong affective dimension.

There are a number of other accounts of similar practices from the other teachers, in which, by preparing their own materials, they were able to closely tailor their lessons to the level, but also learning style, cultural knowledge and interests of their students. Examples include a project on the Olympics. Michalis comments that students were highly motivated and 'learned a lot of vocabulary' due to being given this opportunity for genuine communication in the Greek language.

> "That's exactly what we have to do: to build on the experience they already have about Greece - through the school, their travels or the family".

Other lessons and activities which avoided the set textbooks often drew on the notion of the affective dimension. Examples include using video and computers in the class (which students respond positively to, because of the visual dimension); and including drama and music as part of the teaching programme (activities with a strong affective dimension, connecting with students' interests).

> "In terms of what [makes lessons] successful - you need to differentiate the teaching style: some work better with visual stimuli, some with actions, some on an auditory level, and so on. It important for the students to be active - to do - as much as possible: to play, to dance, to sing; it's more important than just going through the book." [Eleni]

Similarly, another teacher [Viki] was involved in producing theatrical plays in Greek: 'Do you know how much more Greek you learn in this way? ... The school must be fun as well!'

The teachers make up for the widespread lack of intrinsic motivation

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34   Moll, L.C. (2000), Inspired by Vygotsky: Ethnographic Experiments in Education. In: Lee, C.D. & Smagorinsky, P. (eds.), *Vygotskian Perspectives on Literacy Research: Constructing Meaning through Collaborative Inquiry*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, p.258

through a range of approaches which, based on their understanding of the interests and learning style of these particular students, they believe will increase enthusiasm for the language-learning process.

As we have seen, the teachers began by questioning previous theories and practices, reflected on and researched the problems they were encountering, and finally came to new understandings, generating experiments with new practices. Broadly speaking, those teachers who had had little contact with bilingual students before coming to the UK underwent the most radical shifts in their theories and practices. But even in the case of teachers who had more experience of linguistic diversity, the processes of reorienting and experimenting still takes place in the Community Schools.

The initial assumptions are not exactly the same for all teachers - they will be conditioned by their unique biographies. Thus reaching a satisfactory understanding of the process of reflection required looking at the influence of the teachers' life-history, in both its professional and personal aspects. Teachers are not 'timeless and interchangeable role incumbents'[35]. Their practices will be shaped by their sense of self, which in turn is shaped by their life experiences and backgrounds[36]. Jorgeos, for example, had previously worked in an experimental 'Intercultural' school in Athens. Thus he was prepared to work in the Community Schools, 'exactly because I was working for 10 years in a school which had children coming from different cultures and backgrounds'. For this reason 'I tried to continue with the methods I used to apply'. We can understand that for Jorgeos the kinds of dilemmas and critical incidents reported by other teachers had already been encountered in the Intercultural school.

6.3 Critical and Collaborative Dimensions of the Reflective Process

"When the teachers come to England, in the beginning they don't know the environment, the needs of the students, the fact that some of them don't speak any Greek. In the first year they 'fight with the waves' - they don't have any help … There is a need for someone to give them a helping hand." [Viki]

"A lot of teachers have ideas about how to make supplementary materials … they could be distributed, so we could share these things." [Michalis]

"The teachers are able to write [materials] that really work … A framework [could be produced] that could be enriched by contributions from every active teacher." [Demitrius]

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35 Goodson, I. (2005) *Learning, Curriculum and Life Politics: The Selected Works of Ivor Goodson* London: Routledge, p.224
36 Goodson, I. (2005) *Learning, Curriculum and Life Politics: The Selected Works of Ivor Goodson* London: Routledge, p.236

As suggested by the three quotations above, the teachers see a potential role for themselves in terms of giving advice to less experienced colleagues ('mentoring'), producing and sharing materials locally; and contributing to the broader materials-writing because of their depth of local knowledge and their ability to tailor their pedagogic approaches in the light of that knowledge.

Another common criticism the teachers make is of the preparatory seminars for teaching in the Diaspora that they were given in Greece, and of the in-service training they receive in the UK. In both cases the seminars are led in a 'top-down' manner, more reminiscent of lectures. Some argue that such meetings would be a good opportunity for teachers from the Community Schools to contribute more actively, and to move towards a more collaborative form of in-service teacher education. Michalis comments:

> "I find it more interesting when we discuss what teachers do with such and such a book, what kind of things they use from it, what they leave out, why they use it, and so on."

The analysis of the transcripts also shows that on many occasions the teachers are 'reflecting-as-they-talk'. I was able to play a facilitating role in the development of a reflective process by giving the teachers a space for reflection. The chance to speak about their thoughts, feelings and actions can play a part in the creation of new insights[37]. The teachers can articulate their thoughts, which can then be developed:

> "I've opened as a person over these years, and I've changed a lot. I've learned to listen very carefully. You're in a different environment, in a different culture. *Now that you've put this question to me I'm thinking about it and I realise how much I've changed and how it's happened.*"

Evangelia is reflecting during the interview itself. She considers what has influenced her teaching style while she has been in the UK, and what kinds of changes have taken place. In the interview she has been given the time, and in a sense the 'permission', to reflect on such questions. And indeed she comes to a reflexive self-understanding: a piece in puzzle of her biography is put into place, allowing her to construct a more coherent narrative account of her own development. Later she says '… you've helped me to understand this difference', again indicating that through the process of interview she has been able to deepen her self-understanding.

This is an example of collaborative meaning-making, through which:

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37 Richie, J.S. & Wilson, D.E. (2000), *Teacher Narrative as Critical Enquiry: Rewriting the Script*. New York: Teachers College Press, p.172

"both individual and collective understandings are enhanced through the successive contributions of individuals that are both responsive to the contributions of others and oriented to their further responses"[38]

7. Conclusions & Implications

This research brings into view the relevance of the teacher's voice in discussions of language teaching in contemporary heterogeneous classrooms. A number of conclusions can be drawn, touching on research methods, the model of the teacher and potential for collaboration.

Firstly, understanding teachers' theories requires a method which foregrounds sensitive interpretation and is capable of uncovering 'tacit' as well as more explicit theories.

Secondly, the model of the teacher revealed is a reflective one, but not in a narrow, 'technical' sense[39]. Most of the teachers faced dilemmas - prompting reflection - as they shifted position from the Greek mainstream to the Community Schools in the UK, while others were better prepared due to intense contact with bilingual students earlier in their careers: the reflective process therefore is seen to be shaped by experiences across the whole teaching career. Reflection, furthermore, is a collaborative process: teachers reflect during the interview process, and value opportunities to learn from one-another in seminars.

Finally, we can see the potential for collaboration, on the one hand between teachers, researchers and policy-makers, and on the other amongst teachers themselves. With increasing linguistic diversity, researchers, materials-writers and policy-makers could find reflective teachers an invaluable resource as informants. Teachers' knowledge can be directly useful for fellow teachers and for trainees (i.e. it can be an input into teacher-education programmes, both pre-service and in-service). Coming to appreciate the value of teachers that have experience teaching bilingual pupils should therefore imply the development of forms of organisation which would encourage and facilitate teaching practice which is both reflective and collaborative.

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Bakirli Sofia

The impact of cultural background on employees' motivation and performance. A cross cultural study within Germany and Greece in the field of International Primary Education, from a management perspective

Η επιρροή του πολιτισμικού υποβάθρου σε ότι αφορά τα κίνητρα και την επίδοση των εργαζομένων. Μια δια-πολιτισμική μελέτη μεταξύ Γερμανίας και Ελλάδας στο χώρο της Διεθνούς Πρωτοβάθμιας Εκπαίδευσης, υπό το πρίσμα της Διοίκησης

Περίληψη

Εικάζεται ότι το πολιτισμικό υπόβαθρο μπορεί να επηρεάσει σε προσωπικό επίπεδο τα εργασιακά κίνητρα. Οι τρόποι με τους οποίους αυτό συμβαίνει εξαρτάται από τα χαρακτηριστικά της εκάστοτε κουλτούρας και από το διαφορετικό είδος αυτοπραγμάτωσης των αναγκών που κάθε άτομο έχει να ικανοποιήσει.

Οι Προϊστάμενοι/ Διευθυντές είναι υπεύθυνοι να προβούν στις απαραίτητες διοικητικές διεργασίες για την εγγύηση μιας ικανοποιητικής επίδοσης στην ομάδα. Στο χώρο της Εκπαίδευσης υπάρχουν εργαλεία κινητοποίησης και πρακτικές που χρησιμοποιούνται ευρέως για να παραμένουν οι εργαζόμενοι δραστηριοποιημένοι, ώστε να προσφέρουν στο δυναμικό του Σχολείου.

Για αυτή την έρευνα πραγματοποιήθηκε μια δια-πολιτισμική μελέτη. Επιλέχθηκαν διεθνή νηπιαγωγεία και διεθνή δημοτικά σχολεία σε Γερμανία και

Ελλάδα, τα οποία εφαρμόζουν το Διεθνές Αναλυτικό Πρόγραμμα Πρωτοβάθμιας Εκπαίδευσης. Το κύριο συμπέρασμα είναι ότι το διεθνές πλαίσιο που παρέχεται από τις επίσημες αρχές δε δίνει αρκετό χώρο στις πολιτισμικές διαφορές να επηρεάσουν τη δομή του Σχολείου.

1. Introduction

After having been living in Germany for a couple of years and have been working in an International Environment I came up with the idea to search in depth the structure of culture, in a well-motivated work environment. This happened because there are tangible and intangible differences among co-workers which from the human perspective they are worthy of investigation and analysis. And there are differences which have a crucial impact on someone's performance at workplace.

For the purpose of this study a decision was taken to lead a cross cultural study within the Greek and the German educational system, in institutions which run the International Curriculum at the Primary stage of Education.

2. Theory

2.1. Clarification of terms

2.1.1. Corporate / Organizational Culture

Corporate culture is the beliefs and the behaviours of a company's employees and managers, and the way they interact. Often, corporate culture is implied, not expressly defined, and develops organically from the traits of the people who are being hired. A company's culture will be reflected in its dress code, business hours, office set up, employee benefits, turnover, hiring decisions, and treatment of clients, client satisfaction and every other aspect of operations[1].

2.1.2. National Culture

Hofstede's theory conceptualized national culture as"collective programming'' of the mind; we share with other members of our nation, region, or group, but not with members of other nations, regions, or groups[2]. It is one well known theory, in which 100.000 IBM (International Business Machine Corporation) employees had been participated in more than 70 countries, in an effort to determine the

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1 Corporate Culture. At: http://www.investopedia.com/terms/c/corporate-culture.asp , (Date of access 07/2015).
2 Hofstede, G. (1983), The cultural relativity of organizational practices and theories. *Journal of .International Business Studies*, vol. 12(2), p. 76.

defining characteristics of global cultures in the workplace. Through that process Hofstede underlined observations related to six different cultural dimensions. The dimensions of national culture are the following: power distance {expresses the degree to which the less powerful members of a society accept and expect that power is distributed unequally}, individualism {the individuals are expected to take after themselves and their immediate families, opposite is collectivism}, masculinity {a preference in society for achievement, heroism, and more competition, opposite is femininity}, uncertainty avoidance {the degree to which the members of a society feel uncomfortable with uncertainty and ambiguity; societies with weak uncertainty avoidance index maintain a more relaxed attitude in which practice counts more than principles}, long term orientation {high scores means societies which encourage efforts in modern education to prepare for future, opposite is short term normative orientation}, indulgence {the society allows relatively free gratification of basic and natural human drives related to enjoying life, restraint}.

When he looked at how societies scored on the above dimensions he found four major clusters within Europe. The Germanic group (Germany, Austria, Switzerland) tending towards high masculinity and low power distance, the Scandinavian group (Sweden, Finland, Norway, Denmark, Netherlands) tending towards high individualism, low masculinity and low power distance, the Anglo Saxon group (Britain, Ireland) tending towards high individualism, high masculinity, low power distance, and low uncertainty avoidance, and the mainly Latin group (France, Greece, Italy, Spain, Portugal, but also Belgium) with high uncertainty avoidance and high power distance.

Outside Europe, the United States scored highly on individualism but low on uncertainty avoidance, and Japan had high masculinity scores and high uncertainty avoidance[3].

2.1.3. Educational Culture

Educational cultures are the framework in which educational activities take place. Different traditions have been produced specific teaching practices, involving, for distance, clearly identified types of exercises such as replying orally to questions, doing written exercises or producing certain types of texts. These are not universal, however, and asking the teacher a question is not an acceptable practice everywhere. These teaching habits are accompanied by types of student behaviour which are expected and are, therefore, deemed to be the only ones acceptable (for example, arriving on time, standing up to reply, addressing the other learners politely, etc.). They govern the types of verbal relationship with the teacher, the rules on speaking, assessment methods, or

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3 Hofstede, G., National Culture. At: http://geert-hofstede.com/national-culture.html, (Date of access 09/2015).

even physical behaviour (can a teacher sit on a student's desk?), and acceptable types of clothing. All these features which are considered natural on both sides need to be properly identified if they are a source of genuine misunderstandings. Therefore educational culture has to be negotiated[4].

In Greece the educational system is highly centralized hierarchical that follows the basic organizational structure of the Greek government. At the top of the hierarchy is the Minister of Education, followed by directorates and offices of education at the prefecture and country levels, which are followed by the school unit. Additionally, there are a number of councils into primary and secondary levels which deal with hiring. The ministry is responsible for the legislation, the services, the financial support, the school programme, and the appointment of teachers at all levels [5].

Germany is a relatively homogeneous nation; its constitution guarantees the cultural domination of each state. Each of its 16 states has its own ministry of Education and a distinctive set of political, religious, and cultural traditions. The responsibility for primary and secondary schooling rests with state and local authorities. Although the Conference of Ministers of Education coordinates educational efforts among the states, the federal role in education is limited mainly to the regulation of education and training assistance, including vocational education and its promotion of scientific research [6].

2.1.4. Educational Management

An Education Management Information System (EMIS) should generate information for users in the following essential fields:
• Management and administration of the education system
• Research on and planning of the education system (macro and micro)
• Monitoring and evaluation of the education system [7].

Educational management is a field of study and practice concerned with the operation of educational organizations [8]. The educational management has to be centrally concerned with the purpose or aims of education. The process of deciding on the aims of the organization is the heart of educational management.

School aims are strongly influenced by pressures from the external

4 Council of Europe. At: http://www.coe.int/en/web/portal/47-members-states (Date of access 05/2015).
5 Spodek, B., Saracho, N. O. (2005), International Perspectives on research in early childhood education. North Carolina: Age Publishing.
6 Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs in the Federal Republic of Germany. At:http://www.kmk.org/information-in-english/standing-conference-of-the-ministers-of-education-and-cultural-affairs-of-the-laender-in-the-federal-republic-of-germany.html (Date of access 24/10/2015).
7 UNESCO Bangkok, (2012), Asia and Pacific end of decade notes on education for all. *Early childhood education*, UNESCO Bangkok, UNICEF EARRO, UNICEF ROSA.
8 Bush, T. (2003), Theories of educational management, 3rd Edition, London: Sage.

environment. Many countries have a national curriculum and these often leave little scope for schools to decide their own educational aims. The key issue here is to extend to which school managers are able to modify government policy and develop alternative approaches based on school level values and vision.

For each level and each task, it is fundamental to have qualified and trained staff to rely on. Senior education managers should be convinced of the qualification requirement for all the people working at all levels.

2.2. International Education

The objectives of international education can be grouped into three sections: the development of the human personality, human rights and fundamental liberties, international understanding and understanding of the promotion of peace [9].

Essentially, international education is a process that, by means of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the United Nations system's ideals and objectives, strives towards achieving attitudes and aptitudes that favour peace, human security and sustainable development.

These attitudes and aptitudes are clearly seen in the friendly relations between nations, in a mutual understanding for achieving an equitable and enduring progress for all human beings with a tolerant cooperation in solidarity which is based on understanding, knowledge of others and respect towards human rights and universal civil responsibilities.

International Baccalaureate Organization (IBO) founded in 1968 and has its headquarters in Geneva, Switzerland. It is a non-profit educational foundation offering four highly respected programmes of international education that develop the intellectual, personal, emotional and social skills needed to live, learn and work in a rapidly globalizing world.

There has been an IB World School in Greece since 1976, the Primary Years Program (PYP) is offered by 4 schools, the Middle Years (MYP) by 2 schools, and the Diploma Program (DP) is offered by 13 schools. The language of instruction is the English language [10].

The International Primary Curriculum (IPC) is one of the fastest growing curricula in the world today. It is a comprehensive, thematic and creative curriculum with a clear process of learning and with specific learning goals for every subject, for personal learning and for international mindedness. The IPC is the curriculum choice of international and national schools in over 1.600 schools in 92 countries around the world. The IPC Early Years

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9 UNESCO, (2004), Que es la educacion internacional? Responde las UNESCO, San Sebastian, UNESCO centre p.p. 86-100.
10 International Baccalaureate Organization. At: http://www.ibo.org/programmes/find-an-ib-school
 (Date of access 10/2015).

Programme is primarily designed for children between the ages of 4 and 5, though it is also used by some schools for 3 years old.

There are specific learning goals; subject goals, personal goals, international goals and goals which include the development of knowledge, skills and understanding. The learning goals are the foundation on which the International Primary Curriculum is built. Also, there is a distinct learning process with every IPC unit, providing a structured approach to make sure that children's learning experiences are as stimulating as possible [11].

2.3. Job Satisfaction

Schaffer's[12] interpretation of job satisfaction is one of individual's needs fulfilments: "Overall job satisfaction will vary directly with the extent to which those needs of an individual which can be satisfied in a job are actually satisfied; the stronger the need, the more closely will job satisfaction depend on its fulfilment"

2.4. Theories of Motivation

Abraham Maslow's "need hierarchy theory" is the most widely studied content theory of motivation, particularly in organizational contexts. Through this model, Maslow posits that there are five distinct groups of human needs. Moreover, these types of needs emerge in a specific sequence or hierarchy of importance for each individual. When an individual satisfies one group of needs, then the next group in the hierarchy begins to demand satisfaction. The next group on the hierarchy will not demand to be satisfied until this current group of needs is satisfied.

The five distinct groups of needs identified by Maslow are the physiological needs, the social needs, the esteem needs, and the self-actualization needs. The psychological needs include water, food and shelter, the safety needs are referred to the sense of security and safety, the social needs include love, sense of belonging, affection and friendship, close to the top there are the esteem needs such as self-respect, and self-actualization needs, at the top, represent one's full potential for achievement.

In a workplace the physiological needs would be represented by things like salary, company housing, the safety needs by health insurance, pension, stable pay, the social needs by company's vacations, the esteem needs by the compensation system, and the self-actualization needs would mean "grow one's potential" with services like private parking place, language courses and any kind of seminars [13].

11 International Primary Curriculum. At: http://www.greatlearning.com/ipc (Date of access 5/10/2015).
12 Schaffer, R. H. (1953), Job satisfaction as related to need satisfaction in work. *Psychological monographs: General and Applied*, vol. 67, p.p. 1-29.
13 Fiore, D. J. (2004), *Introduction to educational administration: standards, theories and practice*, Eye on education.

Also known as dual factor theory, Friederick Herzberg's Motivation – Hygiene theory distinguishes between the factors that motivate people and lead to job satisfaction (motivation factors) and those that lead to job dissatisfaction (hygiene factors). When people were asked, during Herzberg's research, about what was happening at work during times in which they felt good about their jobs, factors like achievement, recognition, advancement, growth and responsibility emerged. These factors were called motivation factors. Conversely, when the subjects reported negative feelings at work, factors such as conditions, salary, interpersonal relationships, supervision and company policy emerged; these factors were called hygiene factors. According to Herzberg, satisfaction at work and dissatisfaction at work are not opposite conditions; instead they are separate dimensions of individual's attitude toward work [14].

2.5. Motivational Tools

Employee compensation is all forms of pay or rewards going to employees and arising from their employment. The pay in the form of wages, salaries, incentives, commissions, and bonuses is called"direct financial payments''. The pay in the form of financial benefits, such as insurance, is called"indirect financial payments''.

Incentive compensation is a type of compensation based on performance.

Compensation management is an organized practice that involves balancing the work employee relation, by providing monetary and non-monetary benefits to employees. It is an integral part of human resource management [15].

2.6. Aim of research

The research question was if there are any influences on how employees get motivated and how they feel work satisfaction due to their cultural background.

2.7. Research Hypothesis

The country where the researcher comes from is Greece, which has been severely affected by the economic crisis in Southern Europe. The crisis, at the same time, has given the chance for scientists of the present generation to look abroad for job opportunities, to move to new places, and work as expatriates. Germany, on the other hand, is one of the strongest industries in Europe, if not the strongest, and has set the borders for welcoming the new expatriates, who come from all over around the world. At the same time, the existing international schools haven't stop

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14 Sheldrake, J. (2003), *Management Theory*, 2nd Edition. UK: Thomson Learning.
15 Dessler, G. (2013), *Human Resource Management*, 13th Edition, Global Edition. England: Pearson Education Limited.

offering their services to both countries, and it would be interesting to observe possible cultural differences related to employee's job motivation.

3. Research Methodology

3.1. Participants

The selection of the sample is a crucial part of the management business research regardless of the perspective of the researchers. The sample is a set of individuals who provide the necessary evidence for the research studies.

For this study the structured questionnaire (research tool) was sent via email to 46 International Schools (Preschools and Primary schools) in Greece and in Germany, as well. Specifically, there had been chosen 24 International Schools in Germany and 9 in Greece according to the updated homepage of International Baccalaureate Organization, and 13 International Schools in Germany regarding to the list of European Council International Schools. Obviously there is a difference between the numbers of schools in the chosen countries, due to the different size of population.

The available time given to the participants to fill in the form was one month and a half, after having been informed either the HR Department or the coordinator of the Pedagogical Department.

There was no way to calculate the amount of the employees of all the schools that the questionnaire was sent; primarily because there was no information about the teaching staff to each school's homepage, and also because the participation was a personal issue of each employee without obligations or pressure.

The Human Resources Department received a first informative email about the study of the researcher, and at the second step received the link which needed to be forwarded to the teaching staff. An extension of 15 days was given after the expired period of the first 30 days, as a reminder to each school.

3.2. Research Tools

The type of research method that was used is the "quantitative data collection "which relies on random sampling and structured data collection instruments, for results that are easy to be summarized, compared and generalized.

The cross-cultural aspect of this research was an important fact that needs to be mentioned as well, and be considered about the choice of the method, the deductive approach.

The countries which participated in the study were Germany and Greece, and specifically the International Schools of the primary stage of education which run either the Primary Years Programme or the International Primary curriculum.

3.3. Method of analysis of the research data

The goal of this study was to gather information about the work culture of each international institution and their motivational practices.

Because of the profound difficulties due to distance contact the questionnaire was constructed with indicative questions. It followed the principles of constructing type of its kind and took into consideration the theoretical background. The questions were very carefully chosen in order not to damage the reliability of the results, and have been categorized into as many parts as they were necessary for the final discussions.

As the objective of this study was to distinguish cultural differences between German and Greek educational management a comparative approach was used.

Cross-cultural research is a scientific method of comparative research which focuses on systematic comparisons that compares culture to culture and explicitly aims to answer questions about the incidence, distributions, and causes of cultural variation and complex problems across a wide domain, usually worldwide.

To compare culture is not to deny their individual uniqueness. Cross culturalists do not deny the uniqueness of culture; uniqueness and similarity are always present, simultaneously. Cross-cultural research deals with what is general, what is true for some or even all human cultures [16].

4. Presentation of the research findings

4.1. National Culture

Table 1: Cultural Clusters

Source: http://geert-hofstede.com
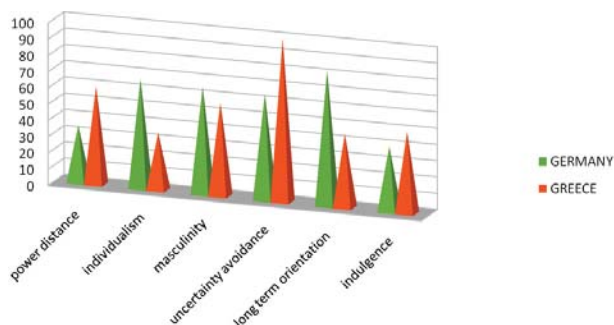
According to Hofstede's theory Germany and Greece belong to different cultural clusters within Europe, regarding to the different cultural dimensions:

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16   Canadian Centre of Science and Education. At: http://web.ccsenet.org (Date of access 05/2015).

power distance – individualism – masculinity – uncertainty avoidance – long term orientation – indulgence.

Germany belongs to the Germanic group and Greece to the Latin group.

4.2. Organizational Culture

According to Charles Handy's theory[17], Germany belongs to the role type of culture. The employees focus on task, count on value of rules with little room for flexibility and individual determination, punctuality is a matter of good time planning, they separate family from professional issues, and they communicate directly without non-verbal signals.

The organization has strong functional areas, a high degree of formalisation, the interactions are controlled by rules and procedures, position is the main power source, people are selected to perform specific roles and the personal power is frowned upon. The efficiency of this culture depends on responsibility, and it finds it difficult to adapt changes. It is a frustrating culture from ambitious people who are power oriented and want to control over their work and expect to see tangible results.

Greece tends towards the power culture with elements of the task culture, as far as it concerns the flexibility, the sensibility, and the amount of resources.

Organizations with this type of culture can respond quickly to events, they tend to attract people who are power orientated, who take risks and do not rate highly the issue of security. The main power base in this culture is the control of resources, but the big number of activities can become a difficulty. This type of culture relies most on individuals rather than on committees, and employees' performance is judged on results. The employees are expected to anticipate correctly what is expected of them from the managers, and if the managers get this culture right they will succeed a happy and satisfied atmosphere.

Related to the organizational type of a school culture is the celebration of team success, in Greece is at 88% and in Germany at 62%, and the equal sharing of information; Germany has lower ratio again.

In the chapter of role clarity there is a sensational difference at the question of how challenging the employees find their job; 100% for Greece, and 66.5% for Germany.

All the employees, in both cases, consider their individual job performance important to the organization, there is a good team cooperation, regular meetings, friendly colleagues, value and respect to individual differences, clarification about the goals that must be succeeded, appropriate level of work responsibility, clear description of the duties, and a real concern about their health.

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17 Handy, C. (1993), Understanding organizations, 4th Edition. Πόλη; Oxford University Press.

4.3. Educational Culture

A significant thing about the educational qualifications of employees is that Germany has the highest level of teachers who haven't graduated from University or haven't studied further after a B.A. This is related to the educational system of each country, and their educational cultures. Germany is a country with a strong agricultural base, a very strong industrial sector, and it is found among the strongest economic powers in Europe. The cultural domination is clear at each of its 16 states, and the federal role is limited in the field of education. There are 4 levels in its educational system, with early childhood education to be excluded from the compulsory educational system.

Greece has a highly centralized hierarchical system, with the immigrants to be a familiar situation in its history.

Both countries follow similar regulations about the geographical accessibility of children at school, but they require different admission al criteria on how to have access to university. In Greece there are required national examinations, while in Germany the examinations take place locally at each state.

4.4. Qualifications to become an educational manager

It is worth of attention the age of managers at International Schools in Greece, which is referred only to the age group 41-50, when in Germany the highest population belongs to the 26-30 age group.

After summing up the literature it is found that the Greek system is bureaucratic and hierarchically structured with administrative roles. Often there is lack of a code of legislation, and the managers demand less bureaucracy and more training in matters of administration. School managers have an extreme amount of diverse activities to cope with; they have to interact with the parents, the local authorities, the Ministry and the Government. They need studies in education, a B.A is essential (four years studies with included internship), and they must have further studies to become school manager or school council, a MA is important.

The German system is determined by the federal structure of the State, with differences among the States. The federal land is responsible for internal matters, such as teaching staff and curricula. The local authorities are responsible for external matters, such as administration, equipment, and building issues. The school manager has got specific responsibilities, as they are set in the Education Act, and they include the educational work and the staff. There are great differences in schools regarding to their size and the personnel structure, and the headships are advertised publicly. The final decision for the school managers is usually made in the ministries. Nevertheless, there are different procedures at each State. The managers attend the School for Teachers

Training for primary school teachers takes 3.5 years at university. For lower-secondary teachers, university training lasts 3.5–4.5 years with two further years of practical training in school settings. For upper-secondary school teachers, training takes 4.5 years at university, with a further 2.5 years of practical training in a school setting.

4.5. International Educational Framework

The framework of international education demands the same requirements in both Germany and Greece, according to the IBO organization and the goals of IPC curriculum. There is also the regulation-al code of the schools which are members of the council of international schools, CIS, which offers a list of responsibilities to each school member.

This international framework explains the uniformity the two countries indicate in several aspects of the empirical data; chapter of organizational communication, team work, role clarity and work conditions.

4.6. Motivation

Germany has lower rates than Greece on the satisfactory present salary and on pay raises, on the growth given by job, and on the level of work culture.

In the question of which values the organization stands for, connected with the self-actualization needs,"respect" is for both countries the first choice, and the second choices are differentiated according to the each country's cultural values; people who live and work in Greece have remarked idealism and social activism, while those who live and work in Germany the loyalty and the responsibility.

The Two Factor Theory of Herzberg separates the factors that motivate people and lead them to job satisfaction (motivators) from those that lead to job dissatisfaction (hygiene factors).

In the hygiene factors belong the salary, the supervision, the working conditions, the company policies, the relationship with colleagues, the job security, the job status, the personal life, and the work environment. On the other hand, in the motivators belong the achievement, the recognition, the work itself, the responsibility, the advancement, and the growth of the employees. The hygiene factors are involved with Human Resources and Management because the HR practices are aspects of the factors. So they are tied to factors, they are linked together.

Between the hygiene factors and the motivators as motivational practices for stimulation, in Greece have chosen 2 motivators as motivational practices; introducing new tasks which are related to growth and learning, and increasing the accountability which is related to responsibility. In Germany

there has been an equivalent share out among 2 motivators and 1 hygiene factor; introducing new tasks (growth), making periodic reports (recognition), better working conditions (hygiene factor).

The work environment, as part of the social needs in Maslow's theory an as Hygiene Factor in Herzberg's theory, is team oriented to those who live and work in Greece, and long oriented for those in Germany. The second description given by employees in Greece is that the environment fosters ambition, and by those in Germany that is team oriented. What should be mentioned is the lack of replies for ambition, independence, freedom for communication and short term goals in Germany; a fact directly connected to organizational communication and the effect of national culture.

In both countries the hygiene factors of the supervision and the updating company policies have scored at 100/100 on supervision and nearly at 50/100 for both parts. The better result belongs to Germany with the lowest percentage of supervision.

In the management there are financial and non-financial performance rewards given to the employees as benefits for their job.

The Human Resources (HR) professionals who design the reward programmes are based on the theory for incentive plans. One of the theorists was Victor Broom and his expectancy theory; the employees expect their efforts to lead to job performance, to get rewarded for that performance and to find value of this reward. It seems to be quite a theory about how people decide to achieve values better rather to understand what motivates them. Potential values outcomes may include recognition, promotion, time off, pay bonus, pay increases, satisfaction from validity of one's skills.

From the present study's empirical data is found that the main body of the employees get rewarded basically by verbal or written appreciations, almost at 100%.

The managers who work at International schools in Greece have adopted with distinction the training method as the best for overcoming any performance problems, while in Germany of similar rates have been chosen the team meetings and the rearrangement of duties. In the first situation the personal growth is a priority, as motivator, and in the second one the work environment as hygiene factor.

High performing people stay motivated when their emotional aspect is motivated, they have knowledge of what they are expected to do, they have the appropriate skills, and they also have the perception that they apply the knowledge to the right direction.[18]

Skills and knowledge is part of one's self-actualization needs and

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18 Miner,B.J.(2005), Organizational Behavior 1, Essential theories of motivation and leadership, New York: M.E.Sharpe. Inc.

have been chosen by both groups of employees as the most important factor which is related to low performance.

The factors that would motivate the most the employees in Greece are, in order of preference: the motivational talks – the promotion. In Germany are: the promotion – the recognition. The motivators play a significant role for all the employees, and reveal a trend which must be under consideration for the near future by the school managers.

Finally, as far as it concerns the tools for assessing the job performance by the managers, is the"one to one sessions" for both countries. In Germany the"one to one sessions" and the"assumptions" are both used in a wide range, and in Greece the second in order of preference motivational tool is the"surveys".

5. Conclusions and recommendations

Based on the research, the national cultures of the studies countries are diametrically opposed.

Germany stands at one pole "individualistic", "masculine", and "pragmatic", it values on the performance, and doesn't put much emphasis on leisure time.

Greece stands at the other pole "collectivistic", "passionate", and "demonstrative", with leisure time to be of its basic needs, and high level of bureaucracy in order the citizens to feel safe and secure.

Based on the findings, the type of organizational culture is different at each country. Germany belongs to the role type and Greece to the power type of culture. The different characteristics which govern each type are responsible for how employees celebrate their team success, and how challenging find the employees their job.

People who interact in a more risky environment and don't rate highly the issue of security, tend to enjoy more team work and challenges. People who live and work in strong functional areas and have high level of difficulty to make changes, they cannot see the job as challenge so easily and the team success as a celebration.

The theoretical framework seems to come to an agreement with the gathered empirical data as far as it concerns the educational status of the managers.

The different culture and the moderately dissimilar educational system wants the teachers, in Greece, who apply for management positions to have more than the basic 4 years degree of a University (BA), and in Germany the candidates for these positions to have the basic teacher's training either from University or from School of Teachers. This fact explains why States of Federal Germany accept school managers without further education about management to be a necessary requirement.

The first main conclusion is that both national and organizational cultures influence the managerial procedures that are used to keep the employees motivated and satisfied.

According to the respondents, "respect "is the first choice of value that their school stands for. The second choice in Greece at ''idealism and social activism'' and in Germany at "loyalty and responsibility "notifies the effect of different cultural antecedents on work environment.

All the remarkable differences are related to motivational tools, practices, ways of overcoming performance problems and factors that would motivate the employees in the near future.

An essentially long term oriented country represents different values and norms of an essentially team oriented country, which fosters ambitions and independence.

The "motivators "as inner stimuli which are linked to the actions that keep employees motivated are widely used in a country where people have learnt to count on principles and values instead of context and practice. At the second situation the importance of the motivators is not so intense.

The second main conclusion is that the work environment where an international framework is given as precondition, the national culture is not found to have so severe influence. The influence exists but it appears smoothly and in proportion.

In this case study besides any cultural differences the biggest amount of employees work towards the potential of school. And that shows that the International Curriculum not only has a considerable influence on employees' motivation and job satisfaction but also on the organizational culture and job security.

6. Limitations of the research

In the progress of this study one way of collecting the data was used; the email questionnaire survey.

Taking into consideration the obvious advantages such as the low cost, the geographic flexibility, the wide dispersion, the low in time consumption, the anonymity, and the major disadvantage with the attendant problem of non-response bias, the researcher tried to increase the response rate.

A preliminary notification was sent to each International School via email to increase the response rates, and reminding email was used as an additional effort to gather more responses.

The length of the questionnaire and the type of questions were carefully selected and revised in order to be more attractive and interesting to the participants. The use of an official support, such as a cover letter from an influential person from the University or from a professor, would have been an additional and significant advantage. Instead of this kind of support the researcher gave information about her professional background at the preliminary notification, and a short introduction was preceding the aim of the questionnaire

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Education leadership
and teachers job satisfaction:
a case study in Greek secondary schools

Abstract

This study determines leadership behaviours of public school principals as perceived by public school teachers in relation to teacher job satisfaction in Greek public schools. Teachers' perceptions of their school principals' leadership behaviour was measured by the Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). Teachers' expressed job satisfaction level was measured by the Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scales (MCMJSS). Statistical procedures were used to determine the relationship and to provide a credible outcome. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyse the data. A simple regression analysis was used to test the research questions. Analysis of the data indicated that there was a significant relationship between public secondary school principals' consideration leadership style, as perceived by teachers, and teacher job satisfaction. There was also a significant relationship between public school principals' initiating structure leadership style, as perceived by teachers, and teacher job satisfaction. Therefore, it appears that the presuppositions that can guarantee teacher job satisfaction, are intertwined with the way principals handle the leading role they have been given.

Εκπαιδευτική ηγεσία και επαγγελματική ικανοποίηση των εκπαιδευτικών: μια μελέτη περίπτωσης σε σχολεία δευτεροβάθμιας εκπαίδευσης στην Ελλάδα

Περίληψη

Αυτή η μελέτη προσδιορίζει τις ηγετικές συμπεριφορές των διευθυντών των δημόσιων σχολείων όπως γίνονται αντιληπτές από τους καθηγητές των δημοσίων σχολείων σε σχέση με την επαγγελματική ικανοποίηση των καθηγητών στα ελληνικά δημόσια σχολεία. Οι αντιλήψεις των καθηγητών για τις ηγετικές συμπεριφορές τω διευθυντών στα σχολεία τους μετρήθηκε από το Ερωτηματολόγιο Περιγραφής Συμπεριφοράς Ηγετών (LBDQ). Η μέτρηση της ικανοποίησης των καθηγητών από την εργασία τους μετρήθηκε με την Κλίμακα Ικανοποίησης Εργασίας των Mohman-Cookie-Mohman. Χρησιμοποιήθηκαν στατιστικές τεχνικές για να προσδιορίσουν τη σχέση και να εξασφαλίσουν ένα αξιόπιστο αποτέλεσμα. Το Στατιστικό Πακέτο για τις Κοινωνικές Επιστήμες (SPSS) χρησιμοποιήθηκε για την ανάλυση των δεδομένων. Μια απλή παλινδρομική ανάλυση χρησιμοποιήθηκε για να εξετάσει τις ερωτήσεις της έρευνας. Η ανάλυση των δεδομένων υπέδειξε ότι υπήρχε ένας σημαντικός συσχετισμός ανάμεσα στην θεώρηση του ηγετικού στυλ των διευθυντών των σχολείων δευτεροβάθμιας εκπαίδευσης, όπως εκλαμβάνεται από τους καθηγητές, και της ικανοποίησης από την εργασία τους ως καθηγητές. Υπήρχε επίσης μια σημαντική σχέση ανάμεσα στο δομημένο κατά πρωτοβουλία στυλ ηγεσίας των διευθυντών των δημόσιων σχολείων όπως το αντιλαμβάνονται οι καθηγητές και της ικανοποίησης από την εργασία τους ως καθηγητές. Συνεπώς, φαίνεται ότι οι προϋποθέσεις που μπορούν να εγγυηθούν την ικανοποίηση από την εργασία των καθηγητών είναι συνδεδεμένες με τον τρόπο που οι διευθυντές διαχειρίζονται τον ηγετικό ρόλο που τους έχει δοθεί.

1. Introduction

'Head' and 'leaders' of the school are the principals who, based in literature, play a major role in the operation and effectiveness of schools. Studies suggest that principals make a difference "by setting clear priorities and objectives that emphasize basic skill acquisition, assuming responsibility for evaluations of the achievement of these objectives, organizing and participating in staff development and in-service training programs, being a consistent, assertive disciplinarian, and working with teachers to achieve a consensus on objectives, methods, and staff development programs" (Eberts & Stone, 1988:291).

Teachers can advance in professional expertise and knowledge through their career using their own experience and reflections on it as well as the interaction with other teachers as main tools; the teachers can forward their professional learning. Sergiovanni (1992) suggested that teacher job satisfaction is related to participation and performance. The sense of belonging as well as

their increased self-esteem leads to a sense of confidence that emanates from the professionalism teachers experience since they have the opportunity to work together on important matters (Garner, 1995, Lipsitz, 1984).

Chiang (1996) assessing that relationship, showed that teacher job satisfaction was connected with a number of leadership frames, which are structural, human source, political and symbolic and that president leadership style perceived by both teachers and principals was congruent.

2. Theory

The first modern approach of a successful portrayal and description of the leader, focused on two major behavior categories. The first is the Initiating structure while the second being the Consideration structure[1]. Apparently the first one is basically task-oriented and the leader is expected to organize his role, the roles of the employees, the patterns as well as the communication channels, so as to reach the attainment of the goal set. The Initiating Structure, especially when applied in the field of education, involves the following of certain rules and regulations, as well as the maintaining of schedules and definite standards of performance. The leader is the one that decides what shall be done and how it shall be done and does not omit to let group members know what is expected from them[2]. On the other hand, the Consideration Style is a people-oriented structure that expects from the leader to act more as a supporter, showing concern, respect and caring for the group members' welfare. The leader involves the group members in the decision making process, consults them and does not make changes without discussing them. The welfare of the group, the sense of being all equal to the other and the establishment of friendly, fruitful rapport is also at the top of the leader's list, since he wants to be approachable and focused on what people need[3].

However, it is obvious that none of these two styles, alone, can act effectively and thoroughly. Hersay & Blanchard (1977)[4] in the leadership grid they developed, depicted four basic leader behavior quadrants: high relationship and low task, high task and high relationship, low task and low relationship and high task and low relationship. In the first case, there is the need for the leader to establish group harmony and social need satisfaction, while in the second case, the point is to achieve productive balance between getting the job done and

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1 Nahavandi, A., (2000). *The art and science of leadership. 2nd ed*. Upper Saddle River: Prentice Hall.
2 Behbahani, A. (2011). Educational leaders and the role of education on the efficiency of school principals. *Procedia Social and behavioural Sciences pp. 9-11*. Oxford: Elsvier. Available at http://www.sciencedirect.com/ [Accessed 11 December 2014].
3 Davis, S., Hammond, L., Lapointe, M., Meyerson, D., (2005) *School Leadership Study Developing Successful Principals*. Stanford CA: Stanford University. Available at http://www.srnleads.org/data/pdfs/sls/sls_rr.pdf [Accessed 22 November 2014].
4 Hersey, P. & Blanchard, K., (1977). *The management of organizational behaviour. 4th ed.* Englewood cliffs: Prentice Hall.

preserving cohesive group work. The low task and low relationship style, actually keeps the leader aside, in a passive role while the job seems to take care of itself. Finally, the high task and low relationship leadership style, involves solid attention to getting the job done[5]. Without initiating structure behaviors, subordinates, would not know what to expect, how to coordinate their work, cooperate with others or pursue – through group effort – the goals set. Simultaneously, without consideration behavior on the part of the leader, the employees are going to sense lack of support, appreciation and recognition, let alone the fact that they won't be able to get any feedback about how they are doing[6],[7].

While examining the two styles of leadership, consideration and initiating structure, Bass (1990)[8] defines the former as the degree to which a leader shows concern and respect to followers, looks out for their welfare and expresses appreciation and support. This is a people-oriented leadership style and includes behaviors that foster friendliness, approach, equal treatment, willingness to make changes and eagerness to explain actions and consult the group when making changes. Therefore, in the field of education, such a people-oriented style on the part of the principals is more than certain to enhance teacher satisfaction. According to Yulk (1981)[9] "*Both consideration and initiating structure involve influence over the satisfaction and behavior of subordinates*" (p. 107).

As it has been mentioned earlier, there are certain factors acting as satisfiers other than the extrinsic factors of pay and working conditions[10]. These intrinsic factors aim at empowering the employee and supplying them with all the vital elements and virtues that will facilitate their progress and fulfillment[11]. According to Barnard (1966)[12] the two basic concerns of leadership: task and relationship are both the same important for success and that the one should not predominate

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5 Greenberg, J. & Baron, R. (2007). *Behavior in Organizations* (9th Edition). Pearson
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11 Sergiovanni, T., (2009). *The principalship: a reflective practice perspective. 6th ed.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
12 Barnard, C. I. (1966). The functions of the executive. New York: The Macmillion Company.

the other. After all, both structure and consideration exhibit behaviors that – in high level and in the appropriate combination – are thought to be more effective in making teachers satisfied and are therefore recommended. Chiang (1996)[13] and Demirtas (2010)[14] assessing that relationship showed that teacher job satisfaction was connected with number of leadership frames, which are structural, human source, political and symbolic and president leadership style perceived by both teachers and principals was congruent.

Although there does not seem to be a universally accepted style of leadership, it is clear that principals perceived by the teaching staff as high task and high relationship, were able to create a quite satisfactory working environment for their employees[15]. Such an environment, involves important competencies such as communication with co-teachers, facilitation of discussion, the opportunity to assess ones' self and to assess the others, inspiration and cooperation. After all, as a people – oriented leadership style, the consideration style also promotes active listening, developing and building solid relationships among the co-workers and finally leads to the empowerment of the members and their further development and maturity[16],[17].

Indeed, while being in the school environment and having a strong responsibility to teach and guide young students, teachers also need to feel the security offered by certain rules and regulations. That is how the initiating structure leadership style is strongly connected to job satisfaction[18] or as Chase stated: "professional leadership and supervision … permit effective work habits"[19]. This effectiveness is achieved when the principal acts as a coordinator of work activities, maintains quality and safety and manages details in facilities and materials. At the same time the teachers are involved in the process of decision making and work activities, they are encouraged to take charge, set goals and work as groups to achieve them, but always under the principal's evaluation and supervision[20].

13 Chiang, C., (1996). *The effects of the leadership styles of Taiwanese junior college presidents on teacher job satisfaction*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Florida: Florida International University.

14 Demirtas, Z. (2010). Teacher Job Satisfaction levels. *Procedia Social and Behavioural Sciences*, *9*, *pp.1069-1073. Oxford: Elsevier*. Available at http://perweb.firat.edu.tr/personel/yayinlar/fua_1571/1571_62173.pdf [Accessed 28 May 2014].

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16 Fox, W., (1986). Teacher motivation. In Bare-Oldham, K., (1999) *An Examination the Perceived Leadership Styles of Kentuky Public School Principals as Determinants of Teacher Job Satisfaction. West Virginia University*. Available at http://wvuscholar.wvu.edu [Accessed 20 June 2014].

17 Hoy, W. & Miskel. C., (2005). *Educational administration: theory, research, and practice. 7th ed.* New York: Mc Graw-Hill.

18 Davis, S., Hammond, L., Lapointe, M., Meyerson, D., (2005) *School Leadership Study Developing Successful Principals.* Stanford CA: Stanford University. Available at http://www.srnleads.org/data/pdfs/sls/sls_rr.pdf [Accessed 22 November 2014].

19 Chase, F. (1951). Factors for satisfaction in teaching. *The Phi Delta Kappan, 33, pp. 127-13.* Available at http://www.jstor.org/stable/20332162?seq=1#page_scan_tab_contents [Accessed 11 August 2014].

20 Wu, M., (2004). A review of the relationship between principal's leadership style and teacher's job

There is also the other side of the coin which should not be ignored. What is the issue in case teachers are not faced with high task/high relationship principals? It is clear that the employer, or in this case, the principal must realize that a hierarchy of importance is needed and he/she should by no means focus on task and exclude relationship or vice-versa. After all there is the contingency theory[21], which points out that a certain style may work in one environment and may not work in another. The teachers' satisfaction with their job is at stake, when the principal fails to control situations. That is why Fiedler focuses on three elements that dictate the control mentioned before: when the structure of the task is poorly made or even absent, teachers feel insecure, the leader receives limited support and the unfavorable relationship created leads to limited satisfaction on the teachers' part as well as to limited authority on the principal's part[22].

The purpose of this study is to determine leadership behaviors of public school principals, as perceived by teachers, in relation to teacher job satisfaction in Greek public secondary schools of Attica. The first research question tries to explore if (I) there is a significant relationship between public school principals' perceived consideration leadership style and teacher job satisfaction in Greek public secondary schools of Attica? The second research question asks: (II) is there a significant relationship between public school principals' perceived initiating structure leadership style, and teacher job satisfaction in Greek public secondary schools of Attica?

3. Research Methodology

3.1 Planning and Execution of Research

The research was carried out at the end of the second semester of the school year 2013-2014 in public secondary schools of Attica using two instruments to collect data. The Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire-LBDQ[23] was used to identify leadership styles of Greek public school principals, as perceived by classroom teachers and job satisfaction expressed by teachers was measured by using the Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scale[24]. Both of them were translated from English to Greek. Before the main research, a pilot one was

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satisfaction. *Journal of Meiho Institue of Technology, 23(2), pp. 235-250.*

21 Fiedler, F., & Chemers, M., (1974). *Leadership and effective management.* Glenview: Scott, Foresman & Company.

22 Hoy, W. & Miskel. C., (2005). *Educational administration: theory, research, and practice. 7th ed.* New York: Mc Graw-Hill.

23 Halpin, A., (1959). *The leadership behaviour of school superintendents.* Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, The University of Chicago.

24 Mohrman, A., Cooke, R. & Mohrman, S., (1978). Participation in decision making: A multidimensional perspective. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 14(1), pp.13-29.* Available at http://eaq.sagepub.com/content/14/1/13.short [Accessed 26 June 2013].

executed in which five teachers of public secondary schools joined in[25]. Its aim was to check the clarity of the questions due to the fact that in many cases the English and the Greek language would overlap and probably confuse the readers. Taking into consideration the results of the pilot research certain minor changes were made. The questionnaires were personally handed out and collected in the same way. Two hundred twenty seven fully completed questionnaires were collected, thus forming the main body of data for this research. The data mining was performed with SPSS 20.0 statistical software.

3.2. The Questionnaires

The Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire-LBDQ[26] was used to identify leadership styles of Greek public school principals as perceived by classroom teachers. LBDQ is comprised of a forty-item questionnaire consisting of two sub-scales, Consideration and Initiating Structure that measure different patterns of leadership behaviour. It contains short, descriptive statements, which describe a certain way in which a leader may behave. Respondents indicate how often their leaders engage in the described behaviour by circling one of the five frequencies. The scale is as follows: 1=always, 2=often, 3=occasionally, 4=seldom, and 5=never. Of the 40 items, only 30 are scored (15 for each of the two dimensions). The ten unscored items were retained in order to maintain the conditions of administration utilized in standardizing the questionnaire[27]. Job satisfaction expressed by teachers was measured by using the Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scale-MCMJSS[28]. The MCMJSS was designed to be self-administered and to measure self-perceived job satisfaction, self-perceived intrinsic, extrinsic and general satisfaction[29]. Consisted of eight items divided into two sections and each section contained four items with a six-point Likert scale where responses ranged from one as the lowest possible score to six as the highest score.

3.3. The Research Population

In the research 97 men (42,7%) and 130 women (57,3%) fully answered the questionnaires. Of those, 25 (11%) were between 22 and 30 years old, 89 (39,2%)

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25 Bell, J., (1999). *Doing your research project: a guide for first-time researchers in education and social science. 3rd ed*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

26 Halpin, A., (1959). *The leadership behaviour of school superintendents*. Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, The University of Chicago.

27 Halpin, A., (1959). *The leadership behaviour of school superintendents*. Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, The University of Chicago.

28 Mohrman, A., Cooke, R. & Mohrman, S., (1978). Participation in decision making: A multidimensional perspective. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 14(1), pp.13-29.* Available at http://eaq.sagepub.com/content/14/1/13.short [Accessed 26 June 2013].

29 Mohrman, A., Cooke, R. & Mohrman, S., (1978). Participation in decision making: A multidimensional perspective. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 14(1), pp.13-29.* Available at http://eaq.sagepub.com/content/14/1/13.short [Accessed 26 June 2013].

were between 31 and 40 years old, 79 (34,8%) were between 41 and 50 years old and 34 (15%) over 51 years old. From the participants 82 (36,1%) had till 5 years of service in public education, 73 (32,2%) 6 to 10 years, 32 (14,1%) 11 to 15 years, 9 (4%) 16 to 20 years and 31 (13,7%) over 21 years. Regarding the occupation status, 172 (76,7%) were permanent teachers and 53 (23,3%) substitute. Regarding their educational status, 14 (6,2%) participants had secondary education, 3 (1,3%) had post secondary education, 157(69,2%) had B.A. degree, 52 (22,9%) were holders of Master and 1 (0,4%) had a PhD. Concerning the marital status, 130 (57,3%) participants were married and 97 (42,7%) were not married. Just 1 (0,4%) participant had 5 children's, 5 (2,2%) participants had 4, 14 (6,2%) had 3, 59 (26%) had 2, 40 (17,6%) had 1 child and 108 (47,6%) had none child. Finally, 130 (57,3%) were permanent residents of the place they work and 97 (42,7%) were not. Finally, as for principal gender, 67 (29.5%) participants identified their principals as female and 160 (70,5%) as male.

4. Results

Except for the overall results, which answer the research questions, it is very interesting to show in detail the responses to the statements of each questionnaire. This section would further clarify the findings searching deeper in each statement. From the 40 statements of the Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) here are presented the answers from 30 statements.

Table1: The participants' responses to 30 statements of questionnaire LBDQ (Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire)

A/A	Statements	1. Always %	2. Often %	3. Occasio- nally %	4. Seldom %	5. Never %
1.	Does personal favours for group members	4,4	29,5	33,9	20,3	11,9
2.	Makes his/her attitudes clear to the group	48,9	31,7	11,5	5,3	2,6
3.	Does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group	19,4	37,9	26,4	9,7	6,6
4.	Tries out his/her new ideas with the group	18,1	33,9	25,1	15,4	7,5
5.	Acts as the real leader of the group	34,4	31,3	21,6	10,1	2,6
6.	Is easy to understand	38,8	41,4	13,2	5,3	1,3
7.	Rules with an iron hand	13,2	23,8	24,7	26,4	11,9
8.	Finds time to listen to group members	48,0	34,8	11,0	4,0	2,2
9.	Criticizes poor work	13,7	31,3	32,2	15,9	7,0

Citation: Argyriou, A., Andreadou, D. (2016), Education leadership and teachers job satisfaction: a case study in Greek secondary schools, *Theory and Research in the Sciences of Education*, 12/2016, p.p. 43-62. In: http://periodiko. inpatra.gr

10.	Gives advance notice of changes	45,4	31,7	16,7	5,3	0,9
11.	Speaks in a manner not to be questioned	37,0	34,8	16,3	7,5	4,4
12.	Keeps to himself/herself	3,5	11,0	25,1	32,2	28,2
13.	Looks out for the personal welfare of individual group members	22,5	34,8	24,2	14,1	4,4
14.	Assigns group members to particular tasks	35,2	41,9	16,7	4,8	1,3
15.	Is the spokesperson of the group	39,2	34,8	18,9	4,8	2,2
16.	Schedules the work to be done	47,1	34,4	11,0	6,2	1,3
17.	Maintains definite standards of performance	26,9	41,0	20,7	8,4	3,1
18.	Refuses to explain his/her action	6,2	11,5	14,5	32,6	35,2
19.	Keeps the group informed	39,2	38,8	15,9	4,0	2,2
20.	Acts without consulting the group	5,3	17,2	26,4	31,7	19,4
21.	Backs up the members in their actions	32,2	44,5	17,6	4,0	1,8
22.	Emphasizes the meeting of deadlines	49,8	33,9	12,3	3,5	0,5
23.	Treats all group members as his/her equals	39,6	32,2	17,2	7,9	3,1
24.	Encourages the use of uniform procedures	41,9	38,3	14,5	4,0	1,3
25.	Gets what he/she asks for from his superiors	9,3	57,3	30,4	2,6	0,4
26.	Is willing to make changes	22,0	45,8	22,5	7,5	2,2
27.	Makes sure that his/her part in the organization is understood by group members	42,3	40,5	11,9	4,4	0,9
28.	Is friendly and approachable	53,7	31,7	10,1	3,1	1,3
29.	Asks from group members to follow standard rules and regulations	42,3	41,4	12,8	2,6	0,9
30.	Fails to take necessary action	3,5	0,4	18,1	37,0	31,3

Regarding the first statement, the participants replied that their supervisor does favours for the group members occasionally (N=77, f=33,9%). The word "favours" was clarified to the participants explaining that it involves the principals acting beyond his or her legal/statutory role.

In the statement whether supervisor makes his/her attitude clear to the group, the participants replied that their supervisor always (N=111, f=48,9%) makes his/her attitudes clear to the group.

The majority of the respondents answered that their supervisor does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group often (N=86, f=37,9%).

The supervisor tries out his/her new ideas with the group often (N=77,

f=33,9%), according to the majority of the respondents.

As for the term 'Real leader' it was explained and asked from the participants to describe if their principals act as an ideal leader. In this statement most of the respondents answered that their supervisor acts as the real leader of the group always (N=76, f=34,4%).

To the statement number six, most of the respondents' answer was that their supervisor is easy to understand often (N=94, f=41,4%).

Ruling with an 'iron hand' was explained to the respondents as the principal exerting rigorous or despotic control. In this statement most of the respondents answered that their supervisor rules with an iron hand seldom (N=60, f=26,4%).

Most of the respondents answered that their supervisor finds time to listen to group members always (N=109, f=48%).

Their supervisor criticizes poor work occasionally (N=73, f=32,2%), according to most of the respondents.

To the question posted if their supervisor gives advance notice of changes, most of the respondents answered that he/she always (N=103, f=45,4%) does so.

Most of the respondents believe that their supervisor speaks in a manner not to be questioned always (N=84, f=37%).

Their supervisor keeps to himself/herself seldom (N=64, f=32,2%), according to most of the respondents.

A relative high percentage of the respondents answered that their supervisor often (N=79, f=34,8%) looks out for the personal welfare of individual group members.

The majority of the respondents answered that their supervisor often (N=85, f=41,9%) assigns group members to particular tasks.

In this case most of the respondents answered that their supervisor always (N=89, f=39,2%) is the spokesperson of the group.

Almost half of the respondents answered that their supervisor always (N=107, f=47,1%) schedules the work to be done.

Their supervisor often (N=93, f=41%) maintains definite standards of performance according to most of the respondents.

To the question posted if their supervisor refuse to explain his/her action, most of the respondents answered that he/she never (N=60, f=35,2%) does so.

To the next statement most of the respondents answered that their supervisor always (N=89, f=39,2%) keeps the group informed.

Their supervisor only seldom (N=72, f=31,7%) acts without consulting the group, according to most of the respondents.

To the next statement most of the respondents answered that their supervisor often (N=101, f=44,5%) backs up the members in their actions.

Nearly fifty per sent of the respondents answered that their supervisor always (N=113, f=49,8%) emphasizes the meeting of deadlines.

To the next statement most of the respondents answered that their supervisor treats all group members as his equals always (N=90, f=39,6%).

The opinion of most the respondents was that their supervisor always (N=95, f=41,9%) encourages the use of uniform procedures.

Over fifty percent of the respondents stated that their supervisor often (N=130, f=57,3%) gets what he/she asks for from his/her superiors.

Most of the respondents indicated that their supervisor is often (N=104, f=45,8%) willing to make changes.

A high percentage of the respondents answered that their supervisor always (N=96, f=42,3%) makes sure that his/her part in the organization, is understood by group members.

The majority of the respondents believe that their supervisor is always (N=122, f=53,7%) friendly and approachable.

Their supervisor always (N=96, f=42,3%) asks from group members to follow standard rules and regulations according to most of the respondents.

Finally, most of the respondents answered that their supervisor fails to take necessary action seldom (N=84, f=37%).

The respondents were also asked to evaluate the degree of satisfaction of certain factors regarding their occupation. Thus a scale from 1 to 6 was used, representing a lowest degree of satisfaction to a highest degree of satisfaction (MCMJSS).

Table 2: The participants' responses to 8 statements of questionnaire MCMJSS (Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scale)

A/A	Statements	1. low	2.	3.	4.	5.	6. high
1.	Degree of satisfaction of the feeling of self – confirmation and self – respect	1,3	5,7	10,6	24,2	41,0	17,2
2.	Degree of satisfaction from the possibility for personal development	11,0	13,7	19,4	26,4	22,5	7,0
3.	Degree of satisfaction from the feeling of succeeding something difficult	1,3	6,2	12,3	19,8	34,8	25,6
4.	Degree of satisfaction from the participants' expectations satisfied at work	9,3	14,1	19,4	26,4	24,7	6,2
5.	Degree of satisfaction from the respect and the equal treatment at work	4,4	7,9	7,5	21,6	35,2	23,3
6.	Degree of satisfaction from the feeling of been / being informed at work	2,6	6,2	15,4	19,8	38,8	17,2
7.	Degree of satisfaction from the degree of surveillance at work	7,9	14,1	18,9	33,5	18,5	7,0
8.	Degree of satisfaction from the participation in procedures and plans at work	4,4	10,1	13,7	26,9	28,6	16,3

Most of the respondents rated with 5 the degree of satisfaction of the feeling of self – confirmation and self – respect deriving from work (N=93, f=41%), the degree of satisfaction from the feeling of succeeding in something difficult at work (N=79, f=34,8%), the degree of satisfaction from the respect and the equal treatment at work (N=80, f=35,2%), the degree of satisfaction from the feeling of been / being informed at work (N=88, f=38,8%) and the degree of satisfaction from the participation in procedures and plans at work (N=65, f=28,6%). Furthermore, the respondents rated with 4 the degree of satisfaction from the possibility for personal development (N=60, f=26,4%), the degree of satisfaction from the participants' expectations satisfied at work (N=60, f=26,4%) and the degree of satisfaction from the degree of surveillance at work (N=76, f=33,5%).

The statistical analysis indicated the following findings: a) there was a statistically significant relationship between public school principals' perceived consideration leadership style and job satisfaction of secondary Greek public teachers. The positive Beta scores of 0,0642, 0,0523 and 0,0867 respectively signified that as the teachers' perceptions of the principals' level of consideration leadership style increased, the level of teacher job satisfaction also increased (Table 3).

Table 3: Teacher job satisfaction and consideration leadership style

Variable	Beta scores	SE Beta scores	B
Overall Job Satisfaction			
Consideration	0.0642	0.005	0.582
Intrinsic Job Satisfaction			
Consideration	0.0523	0.005	0.441
Extrinsic Job Satisfaction			
Consideration	0.0867	0.006	0.710

b) There was a statistically significant relationship between public school principals' perceived initiating structure leadership style and job satisfaction of secondary Greek public school teachers. The positive Beta scores of 0,0642, 0,0523 and 0,0867 respectively signified that as the teachers' perceptions of the principals' level of initiating structure leadership style increased, the level of teacher job satisfaction also increased (table 4).

Table 4: Teacher job satisfaction and initiating structure leadership style

Variable	Beta scores	SE Beta scores	B
Overall Job Satisfaction			
Initiating Structure	0.6721	0.005	0.623
Intrinsic Job Satisfaction			
Initiating Structure	0.0633	0.006	0.551
Extrinsic Job Satisfaction			
Initiating Structure	0.0745	0.005	0.680

c) The total sample mean score for teachers' ratings of principals on consideration was 37,12, below the norm mean score of 41,28. The total sample mean score for teachers' ratings of principals on initiating structure was 39,66 above the norm mean score of 38,33. Scores were also analysed by teacher gender. The results were as follows: i) Analysis by teacher gender indicated that female teachers rated their principals below the mean on initiating structure leadership and below the mean on consideration leadership style. Male teachers rated their principals above the mean on initiating structure leadership and below the mean on consideration leadership style ii) Analysis by principal gender indicated that teachers rated male principals above the mean and female principals below the mean on initiating structure. Teachers rated male principals below the mean and female principals below the mean on consideration leadership style (Table 5).

Table 5: LBDQ Mean scores by teacher and principal gender

	Consideration		Initiating structure	
	Mean	**SD**	**Mean**	**SD**
Male teacher	41.25	11.77	39.91	9.67
Female teacher	38.82	12.34	37.25	11.52
Male principal	39.54	12.98	38.57	12.67
Female principal	40.34	11.33	41.52	10.74
Sample mean score	37.12		39.66	
Norm mean score	41.28		38.33	

d) The norm mean scores on teacher job satisfaction indicate (1-3) as low and (4-6) as high. The sample mean score of (4,39) indicated teachers had a high level of job satisfaction. Analysis by teacher's gender and principal's gender which teachers worked produced the following results: i) Female teachers had higher mean score (4,56) than did male teachers did (3,97) ii) Teachers working under

the authority of male principals had a higher mean score (4,66) than teachers working under the authority of female principals (4,28) iii) The lowest mean score on job satisfaction was observed in to male teachers (3,97) (Table 6).

Table 6: MCMJSS Mean Scores by teachers and principal gender

	Job Satisfaction		Intrinsic		Extrinsic	
	Mean	**SD**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Mean**	**SD**
Teachers gender						
Male	3.97	1.69	4.10	1.78	3.81	1.55
Female	4.56	1.34	4.87	1.39	4.47	1.26
Principals gender						
Male	4.66	1.24	4.88	1.29	4.57	1.12
Female	4.28	1.43	4.20	1.84	4.32	1.46
Sample mean Scores	4.39		4.28		4.11	
Norm mean scores	1-3 low 4-6 high					

e) Ratings on job satisfaction and leadership style were examined by cross-matches of principal/teacher gender. Results were as follows: i) The lowest mean score (2,94) was for male teachers working for female principals. Job satisfaction mean scores of female teachers working for female principals (4,31), female teachers working for male principals (4,58) and male teachers working for male principals (4,51) fell within the high job satisfaction range (4-6) ii) The mean scores on initiating structure for male principals by male teachers (42,12), for male principals by female teachers (41,27) and for female principals by female teachers (38,67), were all above the norm mean score (38,23). All ratings on consideration were below the norm mean (45,78). The lowest ratings given to female principals by male teachers were (27,91) on initiating structure and (31,67) on consideration leadership style (Table 7).

Table 7: Mean score for Job Satisfaction and Leadership styles by principal / teacher gender

Principal / Teacher Gender	Teacher Job Satisfaction	Principal Leadership Style/ Initiating Structure Consideration	
Male principal/ Male teacher	4.51	42.12	40.98
Male principal/ female teacher	4.58	41.27	41.29
Female principal/ male teacher	2.94	27.91	31.67
Female principal/ female teacher	4.31	38.67	41.55
Mean scores	1-3 low 4-6 high	38.23	45.78

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5. Discussion

Halpin (1957)[30] described the Consideration dimension as behavior that is indicative of friendship, warmth in a relationship, mutual trust, and respect. There is a logical connection between the behaviors identified as consideration behaviors in supervisors and higher degrees of reported job satisfaction in subordinates. These behaviors correlate with Maslow's (1965)[31] hierarchy of needs and the data are consistent with the work of Cohen (1990)[32], Ford & Gillette (1969)[33] and Fryer & Lovas (1991)[34], which states that individual's basic needs must be met prior to expectations of higher order contributions.

It appears that the leadership style of the specific Greek public secondary principals, as perceived by secondary teachers, has influenced the teacher job satisfaction of Attica public school teachers and had great impact – positive or negative – on their work in class as well as on their interaction with fellow colleagues. Therefore, based on these findings, principals should assess their leadership styles and set goals for higher levels of either of the two dimensions of leadership behaviour (Initiating Structure and Consideration) identified in the LBDQ. Previous research[35],[36],[37] indicated that principals who practiced high levels of initiating structure and consideration were more effective in the schools than those principals who exhibited low levels of either of the two (2) leadership dimensions.

Based on the data from the 227 respondents, there was a higher initiating structure mean score than consideration mean score. The norm mean score for initiating structure was 38.33 and the sample mean score for teachers' ratings of principals was 39.66. The norm mean score for consideration was 41.28 and the sample mean score for teachers' ratings of principals was 37.12. It was concluded that teachers perceived their principals as being more concerned about task and performance than about the interpersonal aspects of the principal's role. Halpin (1957)[38] suggested the opposite: "*educational administrators demonstrate good leader behaviour in the high consideration for the members of their staffs; but on*

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30 Halpin, A., (1957). Manual for Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire. Columbus: Ohio State University.
31 Maslow, A. (1965). *Eupsychian management*. Ilinois: Dorsey Press.
32 Cohen, W. (1990). The art of the leader**.** New York: Prentice Hall.
33 Ford, N. & Gillette, B. (1969). *A new approach to job motivation: Improving the work itself.* In. Ford, N. (1969) *Motivation through the work itself.* American Management Association.
34 Fryer, T. & Lovas, J., (1991). *Leadership in governance: Creating conditions for successful decision making in the community college.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Press.
35 Halpin, A. (1966). *Theory and research in administration*. New York: The Macmillan Company.
36 Hoy, W. & Miskel. C., (1991). *Educational administration: theory, research, and practice. 4th ed.* New York: Random House.
37 Sergiovanni, T. & Carver, F., (1980). *The new school executive, a theory of administration. 2nd ed.* New York: Harper and Row.
38 Halpin, A., (1957). Manual for Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire. Columbus: Ohio State University.

the other hand, they fail to initiate structure to as great an extent as is probably desirable" (p.31). The findings of higher initiating structure mean scores could be related to the mandates and expectations of the new legislation law[39] for the 'reform of the regional headquarters of education' that Ministry of Education has applied, from school year 2011-2012, to Greek schools.

Since the overall teacher mean score was 4.39 on teacher job satisfaction, it was concluded that secondary public school teachers, in the specific places and schools, exhibited high job satisfaction levels. Male teachers exhibited the lowest job satisfaction mean scores. Also since job satisfaction examined by principal and teacher gender was a mean score of 2.94 for male teachers working for female principals, it was concluded that male teachers exhibited low job satisfaction levels when working for female principals and that gender, can actually affect perceptions of leadership style[40],[41],[42]. According to Liatsou (2011)[43], male teachers report more positive interactions and communications with male than female principals.

Leadership styles examined by principal and teacher gender concluded that both male and female teachers perceived male principals to exhibit those behaviours related to initiating structure. Both male and female teachers rated male and female principals below the mean on consideration. Male teachers perceived female principals as lacking in behaviours with both initiating structure and consideration leadership style. Apparently, gender still plays a crucial role especially when positions of power are involved.

6. Conclusion

Principals in those public secondary schools who wished to increase the job satisfaction of their teachers might wish to concentrate on initiating structure and consideration with their followers. Educational Institute of Greece and agencies may train future principals, create policy for education, or provide staff development for present principals. Teachers perceived their principals to exhibit behaviors related to task and performance such as defining duties and responsibilities, and setting standards of performance and clarifying expectations.

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39 Public Law 3848 (2010). Ministry of Education Greek. Available at http://www.opengov.gr/ypepth/?p=854#nogo [Accessed 13 January 2014].
40 Gray, L. (1987). Gender considerations in school management: Masculine and feminine leadership styles. *School Organization, 7, pp. 297-302.*
41 Fowler, W., (1991). *What are the characteristics of principals identified as effective by teachers?* National Center for Education Statistics Washington. Available at http://www.eric.ed.gov/PDFS/ED347695.pdf [Accessed 20 December 2014].
42 Hall, V., (1994). *Making a difference: women head teacher's contribution to schools as learning institutions.* Available at http://www.eric.ed.gov/?id=ED376579 [Accessed 22 November 2014].
43 Liatsou, O. (2011) Managers and evaluators…the new role of headteachers. Article in newspaper Eleutherotipia (online) Available at < http://www.enet.gr/?i=news.el.article&id=256926 > [Accessed 13 January 2014].

The findings of this research do not represent any group apart from itself and it does not seek to generalize about the wider population. However, it could be a starting point for a wider research and could lead to interesting findings as far as it concerns Greek education.

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Zerdeli Sofia

Modern educational practices and approaches of educational lexicography in the greek educational system: an empirical research in primary education

Abstract

In this paper the possibility of functional development and the effectiveness of integrating the Spelling-Monolingual dictionary is investigated. This is the so called "Our Dictionary", for the 4th, 5th and 6th Grade of Primary Education. At first, this paper presents, on a theoretical level, the design principles, the compilation methodology and the basic structural features of this particular dictionary. Secondly, we investigate, on an empirical level, whether this dictionary can be turned into an advantage for students during the educational practice and if, and how much, it contributes to the cultivation of certain linguistic expressions of primary school students.

Keywords: school dictionary, microstructure, macrostructure, megastructure, language course

Σύγχρονες διδακτικές πρακτικές και προσεγγίσεις της παιδαγωγικής λεξικογραφίας στο ελληνικό εκπαιδευτικό σύστημα: μια εμπειρική έρευνα στην Πρωτοβάθμια Εκπαίδευση

Περίληψη

Στην παρούσα ανακοίνωση διερευνάται η δυνατότητα λειτουργικής αξιοποίησης και η αποτελεσματικότητα ένταξης του Ορθογραφικού – Ερμηνευτικού λεξικού των τάξεων Δ΄, Ε΄, ΣΤ΄ «Το Λεξικό μας» στην Πρωτοβάθμια Εκπαίδευση. Στην ανακοίνωση παρουσιάζονται αρχικά, σε θεωρητικό επίπεδο, οι σχεδιαστικές αρχές, η μεθοδολογία κατάρτισης και τα βασικά δομικά χαρακτηριστικά του συγκεκριμένου λεξικού. Στη συνέχεια, διερευνάται σε εμπειρικό επίπεδο εάν το λεξικό αυτό αξιοποιείται στη διδακτική πρακτική και εάν και κατά πόσο συμβάλλει στην καλλιέργεια της γλωσσικής έκφρασης των μαθητών δημοτικών σχολείων.

Λέξεις κλειδιά: σχολικό λεξικό, μικροδομή, μακροδομή, μεγαδομή, γλωσσικό μάθημα

1. Introduction

According to the conclusions of certain theoretical studies and empirical research of the dictionary, both of the Greek and international bibliography, the dictionary is considered to be a valuable tool and a necessary guide throughout the receptive and productive language process, with undeniable pedagogical, linguistic and educational value[1].

Through the implementation of the Cross Thematic Curriculum Framework (D.E.P.P.S.) and the Analytical Programme of Studies (A.P.S.) for Primary Schools, the dictionary is officially introduced, for its very first time, in Primary Education during the school year 2007-08, after being approved by the Pedagogical Institute (P.I.)[2]. Taking into consideration the philosophy of the New

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1 Αναστασιάδη – Συμεωνίδη, Α. (1997). Η λεξικογραφία στην εκπαίδευση. Στο: Χ. Τσολάκης (επιμ.), *Η διδασκαλία της Ελληνικής Γλώσσας,* Πρακτικά β΄ Πανελληνίου Συνεδρίου. Θεσσαλονίκη: Κώδικας, σ.σ. 152,175· Γαβριηλίδου, Ζ. (2002). Η διερεύνηση των λόγων Χρήσης λεξικού ως προϋπόθεση για τη διδασκαλία χρήσης του λεξικού στην τάξη. Στο: Π. Καμπάκη-Βουγιουκλή (επιμ.), *Η Διδασκαλία της Νέας Ελληνικής ως Μητρικής Γλώσσας.*Ξάνθη: Σπανίδη, σσ. 49-50· Ευθυμίου Α. & Μητσιάκη, Μ. (2007). Το πρώτο μου λεξικό ως εργαλείο διδασκαλίας της ελληνικής σε αλλόγλωσσους. Στο: Κ. Ντίνας & Α. Χατζηπαναγιωτίδη (επιμ.), *Η Ελληνική Γλώσσα ως δεύτερη/ξένη. Έρευνα, Διδασκαλία, Εκμάθηση,* Πρακτικά Διεθνούς Συνεδρίου. Θεσσαλονίκη: University Studio Press, σσ. 242,247· Ευθυμίου Α. (2009). Το λεξικό στη διδασκαλία της γλώσσας. Αναφορά στο εικονογραφημένο λεξικό Α', Β', Γ' Δημοτικού. *Στα πρακτικά του 8ου Διεθνούς Συνεδρίου Ελληνικής Γλωσσολογίας* (σε cd), σ.σ. 801-803· Ιορδανίδου, Α. & Μάντζαρη, Ε. (2003). Προτάσεις σχεδιασμού παιδαγωγικών Λεξικών. Στο: *6ο Διεθνές Συνέδριο Ελληνικής Γλωσσολογίας.* Ρέθυμνο: Πανεπιστήμιο Κρήτης. http://www.philology.uoc.gr/conferenses/6thlCGL/.

2 ΥΠΕΠΘ/Παιδαγωγικό Ινστιτούτο (2003). Συμπληρωματικές προδιαγραφές εκπαιδευτικού υλικού

Programme, the need of the dictionary is considered imperative, both for students and teachers, to be used during any language teaching[3]. For this reason, two dictionaries have been published for primary school, the "Illustrated dictionary", for the three first grades (1st, 2nd, 3rd)[4], and the "Spelling-Monolingual dictionary", for the last three ones (4th, 5th, 6th).

Considering this new perspective as far as the way of conducting the language lesson is concerned, in this paper we endeavour to develop a critical approach of the Spelling-Monolingual Dictionary, henceforth SMD, by referring to its functionality and its effective treatment of this official educational and linguistic tool in Primary Education. It is the second of a series of dictionaries which were all written within the framework of the Programme *EPEAEK II* of the Pedagogical Institute and it is one of the first educational dictionaries to be used in the educational practice as a text book by primary school students[5].

The goal of this paper is to present, at first, on a theoretical level the design principles the compilation methodology and the basic structural features of this dictionary (macrostructure, microstructure, megastructure). Thereafter, it is explored on an empirical level whether this dictionary is turned into an advantage throughout the educational practice and if, and how much, it contributes to the vocabulary enrichment and the cultivation of certain linguistic expressions of primary school students, in accordance with the data collected after a relevant review of educational research. The research took place in May 2010 in nine primary schools of the Prefecture of East Macedonia and Thrace, in a sample of 256 students of the last three grades. For this purpose, a particular questionnaire was used as a methodological tool, in order for certain views and the behavior of some students to be investigated regarding the use of a dictionary at school and at home, and in order for relevant conclusions to be cited and respective suggestions to be expressed.

2. Theoritical Level: Authoring criteria of a Spelling-Monolingual Dictionary

2.1 General Characteristics

The SMD of the 4th, 5th and 6th grade of Primary School, called "Our dictionary", is a modern educational school dictionary which is an innovation in the teaching

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Νηπιαγωγείου και Δημοτικού Σχολείου, τόμ. Γ΄, τεύχ. α΄. Αθήνα, σ.σ. 103-106.

3 Νικηφοράκη, Μ. (2003). Η αξιοποίηση του λεξικού στη διδασκαλία της μητρικής γλώσσας. Εφαρμογή στη σημασιολογία. Στο: *Μελέτες για την Ελληνική γλώσσα,* Πρακτικά 23ης ετήσιας συνάντησης του Τομέα Γλωσσολογίας Τμήματος Φιλολογίας του Α.Π.Θ., τομ. ΙΙ, (Θεσσαλονίκη 17-19 Μαΐου 2002), σ. 494.

4 The writing team of the dictionary is: A. Efthymiou, I. Dimos, M. Mitsiaki, I.Antypa.

5 Γαβριηλίδου, Μ., Λαμπροπούλου, Π. & Γιούλη, Β. (2009). Το Ερμηνευτικό λεξικό για το Γυμνάσιο. Στο: Γ. Γιαννάκη, Μ. Μπαλτατζάνη, Γ. Ξυδόπουλο & Τ. Τσαγγαλίδη (επιμ.) (2009*), 8ο Διεθνές Συνέδριο Ελληνικής Γλωσσολογίας,*Ηλεκτρονικά Πρακτικά 8ου Διεθνούς Συνεδρίου Ελληνικής Γλωσσολογίας (Ιωάννινα 30 Αυγούστου – 2 Σεπτεμβρίου 2007). Ιωάννινα, σ. 684.

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procedure, as for the first time a dictionary is officially introduced in education, and it is designed to play an important role in teaching, being a reference point not only for the language lesson but also for other cognitive objects.

A dictionary is considered to be educational, and it aims to facilitate language teaching, since it can be used as a reference book both by teachers and students[6].

A dictionary that is addressed to children of the higher grades of primary school, aged between 9-12 years old, is defined as a school dictionary. Thus, it is the dictionary that is addressed to children who make a conscious use of it, scheduled and continuously due to their school obligations and demands[7].

Taking into account what is mentioned below, the SMD of the 4th, 5th and 6th grade of Primary School, is an alphabetic, contemporary dictionary, whose peculiarity relies on the fact that its target-group are people of school age who attend the last three grades of Primary School and, therefore, it is an educational school Dictionary.

2.2. Goal Setting

According to the writers of the dictionary[8], "its goal is to become an inseparable companion in the daily investigations of children into the rich world of the Greek language". It is considered to be a reference book that students can use daily during the learning of their language, as well as during the assimilation of other cognitive objects. For this reason, it was drawn in such a way so as to satisfy its goal, which is to correspond to the students' need in order to have an access to different kinds of lexical information, to introduce them to a searching method and help them develop their searching skills and their abilities to use the information, by referring to the proper lexicography tools[9].

Hence, it is a necessary reference book for the student so as to give him/her the opportunity to introduce himself/herself into becoming an independent learner, as long as he/she is able to search for information, without being helped by the teacher, and to process, judge and incorporate it in his/her own speech[10].

In addition, another really important goal to make the dictionary a useful

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6 Hartmann, R. R. K. (2001). *Teaching and Researching Lexicography*. Harlow: Longman, p.p. 32-33,74.

7 Σαραφίδου, T. (2000). Νεοελληνικά λεξικά για παιδιά: Μερικά ζητούμενα και δεδομένα. Στο: Z. Γαβριηλίδου (επιμ.),
Παιδική Λεξικογραφία και Χρήση Λεξικού στην Προσχολική και Σχολική Ηλικία, Πρακτικά Ημερίδας (Ξάνθη 26 Οκτωβρίου 1999), Ξάνθη: Εταιρεία Αξιοποίησης και Διαχείρισης Περιουσίας Δημοκρίτειου Πανεπιστημίου Θράκης, σ. 39.

8 The writing team of the dictionary is: G. Kapsalis, A. Paschalis, St. Tsialos, D. Goulis.

9 Μπερερής, Π. & Παπαρίζος, X. 2006. «Το Νέο Πρόγραμμα Σπουδών, τα καινούρια βιβλία και οι τομές στη γλωσσική διδασκαλία του Δημοτικού». http:// www.pi-school.gr, (προσπελάστηκε 20/3/2012)

10 Αναστασιάδη – Συμεωνίδη, A. (1997). Η λεξικογραφία στην εκπαίδευση. Στο: X. Τσολάκης (επιμ.), Η διδασκαλία της Ελληνικής *Γλώσσας,* Πρακτικά β΄ Πανελληνίου Συνεδρίου. Θεσσαλονίκη: Κώδικας, σ. 175.

tool is the prospect of familiarising students with the use of it and their initiation into the lexicographical metalanguage[11].

2.3 Prerequisites

The writing process of a dictionary is included, as mentioned above, in D.E.P.P.S. and in A.P.S. of the Language Subject of Primary Schools, where the special goals are defined as well as any Additional Requirements of Educational Material for Primary and Nursery School are included there, too.

The prerequisites set by Pedagogical Institute concern the megastructure, the macrostructure and the microstructure as well as the form of the dictionary. As far as the megastructure is concerned, the number of headwords in a dictionary is not defined. The vocabulary field of the headwords will be the content of the books of the 4th, 5th and 6th grade of primary school. As far as microstructure is concerned, the headwords will include information about spelling, the parts of the speech, morphology (conjugation), word derivation and synthesis, syntax, etymology, semantics and examples of their use.

As far as the megastructure is concerned (elsewhere mentioned as macrostructure), it includes directions of how to use the dictionary, different tables about: the words' intonation, numerals, inflexional suffixes, Informatics vocabulary, and "landmarks" of Greek history. As far as the form is concerned, it is specified that the SMD of the 4th, 5th, 6th grade will be brought out in print, in small size with 280 pages, and also typographical contracts are specified.

Finally, the prerequisites required to write a dictionary is the simplicity of metalanguage, the significance of its usability and friendliness, and the use of suitable examples that correspond to the age needs of its users[12].

3. Presentation of a dictionary designing principles and structure

Throughout the following chapter we will try to analyze the characteristics of the SMD concerning the macrostructure, microstructure and megastructure, and we will also examine if this dictionary satisfies its compilation specifications and whether it corresponds to the criteria of an educational dictionary.

3.1 Description of the macrostructure

The macrostructure and the microstructure constitute the basic elements of a

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11 Γαβριηλίδου, Μ., Λαμπροπούλου, Π. & Γιούλη, Β. (2009). Το Ερμηνευτικό λεξικό για το Γυμνάσιο. Στο: Γ. Γιαννάκη, Μ. Μπαλτατζάνη, Γ. Ξυδόπουλο & Τ. Τσαγγαλίδη (επιμ.) (2009*), 8ου Διεθνές Συνέδριο Ελληνικής Γλωσσολογίας,* Ηλεκτρονικά Πρακτικά 8ου Διεθνούς Συνεδρίου Ελληνικής Γλωσσολογίας (Ιωάννινα 30 Αυγούστου – 2 Σεπτεμβρίου 2007). Ιωάννινα, σ. 685.
12 ΥΠΕΠΘ/Παιδαγωγικό Ινστιτούτο (2003). Συμπληρωματικές προδιαγραφές εκπαιδευτικού υλικού Νηπιαγωγείου και Δημοτικού Σχολείου, τόμ. Γ΄, τεύχ. α΄. Αθήνα, σ.σ. 103-106.

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dictionary and, therefore, its evaluation reasonably starts from the examination of the parameters that compose them.

The term macrostructure is used in the relevant bibliography under different meanings: it states the simple drawing of the lexicon as well as the organization of the lexicographical material[13], both in discrete parts (main body, appendix) and within the lexicographical article (headwords-endolemmas)[14].

In Hartmann[15] it is mentioned that the macrostructure is defined by Hausmann and Wiegand[16] as "the ordered group of all headwords (key-words), which constitutes the basis for the enlistment of the words in a catalogue or a wordlist in alphabetical or thematic order".

In an educational school dictionary, the wordlist must be formed, apart from the words that are the basic vocabulary, after a thorough process of textbooks, magazines and works of juvenile literature[17]. As we have previously mentioned, in the SMD the vocabulary field of the headwords is the content of the textbooks of 4th, 5th, and 6th grade of primary school and, in particular the basic vocabulary of the textbook of the Language course. Moreover, some unknown words for some students were cited regarding their meaning, use and derivation.

The headwords were included in the 141 pages of the dictionary and were presented in alphabetic order, which is the best choice for classifying the headwords because the student can easily use the dictionary[18] by himself/herself and the user-students can consult the dictionary in short time[19]. In the beginning of each letter, there is a colour picture presenting the letter and next to it there is the letter shown in a written form, so the student can recognise the initial letter of the words that follow. However, a thematic order of headwords is missing in this dictionary.

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13 Hartmann, R.R.K. & James, G. (1998). *Dictionary of lexicography.* London: Routledge, p.p. 37-40· Jackson, H. (2002). Lexicography: An introduction. London: Lontledge, p.p. 25-27.

14 Γαβριηλίδου, Μ., Λαμπροπούλου, Π. & Γιούλη, Β. (2009). Το Ερμηνευτικό λεξικό για το Γυμνάσιο. Στο: Γ. Γιαννάκη, Μ. Μπαλτατζάνη, Γ. Ξυδόπουλο & Τ. Τσαγγαλίδη (επιμ.) (2009*), 8ου Διεθνές Συνέδριο Ελληνικής Γλωσσολογίας,* Ηλεκτρονικά Πρακτικά 8ου Διεθνούς Συνεδρίου Ελληνικής Γλωσσολογίας (Ιωάννινα 30 Αυγούστου -2 Σεπτεμβρίου 2007). Ιωάννινα, σ. 687.

15 Hartmann, R. R. K. (2001). *Teaching and Researching Lexicography*. Harlow: Longman,σ. 64.

16   Hausmann, F & Wiegand, H. (1989). "Component parts and structures of general monolingual dictionaries: A survey". In: L.
        Zgusta, F. Hausmann & O. Reichmann (eds.) *An International Encyclopedia of Lexicography* Vol. 1 (5.1). Berlin: Walter de Gruyter, p.p. 328.

17 Σαραφίδου, Τ. (2000). «Νεοελληνικά λεξικά για παιδιά: Μερικά ζητούμενα και δεδομένα». Στο Ζ. Γαβριηλίδου (επιμ.), *Πρακτικά Ημερίδας με θέμα: Παιδική Λεξικογραφία και Χρήση Λεξικού στην Προσχολική και Σχολική Ηλικία.* Ξάνθη: έκδοση Δ.Π.Θ., σ. 40.

18 Σαραφίδου, Τ. (2000). Νεοελληνικά λεξικά για παιδιά: Μερικά ζητούμενα και δεδομένα. Στο: Ζ. Γαβριηλίδου (επιμ.), *Πρακτικά Ημερίδας με θέμα: Παιδική Λεξικογραφία και Χρήση Λεξικού στην Προσχολική και Σχολική Ηλικία.* Ξάνθη: έκδοση Δ.Π.Θ., σ. 41.

19 Τζιβανοπούλου, Α. (1997). Το Λεξικό της Νέας Ελληνικής Γλώσσας του Ινστιτούτου Νεοελληνικών Σπουδών (Ίδρυμα Μανόλη Τριανταφυλλίδη. Στο: Χ. Τσολάκης (επιμ*.), Η Διδασκαλία της Ελληνικής Γλώσσας,* Πρακτικά β΄ Πανελληνίου Συνεδρίου. Θεσσαλονίκη: Κώδικας, σ. 187.

3.2 Dictionary's microstructure

The design and organization of the dictionary's microstructure is supported by the relevant requirements set by P.I. The explanations are given through simple sentences written in natural language and through comprehensible and explanatory examples of daily life. The type and width of lexicographic information are compatible with the linguistic ability of students and serve the teaching goals set by this educational school dictionary. In addition, it takes into account the respective students' skills when they use words. What is characteristic is that the article of the dictionary includes information that is thought to be necessary for the communicative and learning skills of students who are between nine and twelve years old[20].

The headwords in the SMD are presented horizontally in three columns (see Picture 1) and in three different colors in the background:

Picture 1. Presentation columns of the headword

| **συγκεντρώνω** *(Ρήμα, P1)* (ενεστ. συ–γκε–ντρώ–νω, αόρ. συγκέντρω–σα, παθ. αόρ. συγκε–ντρώθηκα, παθ. μτχ. συγκεντρωμένος) [μτγν. συγκεντρόω -ῶ < σὺν + κέντρον, μεταφρ. δάν. γαλλ. concentrer] | **1. (μτβ.) μαζεύω πολλά πρόσωπα ή πράγματα σε ορισμένο σημείο, συνα-θροίζω:** ▶ *Η διευθύντρια συγκέντρωσε τους μαθητές και τους μίλησε για το πρόγραμμα της εκδρομής.* **2. (μτβ.) (μέσ.) αφοσιώ-νομαι απερίσπαστος σε κάτι:** ▶ *Συγκεντρώσου στο στόχο σου και σίγουρα θα τα καταφέρεις.* | **Αντίθ.:** σκορπίζω **(1)**, αφαι-ρούμαι **(2)** **Οικογ. Λέξ.:** συγκέντρωση, συγκεντρωτικός **Φράσεις:** ▶Συγκεντρώσου (= πρόσεξε) |

In the first column the orthographic definition of the word is included (συγκεντρώνω-concentrate), as well as the part of speech (ρήμα-verb) and the way it is conjugated (P1). This particular symbol (P1) refers to the tables presented at the end of the dictionary giving some inflectional examples. When this symbol is absent, it would be good for the students to consult their school grammar for more information. Also, the spelling of the word (συ–γκε–ντρώ–νω) is presented, the basic tenses of the verb (συγκέντρωσα, συγκεντρώθηκα, συγκεντρωμένος),

20 Γαβριηλίδου, Μ.,Λαμπροπούλου, Π. & Γιούλη, Β. (2009). Το Ερμηνευτικό λεξικό για το Γυμνάσιο. Στο: Γ. Γιαννάκη, Μ. Μπαλτατζάνη, Γ. Ξυδόπουλο & Τ. Τσαγγαλίδη (επιμ.) (2009*), 8ο Διεθνές Συνέδριο Ελληνικής Γλωσσολογίας,* Ηλεκτρονικά Πρακτικά 8ου Διεθνούς Συνεδρίου Ελληνικής Γλωσσολογίας (Ιωάννινα 30 Αυγούστου - 2 Σεπτεμβρίου 2007). Ιωάννινα, σ.682·ΥΠΕΠΘ/Παιδαγωγικό Ινστιτούτο (2003)·Συμπληρωματικές προδιαγραφές εκπαιδευτικού υλικού Νηπιαγωγείου και Δημοτικού Σχολείου, τόμ. Γ΄, τεύχ. α΄. Αθήνα, σ.σ. 103-106.

the etymology and the word derivation (συγκεντρόω < συν+κέντρον, loan from French). When a noun is presented, only its type, its inflection, its spelling and its etymology is mentioned. When an adjective is presented, once again its type, its inflection, and its three genders are mentioned as well as if it is followed by an animate or inanimate noun or both. E.g.: the headword συνεχής, -ής, -ές (continuous) is followed by an inanimate noun (see Picture 2)[21].

Picture 2. Headword *συνεχής, -ής, - ές (continuous)*

| συνεχής, -ής, -ές

(Επίθετο, Ε9, άψυχα)
(συ-νε-χής, γεν. -ούς,
πληθ. -είς, -είς, -ή)
[αρχ. συνεχής <
συνέχω] | **που γίνεται δίχως διακο-**
πές, αδιάκοπος: ► *Κάποια*
καταστήματα λειτουργούν με
συνεχές ωράριο. | **Αντίθ.:** διακεκομμένος
Συνών.: διαρκής
Οικογ. Λέξ.: συνεχώς
(επίρρ.), συνέχεια, συνεχίζω,
συνεχιστής
Φράσεις: ►Συνεχώς και
αδιαλείπτως (= χωρίς δια-
κοπές)
Προσδιοριζ.: παρουσία,
λειτουργία |

The central column offers information about the meaning of the words by saying if the verb is transitive or intransitive, so as students to understand the way it is used in a sentence. However, this information is not given for other parts of the speech. For example, in the central column of the headword «**συγκεντρώνω**» ("concentrate") (see Picture 2) the following meanings are given: "*(transitive) gather many people or things in a specific place, assemble*" and "*(transitive) (passive voice) collect one's thoughts*". After each definition, an example is given in order to make clear how this word can be used correctly.

The language used in the examples is more formal and closer to written speech. In this way, it becomes clear that the writers have created the dictionary according to the linguistic needs and abilities of the students of this particular age.

In the right column the opposites, the synonyms of each word and their word families, as well as their compounds are included. Additionally, standard phrases and idioms used metaphorically are included, too. For example, in the third column of the headword «*συγκεντρώνω*» (concentrate) the opposites are given «*σκορπίζω, αφαιρούμαι*» ("dismiss, lose oneself in abstractions"), the word families «*συγκέντρωση, συγκεντρωτικός*» ("concentration, concentrative") and the phrase «*Συγκεντρώσου*» ("Concentrate") which means «*πρόσεξε*» ("focus"). Moreover, when the headword is a noun, in the last column certain determinative

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21   *Kapsalis, G. Paschalis, A., Tsialos, St. & Goulis, D. (2008). Ορθογραφικό – ερμηνευτικό λεξικό Δ΄, Ε΄, Στ΄ Δημοτικού «Το   Λεξικό μας». Αθήνα: Οργανισμός Εκδόσεως Διδακτικών Βιβλίων· Μπερερής, Π. & Παπαρίζος, Χ. (2006). Το Νέο Πρόγραμμα Σπουδών, τα καινούρια βιβλία και οι   τομές στη γλωσσική διδασκαλία του Δημοτικού. http:// www.pi-school.gr.*

words are presented, i.e. a group of words combined with the headword. E.g.: the headword «*συγγραφέας*» ("writer") might be followed by words such as: "unanimous, approved, theatrical, popular, awarded" (see Pic 3).

Picture 3. Headword *συγγραφέας* (writer)

| συγγραφέας (ο, η) *(Ουσιαστικό, Ο17)* (συγ-γρα-φέ-ας) [αρχ. συγγραφεύς < συγγράφω] | αυτός που έγραψε ένα λογοτεχνικό ή επιστημονικό έργο σε πεζό λόγο: ▶*Ο Παπαδιαμάντης είναι ένας πολύ γνωστός συγγραφέας.* | **Οικογ. Λέξ.:** συγγράφω, συγγραφή, συγγραφικός, σύγγραμμα **Προσδιορ.:** ανώνυμος, δόκιμος, θεατρικός, διάσημος, βραβευμένος |

When the headword is an adjective, new determinative words are given, since the adjectives are followed by other determinative words: E.g.: in the headword «*συγκεκριμένος*» ("particular"), the determinative words are "example, energy, deadline" (see Picture 4),

Picture 4. Headword *συγκεκριμένος* (particular)

| συγκεκριμένος, -η, -ο *(Επίθετο, Ε2, έμψυχα και άψυχα)* (συ-γκε-κρι-μέ-νος) [αρχ. συγκρίνομαι] | σαφής, ακριβής, ξεκάθαρος: ▶*Η Τροχαία έκανε συγκεκριμένες προτάσεις, για να αντιμετωπιστεί το κυκλοφοριακό πρόβλημα της Θεσσαλονίκης.* | **Αντίθ.:** γενικός, αόριστος, ασαφής, αφηρημένος **Οικογ. Λέξ.:** συγκεκριμένα *(επίρρ.)* **Προσδιοριζ.:** παράδειγμα, ενέργεια, προθεσμία |

In the headword «*όμοιος –α –ο*» ("similar") the determinative words are "character, face" (see Picture 5).

Picture 5. Headword *όμοιος* (similar)

| όμοιος, -α, -ο *(Επίθετο, Ε4, έμψυχα και άψυχα)* (ό-μοι-ος) [αρχ. όμοιος < ό-μός] | **1.** αυτός που έχει τα ίδια γνωρίσματα με άλλον: ▶*Στο πρόσωπο είναι όμοιος με τον παππού του.* **2.** ισάξιος, ισοδύναμος, ισότιμος: ▶*Στο άλμα εις μήκος τρεις μαθητές της τάξης έχουν όμοιες επιδόσεις.* | **Αντίθ.:** ανόμοιος, διαφορετικός **(1)**, κατώτερος **(2)** **Συνών.:** ίδιος, παρόμοιος, παρεμφερής **(1)** **Σύνθ.:** ομοιοκαταληξία, ομοιομορφία, ομοιογενής, ανόμοιος, παρόμοιος **Οικογ. Λέξ.:** όμοια *(επίρρ.)*, μοιάζω, ομοιότητα, ομοίωμα **Προσδιοριζ.:** χαρακτήρας, φυσιογνωμία **(1)** |

Citation: Zerdeli, S. (2016), Modern educational practices and approaches of educational lexicography in the greek educational system: an empirical research in primary education, Theory and Research in the Sciences of Education,12/2016, p.p. 63-82. In: http://periodiko.inpatra.gr

3.3 Dictionary's megastructure

Dictionaries, apart from macrostructure and microstructure, also include other information, which is placed out of macrostructure. This information constitutes the so called outer matter and along with macrostructure create the dictionary's megastructure[22].

The dictionary begins by addressing students, giving them the necessary information for its right use. It explains what the three columns of the dictionary represent and informs them about the content of the tables placed in the end of it. Then, abbreviations are presented, the special symbols and the acronyms, which appear in the dictionary and, therefore, students must know them in order to choose the right meaning.

In the end of the dictionary there are some units that inform students on different linguistic issues. For instance, the way the phongs and diphongs are pronounced in Modern Greek is presented and the importance of the synonyms, antonyms, homonyms, paronyms is explained. Also, there are some examples given for each category in order for their function to be understood by the students. In addition, pronunciation rules of the Greek language are given, so as to help students understand the way in which they should pronounce different words. Moreover, there are different categories of the numerals which are presented and a way of writing them is shown. Then, some tables with inflectional examples follow, which represent the way of conjugating nouns and verbs. There is also a word list where some terms related to computer use are listed. That is to say, new technologies start to become integrated in education and for this reason students become familiar with such specific terminology. The last table refers to "landmarks" of Greek history from 1830 until 2004. Social and political facts are mentioned. Also, facts related with arts, culture and literature, as well as the important scientific breakthroughs of each time period are included.

3.4 Dictionary's front and back cover appearance

The SMD is a text book that has different characteristics compared to those of other text books which are addressed to young students. The dictionary, due to its small size, is thought to be useful and attractive for students. The dimensions of this text book are 20,5 cm. x 13,7 cm., it has 285 pages and it conforms to the directions given by the Additional Requirements which suggest ways to be a useful text book.

Since the dictionary is designed for daily use and in particular for the last three school years, a more durable bookbinding had to be chosen.

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22 Ξυδόπουλος, Γ. (2008). *Λεξικολογία.* Αθήνα: Πατάκης, σ.σ. 295-296.

4. The effectiveness of integrating the Spelling – Monolingual Dictionary in the language course

The Spelling – Monolingual Dictionary is integrated in the language course through its connection with the other text books. Students are advised to consult a dictionary in order to enrich their knowledge on various linguistic levels[23]. Therefore, the dictionary is used as a tool for learning vocabulary and also as a tool in order to deal with any arising difficulties when reading or writing texts[24]. This dictionary has been designed by its writers in such a way so as to cover the students' needs, to respond to their perceptive and linguistic level and to take full advantage of their abilities and interests. In addition, the writers of the dictionary have tried to follow the design principles of educational dictionaries in order to attract students' interest. They did not create a dictionary that is addressed to a wide reading public, and for this reason the headwords are limited to words that are found in the text books of Primary School and in books that use the basic vocabulary of students at such an age.

The dictionary is not composed only of pictures and colors, but it also uses a more specialized terminology, adjusted to the age and development level of the students. Children refer to the dictionary to find the meaning of words, their spelling, etymology, synonyms and antonyms, derivatives and compound words, as well as any restrictions regarding their use. Consequently, they use the dictionary both for receptive and productive reasons[25].

The dictionary is a reference book that is enriched by words and explains in every detail their structure, form, meaning and use. For this reason, it is considered to be the chief tool to teach vocabulary and, by extension, language.

23 Γαβριηλίδου, Μ.,Λαμπροπούλου, Π. & Γιούλη, Β. (2009). Το Ερμηνευτικό λεξικό για το Γυμνάσιο. Στο: Γ. Γιαννάκη, Μ. Μπαλτατζάνη, Γ. Ξυδόπουλο & Τ. Τσαγγαλίδη (επιμ.) (2009*), 8ο Διεθνές Συνέδριο Ελληνικής Γλωσσολογίας,* Ηλεκτρονικά Πρακτικά 8ου Διεθνούς Συνεδρίου Ελληνικής Γλωσσολογίας (Ιωάννινα 30 Αυγούστου - 2 Σεπτεμβρίου 2007). Ιωάννινα, σ. 694,696· ΥΠΕΠΘ/Παιδαγωγικό Ινστιτούτο (2003). Συμπληρωματικές προδιαγραφές εκπαιδευτικού υλικού Νηπιαγωγείου και Δημοτικού Σχολείου, τόμ. Γ΄, τεύχ. α΄. Αθήνα, σ.σ. 103-106.
24 Ξυδόπουλος Γ. (2008). *Λεξικολογία.* Αθήνα: Πατάκης, σ. 312· Nation, I.S.P. (2001). *Learning Vocabulary in Another Language.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, p.p. 285-286.
25 Nation, I.S.P. (2001). *Learning Vocabulary in Another Language.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 281-285·

Scholfield, Ph. (1999). Dictionary use in reception. *International Journal of   Lexicography* 12/1,13· Γαβριηλίδου, Ζ. (2000).Η Χρήση του Παιδικού ή Σχολικού Λεξικού στην Προσχολική και Σχολική Ηλικία. Στο: Ζ. (επιμ.), *Πρακτικά Ημερίδας 'Παιδική Λεξικογραφία και Χρήση Λεξικού στην Προσχολική και Σχολική Ηλικία'.* Ξάνθη: έκδοση Δ.Π.Θ., σσ. 34-35· Γαβριηλίδου, Ζ. (2002). Η διερεύνηση των λόγων χρήσης Λεξικού ως προϋπόθεση για τη διδασκαλία χρήσης του λεξικού στην τάξη. Στο: Π. Καμπάκη-Βουγιουκλή, (επιμ.), *Η Διδασκαλία της Νέας Ελληνικής ως Μητρικής Γλώσσας.* Ξάνθη: Σπανίδη, σ. 46· Ευθυμίου Α. & Μητσιάκη, Μ. (2007). Το πρώτο μου λεξικό ως εργαλείο διδασκαλίας της ελληνικής σε αλλόγλωσσους. Στο: Κ. Ντίνας & Α. Χατζηπαναγιωτίδ (επιμ.), *Η Ελληνική Γλώσσα ως δεύτερη/ξένη. Έρευνα, Διδασκαλία, Εκμάθηση,* Πρακτικά Διεθνούς Συνεδρίου. Θεσσαλονίκη: University Studio Press, σσ. 242-243· Ευθυμίου Α. (2009). Το λεξικό στη διδασκαλία της γλώσσας. Αναφορά στο εικονογραφημένο λεξικό Α', Β', Γ' Δημοτικού. *Στα πρακτικά του 8ου Διεθνούς Συνεδρίου Ελληνικής Γλωσσολογίας* (σε cd), σ.σ. 802-803.

Undoubtedly, it is a basic tool to teach the language course and especially to achieve many individual goals, such as text comprehension, elaboration and production, as well as skill acquisition from students to use a word in a correct way, to spell it, interpret it and find its etymology. Thus, it would be unreasonable not to integrate the dictionary in language teaching, since it helps students learn the language more easily[26].

The change of the Analytical Programme to teach the language course and the introduction of dictionaries in Primary School reveals the awareness of the state governors on the necessity to incorporate the dictionary in the language course[27].

Thereafter, we will present the results of the empirical research related to the use of dictionaries by the students of the three last grades of Primary School. This research took place in May 2010 and pertains to field overview researches. For carrying out this research a questionnaire has been used as a methodological tool, which was distributed in 256 students of the last three grades of nine Primary Schools of the Prefectures of Thrace and certain data and information regarding the dictionary use has been collected.

5. Empirical research basis

The basis for the empirical research was mainly the finding that, after the introduction and integration of two dictionaries in Primary Education during the school year 2007 – 2008, i.e. of the *Illustrated dictionary of the 1st, 2nd and 3rd grade "My First Dictionary" and the Spelling - Monolingual dictionary of the 4th, 5th and 6th grade "Our dictionary"*, no empirical research has been performed in order to examine the issues of using these two dictionaries in educational practice.

Another reason that contributed to the examination of this issue was that, apart from the two dictionaries of the Pedagogical Institute, there were also other children's/school dictionaries of different publishing houses available, some of which were user-friendly, illustrated and quite attractive, so as to be consulted by students with pleasure, when necessary.

5.1 Research goal

The goal of the empirical research was to detect the attitudes, the views and behaviors of the students who attend primary schools throughout Greece and particularly in Thrace, as far as the use of dictionaries by them is concerned.

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26 Nation, I.S.P. (2001). *Learning Vocabulary in Another Language.* Cambridge: University Press, 281-285· Scholfield, Ph. (1999). Dictionary use in reception. *International Journal of Lexicography* 12/1, p.p.13-34·

27 Χατζηδήμου, Κ. (2008). *Το λεξικό στη διδακτική πράξη και στον εκπαιδευτικό σχεδιασμό. Μία διεπιστημονική προσέγγιση.* Θεσσαλονίκη: Κυριακίδη, σ.σ. 114-115.

Also, another goal was to examine the reasons for using a dictionary, the way of teaching students how to use them, and finally the contribution of a dictionary to the vocabulary enrichment and cultivation of language expressions after the integration of the two dictionaries, *"My First Dictionary", of the 1st, 2nd and 3rd grade and "Our dictionary", of the 4th, 5th and 6th grade* in Primary Education and to make suggestions after the research findings, by making also a comparison with the findings of the first research.

5.2 Data analysis of the research

1st Question: Have you got your own lingual dictionary?

The highest percentage of the students who completed the questionnaire of the research , 88,7% (227 out of 256 students) said that they have their own linguistic dictionary, while a percentage of 11,3% (29 out of 256 students) answered that they do not have their own linguistic dictionary.

2nd Question: How often do you use the dictionary?

As far as the frequency of using the dictionary is concerned, 58,2% (149 out of 256 students) said that they use the dictionary just a few times, 31,6% (81 out of 256 students) replied quite often, 5,5% (14 out of 256) really often while 4,7% (12 out of 256) not at all.

3rd Question: Where do you usually use the dictionary?

Regarding the place where students use the dictionary, 65,6% (168 out of 256 students) replied "at home", 25,4% (65 out of 256) said "at school", and 9% (23 out of 256) said "nowhere".

4th Question: Who taught you how to use a dictionary: 1) your parents, 2) your teachers, 3) your classmates, 4) another person, 5) by yourself

To the above question "Who showed (taught) you how to use a dictionary", 64% said their parents, 49,8% their teachers, 29,6% by themselves, 7,1% another person, and 2,8% their classmates.

5th Question: Which of the following dictionaries have you got and which one do you use?

To the question "Which dictionary have you got and use", we observed that

58,6% of the students said that they use "Our Dictionary", 31,7% replied that they use the dictionary for SCHOOL and OFFICE of G. Mpampiniotis, 27,3% use my first Dictionary for Primary School of Patakis, 25,7% use the Dictionary of Modern Greek Language for PRIMARY SCHOOL students that is published by Savalas, 23,3% "My First Dictionary", 13,3% the Encyclopedic Dictionary PAPYRUS LAROUSSE "To Papyraki", 5,2% the illustrated children's dictionary of Tegopoulos, and 1,2% use my First Dictionary of Livanis publishing house.

6th Question: Are you satisfied with the dictionaries published by the Pedagogical Institute (P.I.) ("My first dictionary" and "Our Dictionary")[28]?

It came out that 15,6% of the students are very satisfied with the dictionaries of the Pedagogical Institute (P.I.), 35,1% are quite satisfied, 26,6% are a little satisfied, 16,8% are not satisfied at all, while a percentage of 5,9% did not answer this question. We observe that the largest percentage of pupils (50,7%) are pleased with the dictionaries provided by Pedagogical Institute.

7th Question: Reasons for which some students are not satisfied with the dictionaries of the Pedagogical Institute ?

The main reason that a small percentage of students are not satisfied with the dictionaries is the fact that in some cases they cannot locate some particular words. Moreover, sometimes the synonyms of a word given are very few. The same thing happens with the opposites. A smaller number of students say that they are dissatisfied because in the dictionaries in question there are no examples that specify the way of using the words in different sentences. Finally, there is also the lowest percentage of students whose dissatisfaction focuses on the dictionary's size, the quality of the material they are made of, the colors and the attractiveness they offer to the person who reads them.

8th Question: Does the use of a dictionary help you enrich your vocabulary?

From the research data we conclude that 48,0% of the students think that the use of a dictionary helps them enrich their vocabulary a lot, 27,3% quite enough, 21,1% just a little and 3,5% not at all.

9th Question: Does the use of the dictionary help you cultivate your linguistic expressions?

At the same time, there are also similar results for the above question, where 41,7%

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28 The questions 6 and 7 were been included in the questionnaire, because the students *of the 4th, 5th and 6th grade* used both dictionaries of P.I.

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said "A lot", 35,2% "Quite enough", 16,8% "A little", and 6,3% "Not at all".

5.3 Conclusion of the research

From the analysis of the research data the following information came out:

- The highest percentage of 88,7% of the students has his/her own dictionary. However, there is also a percentage of 11,3%, who said that they do not have their own dictionary, despite the integration of it in the entire educational procedure and the dispatch of dictionaries at schools. Taking into consideration these percentages, and in combination with some personal experience, it is easy to conclude that schools do not distribute the dictionaries given by the Ministry of Education to every single student.

- Taking into consideration the children's answers, it comes up that they do not use the dictionary at school to a satisfactory level. In this research, as in the previous one, the negative answers outnumber the positive ones that concern the use of a dictionary at school. Therefore, it seems that the conditions that repress the use of a dictionary at school have not changed yet. Hence, a dictionary is not used even nowadays as much as we would expect during the teaching of the language course.

- The research showed that a high percentage of children have been taught how to use the dictionary by their parents. Moreover, it is worth mentioning the percentage of students who said that they have learnt how to use the dictionary by themselves. However, the percentage of students who said that they have been taught by their teachers how to use the dictionary has been differentiated from another relevant research in a better way. The new analytical programmes of studies and the new text books, as well as the teachers' training in teaching and learning strategies on how to use dictionaries, all these have played an important role in this differentiation.

- From the research data it is clear that an important number of students have more than one linguistic dictionaries. This finding shows that the dictionary plays an important role in parents' consciousness and in the effort they make in order to teach to their children the Greek language in an effective way. Therefore, Greek linguistic dictionaries are found in the majority of children's homes that took part in the research. Moreover, it is clear that despite the integration of two dictionaries in the curriculum, these books are not used by a large proportion of students. This is probably due to the lack of encouragement offered by teachers so as to use them both at school and at home. In any case, the fact that a significant percentage of pupils (23.3%) of the 4th,5th , and 6th grade consult the Illustrated Dictionary "My First Dictionary" proves that the children are happy with the use of this dictionary and refer to it with pleasure.

5.4 Suggestions

We should not forget that school dictionaries constitute a fundamental component when teaching the mother tongue, due to the wealth of information that they can offer to the students combined with the proper guidance on behalf of the teachers[29]. Students must learn how a dictionary works, so as to turn it into a source of knowledge throughout their life, a source of enjoyment and specimen of autonomy[30]. Thus, teachers must take full advantage of the dictionary during language teaching. Furthermore, all the Analytical Programmes of Primary and Secondary Education suggest the familiarisation of students with dictionary use, because they acknowledge that it offers new possibilities in the teaching procedure.

Since it is really important to introduce the dictionary as a reference book in the teaching procedure and particularly as a reference book for the language course in Primary School, the Greek educational system must adopt methods for the cultivation of strategic uses of the dictionary in class. Moreover, we must focus and educate students on how to use dictionaries in an effective way through activities and special exercises connected to their use[31]. This conclusion agrees with previous empirical researches, which have proven the educational value of the dictionary[32].

School and classroom libraries must be equipped with a satisfactory number of dictionaries in order to be used by students, and have as many as needed so as an entire class would be able to work on them.

After the introduction of the children's / school dictionary in the educational environment, we expected that it would enable its better evaluation. Unfortunately, even nowadays the dictionary is not integrated at schools in the language course and in general in the teaching procedure not even by the teachers themselves. The State is obliged to urge teachers to make sound use of

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29 Νικηφοράκη, Μ. (2003). Η αξιοποίηση του λεξικού στη διδασκαλία της μητρικής γλώσσας. Εφαρμογή στη σημασιολογία. Στο: *Μελέτες για την Ελληνική γλώσσα,* Πρακτικά 23ης ετήσιας συνάντησης του Τομέ Γλωσσολογίας Τμήματος Φιλολογίας του Α.Π.Θ., τομ. ΙΙ, (Θεσσαλονίκη 17-19 Μαΐου 2002), σ. 494.

30 Αναστασιάδη – Συμεωνίδη, Α. (1997). Η λεξικογραφία στην εκπαίδευση. Στο: Χ. Τσολάκης (επιμ.), *Η διδασκαλία της Ελληνικής Γλώσσας,* Πρακτικά β΄ Πανελληνίου Συνεδρίου. Θεσσαλονίκη: Κώδικας, σ.σ. 151-152.

31 Treville, M-C. & Duquette L. (1996). *Enseigner le vocabulaire e classe de langue.* Paris: Hachette , p.p . 125-128·
Αναστασιάδη – Συμεωνίδη, Α. (1997). Η λεξικογραφία στην εκπαίδευση. Στο: Χ. Τσολάκης (επιμ.), *Η διδασκαλία της Ελληνικής Γλώσσας,* Πρακτικά β΄ Πανελληνίου Συνεδρίου. Θεσσαλονίκη: Κώδικας, 152–154.

32 Bensoussan, M. (1983). Dictionaries and tests of EFL reading comprehension, *English Language Teaching Journal* 37, no 4, pp. 341-345, Ibrahim, A-H. & M. Zalessky (1989). Enquete: I'usage du dictionnaire », in *Lexiques, Amr Helmy Ibrahim*. Paris : Hachette, p.p. 24-30. Luppescu, S. & R.R. Day (1983). «Reading Dictionaries and vocabulary learning*», Language Learning* 43, no 2, pp. 263-287, Rundell, M. (1999). Dictionar use in production. *International Journal of Lexicography*, Vol. 12, nº 1, Oxford University Press, pp. 35-53.

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dictionaries, by offering them with any proper tool and providing them with any supporting material needed.

Teachers are obliged to prompt students to the dictionary's use. However, it is not sufficient just to prompt teachers, because it is also necessary to have the dictionary officially integrated by the State in the school procedure in order to be used both inside and outside the classroom and at school.

Students, at a high rate, believe that the use of dictionary helps them enrich their vocabulary and cultivate their linguistic expressions. Therefore, it is necessary for the students to be prompted by all involved, starting from the 1st grade of Primary School, even from the Nursery School, to use dictionaries and to be taught strategies of using them.

The use of a dictionary by students will work on in essence, if school manages to render it a reference book, which will introduce them to the autonomous continuous learning, and also a book that students will spontaneously consult for the course needs and beyond them. But, in order to accomplish this, students must become efficient users and practice on its use, while the essential breath of life to the entire procedure can only be given by the scientifically aware and educationally trained teacher[33].

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Tsimboukidou Irene

Greek art education
in the twentieth century

Abstract

This paper reviews Greek art education in the twentieth and early twenty- first centuries. Firstly, it presents the status of art education in Greece during the last one hundred years. It follows by reviewing what has been initiated the last twenty-five years to promote and further support art education in in Greek primary and secondary education. This overview of Greek art education provides an important background for understanding the status of Greek art education today in relation to the past. It is hoped that the paper will offer ground for further development in the area of art education in Greece, in which area not much research has been undertaken. This will add to the provision of art education in Greece.

Ελληνική καλλιτεχνική εκπαίδευση τον εικοστό αιώνα

Περίληψη

Το παρόν άρθρο επιχειρεί την παρουσίαση της Ελληνικής καλλιτεχνικής εκπαίδευσης κατά τον εικοστό αιώνα και τις αρχές του εικοστού πρώτου αιώνα.

Παρουσιάζεται αρχικά η καλλιτεχνική εκπαίδευση όπως αναπτύχθηκε σε τέσσερις διαφορετικές περιόδους της ελληνικής εκπαίδευσης. Ακολουθεί μία ανασκόπηση των καινοτομιών που έχουν εισαχθεί τα τελευταία είκοσι πέντε (από το 1988 έως την πρώτη δεκαετία του εικοστού πρώτου αιώνα, το 2010) στο ελληνικό εκπαιδευτικό σύστημα με σκοπό την υποστήριξη και την περαιτέρω ανάπτυξη της καλλιτεχνικής εκπαίδευσης στην Ελλάδα. Η παρουσίαση αυτή αποβλέπει στο να προσφέρει ένα πλαίσιο πληροφοριών από όπου αναλύσεις, προτάσεις και αποφάσεις σχετικά με την καλλιτεχνική εκπαίδευση της Ελλάδας μπορούν να προκύψουν.

Key words: Greek art education, behavioural learning theory, self- expression, cognition.

1. Introduction

The twentieth century produced two phases in art education internationally[1], that are also reflected in Greek art education. Phase one involved self-expression and the autonomy of creativity. It also focused on formalism and basic design exercises aimed at developing an autonomous approach to art and aesthetic experience. Phase two emerged from the cognitive revolution, in which art is understood as the operation of mind in specific social and cultural settings. With the second phase, art education is valued because it engages complex forms of cognition such as the use of the imagination, the ability to give justified forms of interpretation, and other cognitive resources and strategies[2] which not only illuminate learning through art but contribute in a wider way to understanding human beings and their potential. The paper outlines firstly, the different periods of Greek art education. It follows by presenting educational initiatives in the field of Greek art education. In order that the reader can make sense of this outline, it is important to keep in mind that the subject of art in the related historical documents is often synonymous with "drawing", "sketching", "calligraphy", "drafting", "plastic art", "handicrafts" "technical drawing" and "aesthetic education".

2. Greek art education in the twentieth century

It is possible to identify four periods in the development of art education in Greece during the twentieth and early twenty-first centuries. These are:
- Period 1: From 1900 to 1910-the beginning of the twentieth century – art education is under the influence of nineteenth-century educational values and historicism.
- Period 2: During the period 1910–1969 art education is influenced by the

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1 Tsimboukidou, I. (2015), *Models of art education in the twentieth century*. Theory and Research in the Sciences of Education, 4/2015. In: http://periodiko.inpatra.gr.
2 Cunliffe, L. (2008), *Using assessment to nurture knowledge-rich creativity, Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, 45 (3), p.p.309-317

ideas of the "Educational Society".
- Period 3: From 1977 to 1999 – art education is part of more general educational reforms.
- Period 4: From 2003 onwards – art education is part of a new cross-curricular approach based around themes.

The following describes each one of these phases of art education in Greece in more details.

2.1. Period 1: Art education at the beginning of the twentieth century

During this period, art education in the Greek state school system came under the influence of nineteenth-century ideas and the legacy of the classical world, which not only served as a contact with shared European values of the time but also had a more specific historical connection with the study of Greek antiquities and thinking. In state schools these ideas were worked out in the following way. The art curriculum for primary education that was published in 1894 (Table 1), refers to the study of calligraphy and sketching, which were aimed at developing skills thought necessary for pupils' professional future [3]. However, the actual practice of sketching at this time turned out to be more like developing the ability to copy original art works. This approach used didactic, formal methods of teaching based on behavioural learning theory and its related stimulus-response mechanical view of knowledge acquisition, which required students to act only when instructed to do so, and in accordance with the teacher's demonstration. The teaching was of a formal nature and took place in a formal setting. In secondary education, a book published in 1907 on visual art (notably calligraphy and sketching) coded the teaching methods for these disciplines, in which themes are harmonized with the ideals of classicism by developing mechanical routines based on imitating the Greek classics. Such an approach prescribed starting with linear work with drawings done from objects, which are then finished by applying the rules of perspective and the recording of volume with light and shade. This form of art education came to be increasingly questioned as its only goal was to cultivate the skill of reproduction, which also had the effect of discouraging any original thinking and self-expression.

2.2. Period 2: The period influenced by the ideas of the "Educational Society"

A new era for Greek education began with the new approach introduced by the "Educational Society", a group of progressive Greek teachers who founded this organization in 1910 with the aim of reforming the education system. Their approach was influenced by the new views on pedagogy generated in the USA

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3   Lefas, C. (1942), *The history of education.* Athens: O.E.S.B.

and Europe at the beginning of the twentieth century. The new approach to pedagogy meant that the previous mechanistic view of learning by the imposition of rules was rejected in favour of the spirit of collectivism and giving priority to experience and active participation. The Educational Society's curriculum, which was proposed for primary education to the Greek education authority in 1912 (Table 1), recommended that children in the early years of primary be free to draw objects or scenes from fairytales, memory and their personal life, with children in the later years of primary education being taught free drawing, shading and perspective. A cross-curricular approach to learning was proposed in which visual art was to be integrated with the teaching of other subjects. The spirit of collectivism, which would be accomplished by group work, was also proposed with the instructional role of the teacher being aimed at applying a "unique influence" on the children. The progressive views of the Educational Society were severely criticized for provoking a suspect educational rebellion[4]. They were met with harsh resistance and rejected. Even though the proposed reform of primary education was rejected by the Ministry of Education, it did influence the views of pedagogy during the rest of the twentieth century. Also, the Educational Society's views can be seen in the curriculum for primary education as described in 1913 (Table 1). For example, the new primary art curriculum of 1913 which was approved by the Greek Ministry of Education, was centered on the development of sketching and calligraphy, and was written for all the six classes of primary schooling. In the curriculum for early years, the art curriculum anticipates the move towards the teaching of drawing and sketching from memory, in contrast to the more formal programme that preceded it. It was only in the later years of primary education that the teaching of perspective and shading were advocated. The time devoted to teaching aspects of visual art was double that of the curriculum of 1894. In addition, after the publication of the 1913 document, the necessity of visual art in education was embraced by the majority of educators, a view that was sustained until 1969[5].

A parallel initiative took place with the publication in 1914 of the secondary curriculum (Table 1), which increased the time allocated to art to nine hours weekly for all the three years of lower secondary school (three hours weekly per year class). In 1918 crafts were added to art curriculum, with the overall teaching hours allocated to visual art occupying 13% of the school timetable, that is, five hours weekly for year class a', five hours weekly for year class b' and four hours weekly for year class c'(Table 1).

In 1931 a new art curriculum was issued for secondary education that renamed the subject of art as "technicals" (Table 1). It became compulsory and was taught for eight hours weekly with a total of 180 hours weekly for six year

4   Vaos, A. (2000), *Visual art education in Greek education*. Athens: Ellinika Grammata.
5   Salla, T. (2008), *Art education and educational systems*. Athens: Nços.

classes of lower and upper secondary education, or 4.4% of school time. Even though the curriculum was characterized by the spirit of reform that the liberal government of the day sought to establish, many features of the old curriculum were maintained, including the more formal approach to teaching that prevailed before the influence of the Educational Society became more widespread. Those actually involved in the educational process began to demand more change, but the conservative policies and the accompanying formal and mechanistic approach to curriculum and teaching still prevailed. The policies and social conditions of the country at the time emphasized productivity, elegance, knowledge and usefulness as the aims of the art class.

In 1935, and throughout the time of the Metaxa dictatorship (1936–1941), visual art was taught as 3.3% of secondary school education, which represented a reduction on previous arrangements. The decades that followed, despite some innovations, featured; reduction in the hours of instruction for art, dominance of the more formal approach to teaching the subject, adherence to the formalistic view, and differentiation between the subject materials based on pupils' gender. In 1961, art accounted for 3.6% of the secondary school education, and in 1967 it was reduced to 2.7%. Two years later, it was further reduced to just 1.9% (Table 1).

2.3. Period 3: The period of educational reforms: the art curriculum 1977–1999

The period from 1977 to 1999 saw reforms both minor and major in education in Greece, including art education. The new approach for primary education that emerged in 1977 (Table 1) moved away from the formal emphasis of the previous curriculum towards embracing the ideas of the Educational Society and its stress on cultivating the spirit of self-expression and active participation. The central aim for art education became the cultivation of free thought by providing opportunities for pupils to express themselves and develop their imagination[6] [7] using teaching methods that aim to foster experimentation and novelty. The 1977 curriculum for primary education was influenced by the ideas of Read[8], who argued that education through art should be built around the expression of feelings. However, the curriculum still retained the need for the gradual application of correct sketching activities and skills that could be useful for a pupil's future professional life. As part of these proposals, art was required to be taught for twelve hours for all six year classes (two hours weekly for each of the six year

6 Xanthoudaki, M. (1998), *Educational provision for young people as independent visitors to art museums and galleries: Issues of learning and training*. Museum Management and Curatorship, 17(1), p. p 159-172a.

7 Xanthoudaki, M. (2003), *Museums, galleries and art education in primary schools*. In M. Xanthoudaki, L. Tickle & V. Sekules (Eds.), *Researching visual arts education in museums and galleries*, Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic, p. p. 105-116.

8 Read, H. (1943), *Education through art*. London: Faber & Faber.

classes) accounting for 7.5 % of primary education.

In 1982, the subject of art was renamed "aesthetic education" (Table 1), "Aesthetic education" was a term that was introduced during the 1960s and was aimed at including within art education the fields of criticism, art history, aesthetics, and other arts disciplines like music, theatre, dance and literature[9]. In Greece, the term aesthetic education referred to the study of drawing, crafts, painting and music[10]. Such a curriculum began to allow for pupils' real interests and abilities, as well as giving greater time for the contextualized study of art. In primary education, aesthetic education was more concerned with "pupils' emotional and sensory development as well as at the acquisition of artistic skills"[11]. The curriculum "emphasized the importance of investing in pupils' individual abilities, needs and interests; and encouraged the development of their cultural awareness"[12]. In 1985, a new art curriculum (Table 1) was published for secondary education which included painting, drawing, sculpture, and etching. Its more general aim was to nurture pupils' interpersonal skills, responsibility, collaboration, creativity, self-esteem and emotional development. Other aims were to develop cultural awareness and critical thinking about art and its capacity to communicate meaning. The curriculum also stressed the significance of integrating art with the rest of school life, with the themes for the year-one class being developed on the basis of pupils' social life and contemporary issues about art. For the second and third years, themes were selected to enhance skills. The 1985 curriculum envisaged art being taught for one hour per week for each of the first three years of the lower secondary stage and one hour per week for the upper secondary stage. In 1990, a new art curriculum (Table 1) was published for primary education. New textbooks to support art teachers covered not only art but also music and drama. Pupils' aesthetic development is understood to be best enhanced through creative self-expression and developing cultural awareness through studying past and present art works. This latter aim involved greater co-operation with museums, ateliers and factories[13]. With this new model of the art curriculum, it was a requirement that the subject be taught for four hours per

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9   Smith, 1987a, as cited in Salla, T. (2008), *Art education and educational systems*. Athens: Nçsos.

10   Xanthoudaki, M. (2003), *Museums, galleries and art education in primary schools*. In M. Xanthoudaki, L. Tickle & V. Sekules (Eds.), *Researching visual arts education in museums and galleries,* Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic, p. p. 105-116.

11   Xanthoudaki, M. (2003), *Museums, galleries and art education in primary schools*. In M. Xanthoudaki, L. Tickle & V. Sekules (Eds.), *Researching visual arts education in museums and galleries.* Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic, p.p. 105-116.

12   Xanthoudaki, M. (2003), *Museums, galleries and art education in primary schools*. In M. Xanthoudaki, L. Tickle & V. Sekules (Eds.), *Researching visual arts education in museums and galleries.* Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic, p.p. 105-116.

13   Xanthoudaki, M. (2003), *Museums, galleries and art education in primary schools*. In M. Xanthoudaki, L. Tickle & V. Sekules (Eds.), *Researching visual arts education in museums and galleries.* Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic, p.p. 105-116.

week for the first four classes of the primary school and two hours per week for the last two classes of the primary school. In 1999 (Table 1), a unified framework for all school curricula was published that was to be followed by all schools, from the kindergarten to upper secondary education. This change in approach was underpinned by the realization of the importance of offering all pupils a consistent and continuous framework for their education based on a unified philosophy. This approach aimed at making better transitions not only from one year class to the next, but also from one level of education (primary education) to the next (secondary education).

2.4. Period 4: The cross-curriculum approach to learning in art education

The new curriculum of 2003 (Table 1) adopted an interdisciplinary approach to knowledge, which contrasted with the previous view of disciplines for primary and lower secondary education. In aiming to improve the quality of teaching and learning, the education authorities encouraged active participation and a creative approach to new social requirements. Within this philosophy, cross-curricular links or interconnection between subjects and basic concepts was proposed. The cross-curricular approach to learning was not a new idea in Greek education as the Educational Society had introduced the idea many decades before. The publication of the 2003 cross-curriculum approach to learning in art education consisted of two parts: The first part introduced the cross-curriculum approach in art learning and was titled: "Cross-Thematic Curriculum Framework for Art" The second part introduced the "Analytical Curriculum for Art"[14].

3. Summary of Greek art education in primary and secondary education during the twentieth and early twenty –first centuries

During the first half of the twentieth century, art education was taught under the strong influence of the formal approach to education. With this uniform approach, common attitudes towards beauty and the ability to reproduce skills and knowledge were considered the most important goals of art education. This view changed in 1977 when the new curriculum proposed a greater emphasis on self-expression and innate creativity as isolated from any reference to the contextual study of art. During the 1980s serious efforts were made to tackle this inadequacy by attempting to contextualize the study of art in the curriculum. The art curriculum of 1999 gave a more explicit understanding of the way cognitive processes operate in primary and secondary art education, which was consolidated in the 2003 version.

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14   *The legislative framework for the cross – curriculum approach to learning.*

4. Art institutions at the primary and secondary school level in Greece over the last twenty years (1988 – 2010)

Over the past twenty five (25) years, the Greek Ministry of National Education has undertaken numerous initiatives to improve art education in both public and private primary and secondary schools. Several measures including new study programmes and other innovations that aimed at promoting art education using open, creative and autonomous learning approaches, have been explored. These innovations are part to a wider concern to improve arts education internationally. This priority, concerning the provision of art education, was a significant topic for United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) during the General Conference in 1999, when it launched a strong appeal to all its nation-members to improve the provision of art education[15]. The director, Koichiro Matsuura, called on all member states to take the appropriate administrative, economic and legislative measures to promote art in all levels of education. Greece followed this pioneering international stream of reconstructing art education, which started in the second half of the 1980s. National educational authorities were quick to mobilize, liaising with teachers, artists and cultural institutes so as to secure the conditions for a smooth cooperation between academia and the arts. The Greek educational authorities, with a series of strong institutional, administrative interventions in the primary and secondary education, reformed the picture of art education. Below is a brief outline of the steps that have been taken by the Ministry of Education from 1988 until 2010, to develop the arts in education and to enrich the curriculum a bigger engagement with art and culture.

Initiatives to improve art education of Greece from 1988-2010:
- 1988 - The creation of specialist secondary music schools
- 1993-2010 - The launch of an annual art festival titled "The National Student Cultural Games" for primary and secondary school students
- 1999 - The launch of the "Let's Go to the Cinema" (Pame Cinema in Greek) project
- 2003 - The creation of specialist visual and performing arts schools
- 1994-2004 – The creation of the pilot project titled "Melina Education and culture, arts in primary school"
- 2003 - The creation of the educational position of "Cultural Events Officers"

In addition to the above, there was another important initiative related to the development of art education:
- 2003 - The launch of a new "cross-thematic curriculum of study" for all school subjects at primary and secondary levels. This included the introduction of the

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15 Vergidis, D., & Vaikousi, D. (2003), *Melina project - education and culture: Teachers' in-service training*. Athens: ΥΡΕΡΤΗ, ΥΡΡΟ, ΓΓΕΕ.

"flexible zone for creative and cross-curricular activities" at the primary school level and the "zone of innovative actions" in the early secondary school level.

4.1. Music schools

The Ministry of Education passed a series of presidential decrees and ministerial decisions to establish a music school in 1998[16]**.** The aim of music schools is to educate and train pupils who wish to pursue a career in music ensuring that they are not deficient in general knowledge, in case they finally decide to pursue another scientific or professional field. The curriculum of music schools includes general education courses, aesthetic education and afternoon study courses. The teaching of music courses and exercise in workshops may be collective or personalized. It was decided by the Ministry that a five-member artistic committee would be created, comprising experts in the operating sectors of music schools and acknowledged pedagogues. The committee members change every three years. The work of the artistic committee is to study the curricula at music schools and to supervise and monitor the organization and operation of the schools as regards staffing and the evaluation of pupils' performances in the music subjects. The committee examines pupils' level of ability in rhythm, acoustic and vocal skills, and discernment of tones and, optionally, a musical instrument recognized by the Ministry of Culture. The progress of pupils in music subjects is the criterion for their remaining in the music gymnasio and music lyceio. The first music secondary school opened in 1988 in Pallini, Attica, on an experimental basis in order to apply experimental programs and experimental teaching methods. During the school year 2007-8 there were in total thirty-six (36) music schools throughout the country: music gymnasia and music lyceia.

4.2. National Student Cultural Games

The establishment of the National Student Cultural Games in 1993 was a new institution for primary and secondary school education[17]**.** The aim of the games is to introduce pupils to the empirical value of arts in relation to education, focusing on ancient and modern drama, dance, visual arts and music. The games are organized each year and are held on two levels: regional and national; participation is open to all public and private schools and to pupils from across the country, from the large cities to mountain villages and the smallest islands.

Nearly twenty-eight thousand (28,000) pupils from around the country participated in the games held during the academic year 2000-1[18]**.** A total of

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16 *The legislative framework for the establishment and the operation of public music secondary schools.*
17 *The legislative framework for the establishment of the National Student Cultural Games.*
18 Tsimboukidou, I. (2014), *Pupils' and teachers' perceptions of visual art education: A case study based on one of Greece's new secondary arts schools*. Athens: Arnaoutis.

four thousand nine hundred fifty eight (4,958) pupils participated in the field of drama, another nine thousand nine hundred ninety two (9,992) in visual arts, six thousand one hundred eighty five (6,185) in music and six thousand eight hundred thirty four (6,834) in dance. A closer look at the data shows that 15 percent of all primary and secondary school pupils from both private and public schools across the country participated in the drama games. Some 21 percent of pupils nationwide participated in the dance portion of the games, while 18 percent participated in the music section. A significant 46 percent of pupils participated in the visual arts section. A considerable total of seventy six thousand (76,000) pupils nationwide participated in the games, during the school year 2002-3. More than four thousand (4,000) pupils from two hundred and one (201) schools participated in the theatre workshops; some ten thousand and five hundred (10,500) pupils from five hundred and seventeen (517) schools participated in the visual arts workshops[19]. In the school year 2006-7 nearly twenty thousand nine hundred sixty six (20.966) pupils from around the country participated in the games[20].The National Student Cultural Games ran for last year in 2010. The institution was established by the Ministry of Education, co organized with the support of the General Bureau of Youth (GGNG) and the National Organization of Primary and Secondary Teachers (OIELE).

4.3. Cultural events officers

The National Student Cultural Games also started a new trend of posting teachers as cultural event officers at each of the one hundred and twenty six (126) (fifty-eight at the primary school level and sixty-eight at the secondary school level) directorates around the country[21]. Each directorate has one cultural event officer overseeing primary schools and another officer for the secondary schools; each is posted for four years. Their job is to promote and develop issues of cultural interests among pupils at the primary and secondary school level. Each directorate is responsible for several schools. During the academic year 2006-7, one thousand two hundred eighty five (1,285) cultural programmes were organized and realized with the participation of nineteen thousand two hundred seventy five (19,275) pupils of primary education and two thousand five hundred seventy (2,570) teachers[22].

4.4. The Melina Education and Culture project

The pilot project Melina Education and Culture (arts in primary school) ran for

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19 Ypepth & Pi, 2003.
20 Ypepth, 2007.
21 *The legislative framework for the teachers responsible for cultural issues.*
22 Eurydice. (2007), *Key data on education in Europe 2007*. Brussels: EACEA/Eurydice.

ten (10) years, between 1995 and 2004[23]. According to the report published by the Council of Europe in 2006[24], the aim of the Ministries of Education and Culture in launching the project in 1995 and was to raise the status and improving the quality of the cultural dimension in education. The project proposed a restoration of daily school activities through the indissoluble power of art and culture. This included a network of "satellite actions" that focussed, among other things, on specialist education and the development of the European Network of Artwork Schools (ENAS). The project also encouraged the widening of the curriculum content in the arts, to include theatre, the visual arts, modern dance, music, photography and literature. It also proposed a broad development of practical collaborations between schools, artists and cultural institutions through well-planned visits by pupils to cultural centres, especially museums and other sites of historical or archaeological interest, and through residencies and visits by artists. Each school participating in the project outlined the extra-curricular activities it offered in its annual programme. These activities included the organisation of art exhibitions at the schools, visits to theatres, exhibitions and concerts. Participation in the project was as follows: 1995-6: Forty-six primary schools, 1996-7: Seventy one primary schools, 1997-8: Eighty-one primary schools, 1998-9: Eighty five primary schools,1999-2000: Ninety-nine primary schools,2000-1: Ninety-two primary schools, including two schools from Cyprus[25]. The project was completed in 2004 with the participation of ninety-four primary schools[26].

4.4. The "Let's Go to the Cinema" project

The "Let's Go to the Cinema" (Pame Cinema in Greek) project was organised in 1999 by the Ministries of Education and Culture and the Thessalonica Film Festival. This project was initially designed for primary school pupils but was later extended to the secondary school level. The project introduced pupils to cinematography and to prominent people in this field and participating schools produced short-length films that were shown at the Thessalonica Film Festival.

4.5. The cross-curriculum approach to learning

In an effort to improve the quality of teaching and learning at Greek public schools, the Ministry of Education in 2003 prompted a shift to a student-centred

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23 *The legislative framework of the Melina project (arts in primary schools).*

24 Robinson, K. (2006), *The arts in schools provision across Europe*. Arts education in Europe. University of Warwick. The council of Europe. (http://www.coe.int/t/e/cultural_cooperation/culture/completed_projects/ youth/d.CountryProfiles.asp#TopOfPage, last updated 5-11-2007).

25 Vergidis, D., & Vaikousi, D. (2003), *Melina project - education and culture: Teachers' in-service training*. Athens: ΥΡΕΡΤΗ, ΥΡΡΟ, ΓΤΕΕ.

26 Eurydice. (2007), *Key data on education in Europe 2007*. Brussels: EACEA/Eurydice.

schooling that corresponds to pupil's life world[27]**.** It is under this framework that the Greek Ministry of Education proposed a cross-curriculum approach to the learning process. This approach revised the aims and methods of teaching, as well as the content of school subjects. It allowed an interconnection between school subjects and an overall analysis of basic concepts. The new cross-curriculum programme of study of 2003, for all school subjects, was developed for primary and secondary school education. It introduced a "flexible zone for creative and cross-curricular activities" in primary schools and a "zone of innovative actions" in lower secondary schools. Within the framework of the cross-curriculum approach the role of art figures as an essential component of the learning process. For this reason the cross- curriculum approach is considered very important for the provision of visual art education in Greece.

4.6. Secondary arts schools in Greece

In 2003 arts school (lower and upper secondary education) aimed at educating pupils in the arts and supporting their preparation, if so wished, for a future career in Theatre-Cinema, Dance and Visual Arts[28]**.** The arts school curriculum for the gymnasio includes general knowledge subjects as well as art subjects, with the following timetable:
- 1st school year: twenty nine hours of general knowledge and sixteen hours of art subjects;
- 2nd school year: twenty eight hours of general knowledge and seventeen hours of art subjects;
- 3rd school year: twenty nine hours of general knowledge and sixteen hours of art subjects.
    The timetable for the lyceio is as follows:
- 1st school year: thirty hours of general knowledge and sixteen hours of artistic subjects.
- 2nd and 3rd school year: no general knowledge courses are eliminated – given the particular nature of the curriculum in lyceio - while fourteen and sixteen hours of artistic subjects are added respectively.

    Pupils graduating from the gymnasio, the lower secondary school stage, are given certificates. Diplomas, which are valid for university entrance, are given to those who graduate from the lyceio. Teaching positions at these schools are very attractive and competitive. The teaching staff employed at the arts schools are expected to hold a graduate degree in the arts and to have more than five years of teaching experience, as well as artistic experience. As regards the head teachers, they are usually prominent cultural figures and are hired for four years by the

27 *The legislative framework for the cross – curriculum approach to learning.*
28 *The legislative framework for the arts schools.*

local educational councils. Based on the decision of the Minister of Education, a five-member committee of arts schools is set up of comprising experts and acknowledged personalities. Enrolment of pupils in the first year class of arts school is made after selection per direction. In order to facilitate attendance, pupils are transferred to school by special buses and also have lunch there. During the academic year 2008–2009, three arts schools operated in Greece: in Athens; in Crete, and in Thessalonica. The same year 279 pupils were enrolled in the school in Athens, 132 pupils in Crete, and 80 pupils in Thessalonica. From 2003 to 2010 these schools continue to operate under a pilot framework. The funding comes from the Ministry of Education and the Unified Program of Primary Education and Professional Grounding (EPEAEK II-funding programme).

5. Greek art education and art education in the Western world in the twentieth century

All four periods of Greek art education in the twentieth century, reflect the ideas of art education that has been developed in Europe and the United States of America the same period. Art education in Europe and the United States of America in the twentieth century operated in a modernist or postmodernist paradigm, emerging various models of art education with different orientation towards curriculum, teaching and the learning process.

5.1. The modernist paradigm of art education

Early twentieth-century models of art education that have been developed in the western world, such as self-expression, formalism and basic design, and art as grounded in daily life, have been conceptualized within a modernist rationale and paradigm. These modern approaches to art education share common features, particularly the idea of individual autonomy, in which subjective reality is dichotomized with the objective world. Learning is considered an intuitive quality of the learner. Understanding of art is separated from its social and cultural context. Knowledge is practical and can be generalized. The idea of instrumentality is practiced in learning. Greek art education in the beginning of the twentieth century echoes much of the above rationale. Periods one and two involved the ideas of autonomy of creativity and focused on formalism and instrumentality. The teaching of drawing and crafts as part of Greek primary and secondary education at the beginning of the twentieth century was regarded as a means of enhancing pupils' skill development, necessary for their professional futures. The teaching approach was based on behavioural learning theory.

5.2. The post-modern paradigm of art education

The late decades of the twentieth century introduced a more pluralistic, multidimensional understanding of art. Knowledge acquisition is developed around the cultural and historical aspects of art education, to include the world's cultures. Contrasting and alternative thinking is introduced by postmodernists, and reveals what is hidden from the conventions of modernism. The focus in postmodernism is on the importance of understanding the social origins of knowledge, the underlying social structures, relationships and the power process. The emphasis is on a pluralist and inclusive curriculum to understand different practices of art. Art education aims to develop critical thinking. Greek art education in the late of the twentieth century followed the above aims. The curricula of periods three and four, mainly from 1990 and onwards, made efforts at contextualized studies of art establishing the relationship between art understanding and cultural and social context.

6. Summary

The paper has reviewed the profile of Greece's art education within the context of national art education the last one hundred years. It attempted to develop an insightful way of looking Greek art education. The provision of art education is an area of research that has gained the attention of researchers in Greece[29]. Numerous surveys about the role of art education in the formal education of young people have also been carried out in Europe as reported by the Council of Europe[30]. The paper is related to a wide range of research in art education that focused on the process of learning and issues concerning the content and purposes of the curriculum, and the associated instructional methods[31] . It is hoped that the

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29 Ypepth & Pi, 2003.
30   Robinson, K. (2006), *The arts in schools provision across Europe*. Arts education in Europe. University of Warwick. The council of Europe. (http://www.coe.int/t/e/cultural_cooperation/culture/completed_projects/ youth/d.CountryProfiles.asp#TopOfPage, last updated 5-11-2007).
31 Bruner, J. (1996), *The culture of education*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
    Brewer, T. (1998), *The relationship of art instruction, grade level, and gender on third and seventh grade student drawings*. Studies in Art Education, 39 (2), p.p. 132-136.
    Brewer, T. (1999), *Art teacher profiles and preferences. Studies in Art Education*, 41 (1), p. p.61-70.
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    Congdon, K., Blandy, D., & Bolin, E. (2001), *Histories of community- based art education*. Arts Reader, 12 (3), p. 203.

paper will add extra knowledge to the development of art education, and provoke further reflection on Greek art education.

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Table 1: The visual art curricula of Greece during the period 1894-2003

THE CURRICULUM OF THE GREEK VISUAL ART EDUCATION DURING THE PERIOD 1894-2003

PERIOD B	*The period influenced by the ideas of the "Educational Society"*	PERIOD A		*Art education at the beginning of the 20th century*	
PRIMARY EDUCATION					**PRIMARY EDUCATION**
Year of issue of new curriculum		The curriculum of 1894[1]	Year of issue of new curriculum		
Curriculum aims		• Technical skillfulness	Curriculum aims		
		Sketching, calligraphy	Thematic cover		
		• Mechanical teaching method • Formal approach	Teaching method		
Thematic cover		The total of hundred and twenty two hours (h) for the four years of the Primary School 4h weakly sketching for the 3 last year classes 2h weakly calligraphy for all four classes	Weekly Total hours		
Teaching method		8,2%	School time		
Total hours		The 1907[2] authorship of books for calligraphy and sketching	Year of issue of new curriculum		**SECONDARY EDUCATION**
School time		Enhancing pupils' technical skill development necessary for professional future. The ideals of classicism	Curriculum aims		
Year of issue of new curriculum		Calligraphy and sketching	Thematic cover		
Curriculum aim	**SECONDARY EDUCATION**	Mechanical teaching method	Teaching method		
Thematic cover			Total Hours		
Teaching method					
Weekly Total Hours			School time		
School time					

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The curriculum of 1969[6]	The curriculum of 1913[7]	The proposed curriculum of 1912 by the educational society
· Development of productivity · Cultivation of elegance · Technical skillfulness	· Technical skillfulness	• Technical skillfulness (teaching of perspective, nuances) • Self activity • Integration of knowledge • Self expression • Sketching from memory and imagination
Sketching, calligraphy and crafts	Sketching, calligraphy and crafts	Sketching, crafts
Mechanical teaching methods	Mechanical teaching methods	classes Individualized learning
	The total of two hundred and four hours during all six year class of the Primary School	
10,5%	16,7%	

The curriculum of 1931	The curriculum of 1918[5]	The curriculum of 1914[4]	
Technical skillfulness	The ideas of classicism	The ideas of classicism	
Sketching, calligraphy and crafts	Sketching and calligraphy crafts is added	Sketching, calligraphy	
Mechanical teaching methods	Mechanical teaching methods	Mechanical teaching methods	
eight hours for the total of the six year classes of the secondary school	Five hours' per week for a year class of gymnasio Five hours' per week for b year class of gymnasio Four hours' per week for c year class of gymnasio	Nine hours per week for the total of the three class years of the Lower Secondary School	
4,4%	13,1%	8,8%	

PERIOD C		The period of educational reforms: the art curriculum 1977-1999	PRIMARY EDUCATION			
The curriculum of 1977[7]	Year of issue of new curriculum					
•Development of self expression •Development of imagination •Skill development •Experimentation	Curriculum aims					
Painting, drawing , crafts	Thematic cover					
Experimentation active participation	Teaching method					
Twenty two hours for all six year classes from the Total of one hundred and sixty one hours for all disciplines	Weekly Total hours					
7,5%	School time					
	Year of issue of new curriculum		SECONDARY EDUCATION	The curriculum of 1969	The curriculum of 1967	The curriculum of 1935
	Curriculum aims			Technical skillfulness	Technical skillfulness	Technical skillfulness
	Thematic cover			Sketching, calligraphy and crafts	Sketching, calligraphy and crafts	Sketching, calligraphy and crafts
	Teaching method			Mechanical teaching methods	Mechanical teaching methods	Mechanical teaching methods
	Total Hours					
	School time					
				1,9%	2,7%	3,3%

The curriculum of 1999[11]	The curriculum of 1990[10]	The curriculum of 1982[8]
Making Understanding	Creative self expression Cultural awareness Experimentation Collaboration with museums	• Free Active self expression • Emotional development • Sensory development • Artistic skills • Cultural awareness
Aesthetic education: visual art, music, drama.	Aesthetic education: visual art, music, drama.	"Aesthetic education" (drawing/painting, crafts, music)
Experiential teaching critical approach		Invest in pupils' individual needs, interests and abilities
Four hours per week for the first four year classes & two hours per week for the rest two last year classes	Four hours per week for the first four year classes & two hours per week for the last two year classes	Four hours per week for the first four year classes and two for the other two year classes
9,2%		
The curriculum of 1999[11]		The curriculum of 1985[9]
•Making •Understanding		interpersonal skills creativity cultural awareness critical awareness
Aesthetic education: visual art, music, drama		Painting, drawing, sculpture, etching
Experiential teaching critical approach		Invest in pupils individual needs, interests and abilities
One hour per week for Gymnasio & one hour per week for the first class of Lyceio	Visual art	One hour per week for all three year classes of High school – one hour per week for the first year class of Lyceio
6%		6,5%

THE GREEK VISUAL ART CURRICULUM OF THE TWENTIETH FIRST CENTURY		The cross-curriculum approach to learning in art education in 2003		
	PRIMARY EDUCATION			**PERIOD D**
			Year of issue of new curriculum	The cross thematic curriculum of 2003
			Curriculum aims	Adopted the interdisciplinary approach of knowledge ▸ Making ▸ Understanding ▸ Integration of know-ledge
			Thematic cover	Aesthetic education: visual art, music, drama.
			Teaching method	Experiential teaching critical approach
			Weekly Total hours	Three hours per week for the first four classes & two hours per week for the rest two last classes
			School time	9,2%
	SECONDARY EDUCATION		Year of issue of new curriculum	The cross thematic curriculum of 2003*
			Curriculum aims	▸ Making ▸ Understanding ▸ Integration Of Knowledge
			Thematic cover	etching), music, drama.
			Teaching method	Experiential teaching critical approach
			Weekly Total hours	Two hour per week for Gymnasio (one hour for music & one hour for visual art) & one hour per week for the first class of Lyceio (Drama)
			School time	6%

The legislative framework for the art curricula:

1. Royal Act / 20 November 1984. Curriculum on the subjects of the D' year class Primary Schools
2. Official journal of the Greek State 139 (12 July 1907)
3. Royal Act / 1 September 1913
4. Royal Act 31 October 1914. Curriculum on the Taught subjects of the Greek School and gymnasio. Official journal of the Greek State 369/10 December 1914
5. Royal Act 17 December 1918. Official Journal of the Greek State 255/19 December 1918
6. Royal Act 702/16 October 1969. Curriculum and Timing Plan on the Taught subjects of the Primary School
7. Official journal of the Greek Democratic State. On the taught subjects, Curriculum and Timing Plan of the Primary School, Presidential Decree 1034/77, 1.347 (12 November 1977) : 3191 – 3220
8. Official journal of the Greek Democratic State. Curriculum and Timing Plan of A' and B' class of Primary School, Presidential Decree No 583/82, 1.107, article No 2 (31 August 1982) : 917 – 962
9. Official journal of the Greek Democratic State. On the Taught subjects, Curriculum and Timing Plan of the lower Secondary School, Presidential Decree 438/85, (158/19 September 1985) : 2485, 2473, 2481
10. Official journal of the Greek Democratic State. Aesthetic Education Curriculum for Classes C', D', E' and F' of the Primary School, Presidential Decree No 132/90, vol. 1.53 (10 April 1990): 545 – 559
11. Official journal of the Greek Democratic State. Aesthetic Education Curriculum for Classes F', G' of the Primary School, Ministerial Decree No Γ1/633, vol. 2 (28 July 1999): 1535
12. The legislative framework for the visual art curriculum for gymnasio Ministerial Decision Γ2/3864/24-8-1999 Government Gazette/1645/24-8-99 Official journal of the Greek Democratic State Aesthetic Education Curriculum for lower and upper Secondary School, Ministerial Decree No Γ/3864, vol. 2 (24 August 1999): 1645

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Appendix 2: The legislative framework for the cross –curriculum approach to learning

- Ministerial Decision Ministry of Education (Ypepth), Government Gazette 303/13-3-2003
  "The Cross-Thematic Curriculum Framework for art and the Analytical Curriculum for Art"

Appendix 3: The legislative framework for the establishment and the operation of public music secondary schools

- Ministerial Decisions Ministry of Education (Ypepth)
  Γ2/3345/2-9-1998 (§ 16 L1824/88 Government Gazette 296/v. α)
  "Organization and function of music schools"
- Government Gazette 649/v. b´/7-9-1998(Ministerial Decision 3345)
  "The establishment, organization and function of music schools"
- Government Gazette 658/v. b´/1-7-1998(Ministerial Decision 3850/Γ2)
  "Function of music schools"

Appendix 4: The legislative framework for the establishment of the National Student Cultural Games

- L 2817/2000 (Law): 2000, 2817, Government Gazette A 78/14-3-2000
  "Education of individuals with special education needs and other stipulations"

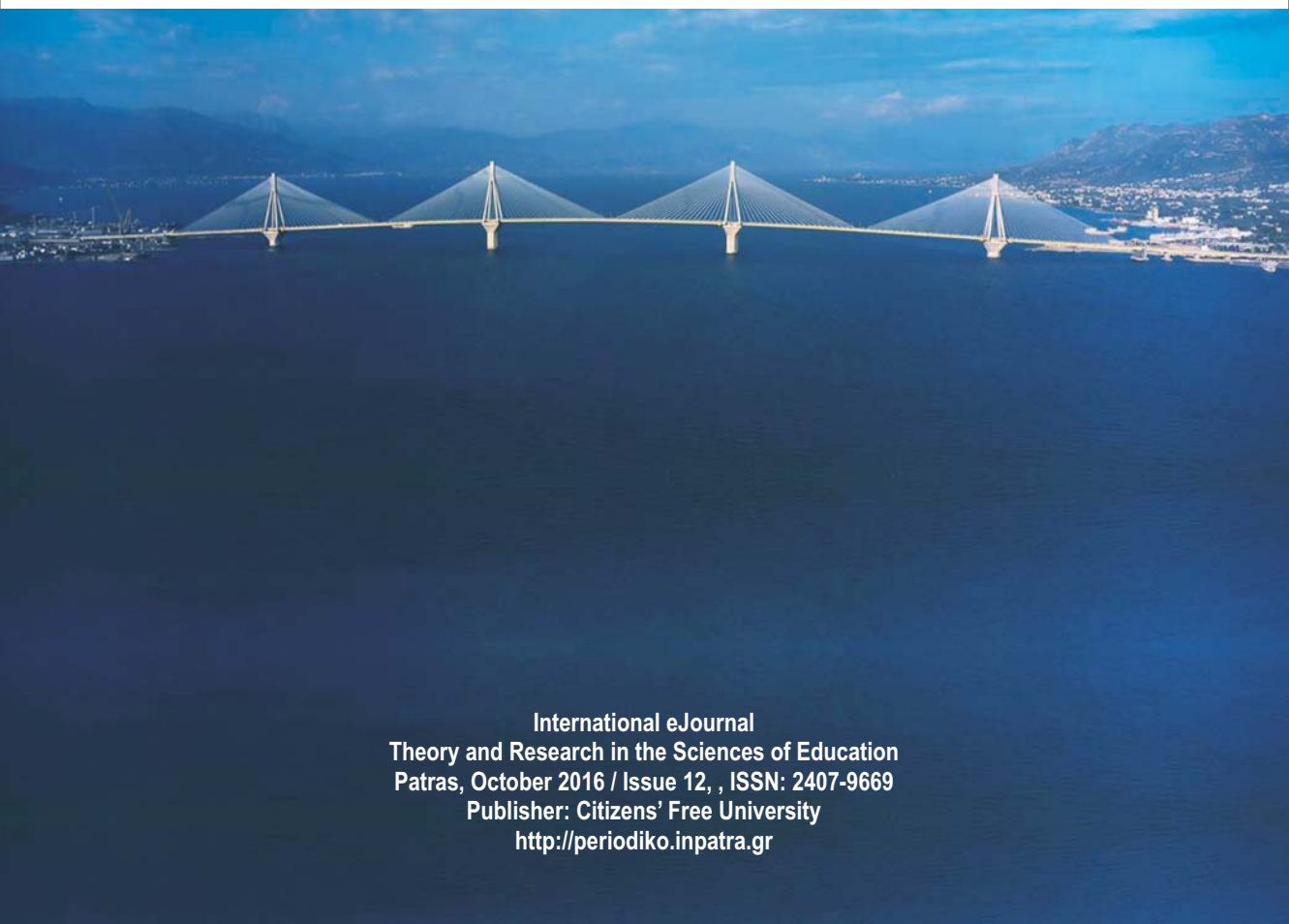## Appendix 5: The legislative framework for the teachers responsible for cultural issues

- Ministerial Decision Ministry of Education (Ypepth) Γ7/ 69259/10-7-2003
  "The establishment of the positions for the officers responsible for cultural issues" and Γ7/91483/1-9-2003 amendment of Γ7/ 69259/10-7-2003

Appendix 6:•The legislative framework of the Melina project (arts in the primary schools)

- Φ8/249,309/28-2-1995/Γ1
  Ministerial Decision Ministry of Education and Ministry (Ypeth) of Culture (Yppo) in common

Appendix 7: The legislative framework for the arts schools:

- L 3194/2003 (Law): 2003, 3194, Government Gazette A 267/20-11-2003
  "Regulation of educational issues and other stipulations"

- Ministerial Decision 107922/Γ7/3-10-03
  Organization and function of arts schools
  Government Gazette 1497/ v.b'/10-10-2003, amending Ministerial Decision
  A39707/Γ7/12-4-2007

- Ministerial Decision 45871/Γ7
  Function of arts schools
  Government Gazette 786/ v.b'/26-5-2004 (Ministerial Decision 45871/Γ7/8-
  5-2004) – amending M.D. 39708/Γ7/12-4-2007

- Ministerial Decisions regarding the establishment of the three arts schools
  Ministerial Decision 90494/Δ4, Ministerial Decision 125031/Δ4, Ministerial
  Decision 130625/Δ4

- Ministerial Decision 65473/Γ7
  Government Gazette 932/ v.b'/6-7-2005
  The constitute of arts school council

- Ministerial Decision 90714/Γ7/12-9-2005
  Government Gazette 286/ v.b'/10-3-2006
  Timetable of a', b' & c' year class for the Gymnasio arts schools

- Ministerial Decision 88740//Γ7/6-9-2006
  Timetable of A', B' & C' year class of Lyceio arts schools